

**Florida International University  
The 11th Annual College of Education and  
Graduate Student Network  
Research Conference  
Saturday, April 28, 2012**



***The Cornerstones of the College of Education: Honoring Inquiry,  
Promoting Mentoring, and Fostering Scholarship***

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The purpose of the Florida International University Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference (COE GSN RC) is to enhance the existing research culture. The conference provides a meaningful vehicle for the preparation, mentorship, and presentation of scholarly work by students, faculty, and alumni.

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# **COERC 2012**

**Proceedings of  
The 11th Annual College of Education and  
Graduate Student Network  
Research Conference**

**April 28, 2012  
Florida International University  
Miami, Florida USA**

**Proceedings of  
The 11th Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network  
Research Conference**

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## Acknowledgements

The FIU College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference Steering Committee would like to thank the College of Education faculty and students for supporting the eleventh annual COE GSN research conference. Special thanks must go to the Office of the Dean under the guidance of Dean Delia Garcia for their sponsorship and generous support of the eleventh annual conference and for the invaluable work of Maria Tester. Maria Tester has been assisting with the logistics of the conference since the beginning. She is an asset to the conference and to the college. Masha Plakhotnik, Sarah M. Nielsen, Teresa Lucas, and Adriana McEachern are the core of the steering committee; their dedicated service has contributed much to the professional conference we put on each year.

The Graduate Student Network (GSN) has assisted the conference for several years by staffing the registration table, putting together packets, and other odd jobs. For the seventh year, there will be an award for the best student paper sponsored by the Graduate Student Network. This is the fourth year of our full partnership with GSN. This organization's support has been crucial to the success of the conference. Thank you GSN!

Teresa Lucas and Maria Plakhotnik facilitated the review process. This includes locating faculty to review, prompting reviewers to return reviews, being third reviewers when the student and faculty reviews are opposed, and doing additional reviews when reviewers fail to return their reviews needed. Teresa has been invaluable in securing monitors, reviewers, and assisting with getting the poster review process up and running. Special thanks must go to Adriana McEachern and Sarah M. Nielsen who have worked on behalf of this conference since its inception in 2000-2001 and the first conference in 2002. Adriana continues to support the conference by chairing the sponsorship committee, the awards committees, and helping with logistics. Adriana McEachern continued the campaign to secure sponsors securing about \$690 dollars in donations and additional gifts for our raffle. We also wish to thank Creating Latino Access to a Valuable Education (CLAVE) for its support of the conference.

Maria S. "Masha" Plakhotnik has stepped up and volunteered to assist with the review and selection committee, program planning, marketing, and proceedings editing. Masha organizes and records all submissions, sees that papers are tracked during the review process, and monitors accepted papers and authors responses to reviewers' comments. Masha, Sarah, and Debbie edit every paper in the proceedings. They work with authors to address grammar, formatting, APA, and sentence structure. Their work contributes to the high quality of the papers published each year in the proceedings. For the second year we have a committee, the poster review and selection committee, chaired by Diana Valle-Riestra. The members include Liz Cramer, Teresa Lucas, and Chaundra Whitehead. Chaundra has assisted this process by processing the poster submissions, assisting with the review process, and other duties supporting the committee's work.

Without the continuing support of so many, this conference would not exist, so thank you again for making our eleventh annual conference so successful!

Tonette S. Rocco, Chair, COE GSN Research Conference Steering Committee

## Committee Membership

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The Arsht Center is the headquarters and home of the Florida Grand Opera and Miami City Ballet. The New World Symphony also regularly performs at the Knight Concert Hall.

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The FIU Bookstore, operated by Barnes & Noble Booksellers, has been servicing the FIU campuses for over twenty years. We sell all required and recommended textbooks for your classes both new and, used copies when available. For additional information go to our webpage at [fiu.bncollege.com](http://fiu.bncollege.com).

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Panorama Travel is a travel management company based in Miami, Florida with over 20 years of experience. We work closely with FIU colleges, departments, centers, and faculty. Departmental, group, individual, or even personal travel. Email: [reservations@pantrav.com](mailto:reservations@pantrav.com)

### **Dr. Tonette Rocco**

Tonette S. Rocco is coeditor of *New Horizons in Adult Education and Human Resource Development* and is on the editorial board of *Adult Education Quarterly*, *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *Human Resource Development International*, and *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. She recently published the book, *The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing*.

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**Dr. Joan Wynne**

Dr. Joan Wynne is a faculty member in the Department of Teaching and Learning and the Director for Community Relations.

*Thank you for your support*

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## **Morning Keynote**

### **“The Privatization of Higher Education”**

**by Tom Auxter**

Tom Auxter is statewide president of United Faculty of Florida, an AFT-NEA affiliate, which represents 23,000 faculty and graduate assistants at eleven public universities, nine public colleges, and one independent university. He has been a philosophy professor at the University of Florida since 1973, after receiving a Ph.D. in philosophy from Bryn Mawr College. He is the author of *Kant's Moral Teleology* and over two dozen articles in ethics, the history of philosophy, and the philosophy of culture. In 2010, he published “Radical Transformations in Higher Education: Where Do We Go from Here?” in *Thought and Action*.

## **Afternoon Keynote**

**“Stories from the Education Effect:  
A University-Assisted Community School Partnership between FIU,  
Miami Northwestern Senior High School, and the Liberty City Community”**

**A presentation by Maria Lovett and faculty, staff, and students from Miami Northwestern Senior High**

Professor Maria Lovett from the COE with students and faculty/staff from Miami Northwestern Senior High School will present the framework for this university-assisted community school partnership in Liberty City, Miami. The presentation will include discussing strategies for research, service learning, and community engagement. Students will share their stories as well as lead an interactive activity with the audience.

## The Lorraine R. Gay Award for Excellence in Research and Scholarship

The purpose of the award is to acknowledge, in the name of L. R. Gay, outstanding research scholarship on the part of students and their supporting faculty in the College of Education of FIU.

L. R. (Lorrie) Gay, the founding professor of educational research for the FIU College of Education, was dedicated to students, to the rigorous pursuit of educational excellence and to research scholarship. She chaired the first doctoral dissertation awarded in the College of Education. She published textbooks in educational research, tests and measurement, and educational psychology. They were published as L.R. rather than Lorrie because the publisher felt a female author would not be as accepted as a male, so initials were used. The educational research text became the best-selling book of its kind and her publisher estimates that 1 out of every 2 students in the field has used this text.

The recipients of this award walk in the shadow of someone who cared for every student, and fought to make our course in educational research the best of its kind because she knew this was the way to best serve students. If you have taken the course you know what it requires and as you realize the skills you have attained through her efforts, you appreciate her efforts to this day, years after her passing.

It is anticipated that one award will be presented annually to the student whose research best exemplifies Lorrie's high standards. In the case of multiple authors for the same paper, multiple awards will be bestowed.

The awards are determined based upon papers submitted for presentation at the College of Education and Graduate Student Network Annual Research Conference. Award decisions are determined by the judgment of the faculty members serving as the L. R. Gay Award Sub-Committee. Members of this sub-committee are to be selected by the entire Steering Committee. The current members of the L. R. Gay Award sub-committee are Adriana G. McEachern (Chair), Joy Blanchard, Gwyn Senokossoff, and Melody Whiddon.

### L. R. Gay Award Recipients

- 2011 Plakhotnik, M. S., *A Geocentric Organizational Culture of a Global Corporation: A Phenomenological Exploration of Employees' Experiences*
- 2010 Martin J. Wasserberg, "I'm Trying To Bring the Scores of My School Up, Man!" *Standardized Testing, Stereotypes, and High-Performing African American Elementary School Students*
- 2009 Debra Mayes Pane, *Reducing the Discipline Gap Among African American Students: Learning in Classroom Communities of Practice*
- 2008 Antonio Delgado, *Speaking Up: A Phenomenological Study of Student Perceptions of Being Silenced in their Higher Education Classrooms*
- 2008 Tekla Nicholas and LéTania Severe, *School Segregation, Educational Disparities, and Impacts on Haitian Youth in South Florida*
- 2007 Liana Casbarro and Jemlys Jäger, *The Mistranslation of the ABCs: An American AIDS Education Campaign in Botswana*
- 2006 Suzanne J. Gallagher, *A Phenomenological Study of Learning Processes at Work; Confirming, Extending, and Challenging Holistic Learning Theory*
- 2005 Victoria A. Giordano, *A Professional Development Model to Promote Internet Integration into P-12 Teaching Practices*
- 2004 Kandell Malocsay, *The Effects of Cultural Distance on Student Socialization and Departure Decisions*
- 2003 Sarah M. Nielsen, *High Stakes and No Takers: The Impact of Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) Writing on Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Writing*
- 2002 Loraine Wasserman, *The Effects of a Family-based Educational Intervention on the Prevention of Lead Poisoning in Children*

## **The College of Education Graduate Student Network Best Student Conference Paper Award**

The College of Education Graduate Student Network (COE-GSN) was started by Debra Pane and Claudia Grigorescu in 2005 to unite graduate students and find ways to enhance the graduate student experience.

GSN has held several fundraisers to support graduate student COE Research Conference (COERC) attendance, donate funds for those in need (e.g., Tsunami disaster relief), and provide a monetary award for best student presentations and best student papers at the conference each year. GSN hosts workshops throughout the semester, invites guest speakers to its general meetings, and supports the needs of fellow graduate students through activities such as the GSN Dissertation Writing Group held in previous years. As a student-run organization, GSN hopes to continue the spirit of academia by creating and fostering a graduate student culture.

This year, GSN is once again giving an award for the Best Student Conference Paper 2012. Under the guidance of the GSN 2011-2012 President, Chaundra L. Whitehead, the GSN team conducted a blind review of all the student manuscripts and selected the winner based on research and writing guidelines developed by the GSN executive board and its members.

### **COE-GSN Award Recipients**

- 2011 Vivian Astray-Caneda, Malika Busbee, and Markell Fanning, *Social Learning Theory and Prison Work Release Programs*
- 2009 Debra Mayes Pane, *Reducing the Discipline Gap among African American Students: Learning in Classroom Communities of Practice*
- 2008 Tekla Nicholas and LéTania Severe, *School Segregation, Educational Disparities, and Impacts on Haitian Youth in South Florida*
- 2007 Sofia Bitela, *Band Queer: Lesbian and Gay Marching, and Symphonic Bands, and Transformative and Emancipatory Learning Experiences for Adults*

## **Barnes & Noble Best Faculty-Student Paper Award**

The purpose of the award is to acknowledge, in the name of *Barnes and Noble*, outstanding scholarship on a paper written by a faculty-student(s) team and presented at the College of Education and Graduate Student Network Annual Research Conference.

It is anticipated that one award will be presented annually to a faculty-student team. In the case of multiple authors for the same paper, multiple awards will be bestowed.

The awards are determined based upon papers submitted for presentation at the College of Education and Graduate Student Network Annual Research Conference. Award decisions are determined by a panel of faculty and students serving as the Barnes & Noble Award Sub-Committee. Members of this sub-committee are to be selected by the entire Steering Committee. The current members of the Barnes & Noble Award sub-committee are Adriana G. McEachern (Chair), Isaac Burt, and Kyle Bennett.

### **Barnes & Noble Award Recipients**

2010 Maria I. Bendixen and Martha Pelaez, *Effects of Contingent Maternal Imitation vs. Contingent Motherese Speech on Infant Canonical Babbling*



## Moderators and Graduate Student Network Volunteers

### Session Moderators

Charles Bleiker  
Linda Bliss  
Antonio Delgado  
Deborah Hasson  
Jennifer Hoyte  
Sarah A. Mathews  
Robert Mizzi  
Martha Pelaez  
Kyle Perkins  
Andy Pham  
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### GSN Volunteers

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Iryna Dzhuryak  
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**College of Education and GSN  
Research Conference  
Peer-Reviewed Papers**

## **Learning Behind Bars: Exploring Prison Educators' Facilitation of Inmates' Self-directed Learning through Garrison's Model**

Renu Batra, Tom Jasso, and Yvette Stevens  
Florida International University, USA

**Abstract:** Formal education programs in prisons have had success in reducing recidivism, but the introduction of informal learning can have additional benefits and longer lasting effects. This paper addresses recidivism and its effects on inmates and society at large and how prison educators can facilitate self-directed learning in prisons through Garrison's model.

On any given day more than 2 million people are incarcerated in the United States. Within three years of their release, 67% of them are rearrested among which 52% are re-incarcerated (Bureau of Statistics, 2011). This re-offensive behavior is known as recidivism. Recidivism costs taxpayers almost \$60 billion a year (Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Internal violence, overcrowding, poor medical and mental health care, and numerous other failings plague America's 5,000 prisons and jails. Ninety-five percent of inmates are eventually released back into society, ill-equipped to lead productive lives (Bureau of Statistics, 2011). The effect of prison or jail sentences on recidivism concerns public safety and the cost-effectiveness of putting convicted offenders back in prisons. Opinions are divided between those advocating longer sentences in the interest of public safety and those advocating shorter sentences with the assumption that incarceration, or longer prison terms, will not reduce recidivism rates (Song & Lieb, 1993).

Formal education programs have been successful in preparing inmates to find employment and be self-sufficient when they are released from prison (Boucoulalas & Pearse, 1985). However, not much has been written about informal learning programs that are also helpful in reducing recidivism (Day, 1998). The concept of self-directed learning, wherein an individual takes the initiative and responsibility for their own learning (Knowles, 1975), can be a potentially important factor in reducing recidivism. Inmates as a group of adult learners can benefit greatly from the incorporation of self-directed learning in prisons. Self-directed learning can be a great tool for prison administrators. It involves inmates in selecting, managing, and assessing their own learning activities, which can be pursued at any time, in any place, through any means, at any age (Brookefield, 1984). Self-directed learning is a central concept in the practice of adult learning. Garrison (1997) proposed a three-part interrelated self-directed learning model: self-management, self-monitoring, and motivation. These concepts focus on resource use, learning strategies, and motivation. Helping learners take responsibility for their own learning by proactively using resources available to them and collaborating with other individuals will greatly encourage inmates to improve their lives. After they are released from prison, they will feel confident about making an honest life for themselves which, in turn, will potentially help reduce recidivism (Warren, 2007).

Correctional educators have worked for years, based on the belief that learning not only provides hope and an avenue for change, but that it also reduces the likelihood of future crime. The purpose of this paper is to explore how prison educators' facilitation of self-directed learning, using Garrison's model to help inmates take control of their own learning, potentially

helps reduce recidivism rates. The paper addresses recidivism, discusses formal learning programs in prisons, and introduces informal learning in informal learning programs in prisons. Also, it describes self-directed learning, reviews Garrison's model of self-directed learning, and presents what changes can be brought about by incorporating Garrison's model in prisons.

### **Recidivism**

Recidivism is "the likelihood of re-offending" or repeating a crime (Berman, et al., 2005). Once an inmate is released from prison, subsequent criminal convictions or supervision revocations by an inmate is considered recidivism. Each state judicial system considers a defendant's likelihood to recidivate (Hofer & Allenbaugh, 2003) prior to the actual sentencing of a defendant. Prior recidivism offenses and aggravated types of offenses committed by a defendant are likely to lead to longer incarceration periods (Hofer & Allenbaugh, 2003). A criminal history score based on prior offenses is developed and used as a predictability factor to determine likelihood of recidivism by a defendant (Hofer & Allenbaugh, 2003). A research study completed in Connecticut indicates that inmates most likely to recidivate are involved with property crimes, substance abuse, violence related crimes, sexually related crimes, and are mentally unstable (Austin, 2010).

Inmates become repeat offenders for various reasons since they are commonly released from incarceration with minimal resources and scarce employment opportunities (McKean & Ransford, 2004). The National Institute for Literacy revealed that 70% of inmates "function at the two lowest levels of both prose and numeric literacy . . . are unable to fill out a Social Security or job application, write a business letter, calculate a price discount, or read a bus schedule" (Petersilia, 2001, p. 366). Performing simple daily tasks becomes a challenge for most inmates, resulting in low self-esteem and a severe lack of self-worth. They go on to believe the only life they are worth is one of crime (Petersilia, 2001).

Recidivism significantly impacts the government financially with high costs of recidivism incurred for law enforcement agencies to arrest, process, prosecute, and incarcerate former inmates (Stravinskis, 2009). It costs approximately \$30,000 per year to incarcerate an adult male convicted of a felony in the United States (McKean & Ransford, 2004). This sum does not include public funding to build and maintain new prisons, feed the inmates, provide medical care, and hire personnel, which could be potentially used on rehabilitation programs (Merlo & Benekos, 2005). Research indicates that strong ties with family and with significant others helps offenders reduce recidivism once they are released from incarceration (Bing, 1989). Inmates that did not have family visits while in prison were six times more likely to recidivate during the first year than those inmates who had at least three or more consistent family visitors while they were incarcerated.

Recidivists can be a potential threat to public safety since most return to their former neighborhoods, causing people to move away from high crime level neighborhoods, which become rundown and deprived (Petersilia, 2001). Recidivists may also slowly influence younger people in the neighborhood towards a life of crime (Petersilia, 2001), increasing potential offenses committed in their respective neighborhoods.

Statistics indicate that approximately 45% of recidivism is due to probation violations, 33% to new arrests, and 22% to new convictions (Maxfield, 2005). Inmates who have committed fewer criminal offenses in the past will be less likely to recidivate than those inmates who have previously committed more criminal offenses. Treatment of offenders is more effective than punishment.

### **Formal Learning in Prisons**

Formal learning programs introduced in the California Men's Colony, a medium-security correctional institution, allowed inmates to avail themselves to structured higher education courses, helping them earn an associate's and/or a bachelor's degree (Thomas, 1984). Programs included answers to a weekly set of study guide questions in preparation for a weekly essay quiz, discussion of test items immediately following the quiz, and completion of projects that required the application of newly learned concepts in analyzing current social conditions (Thomas, 1984). This structured-learning approach is based on the belief that almost all students can achieve learning goals at a high level of performance if given a fair chance to learn. Taking college courses in prison is a privilege not a right; therefore, self-motivated inmates do well in their studies and receive intellectual stimulation, knowledge, skills, and reduction in their sentences instead of serving mundane time in prison (Thomas, 1984). Inmates motivated to participate in the prison college courses tend to come from a higher socioeconomic background than non-attending inmates; however, there is an increased attendance of lower social class inmates in college prison than in regular colleges.

### **Informal Learning**

Informal learning is defined as a life-long learning process that assists individuals to acquire and accumulate knowledge, skills, attitudes, and insights from daily life experiences in their respective home, work, and social environments. Attitudes of family and friends and access to electronic and print media (Manzoor & Coombs, 1974) can be important components of the informal learning process. Formal and informal learning are interrelated (Malcolm, Hodgkinson, & Colley, 2003). Formal learning consists of structured context (formal education, in-company training), which may lead to a formal recognition (diploma, certificate). Informal learning is often referred to as experiential learning and can, to a certain degree, be understood as accidental learning that occurs outside of the syllabus and learning materials used for the lesson. Research indicates that 70% of learning takes place outside of formal classrooms and may include honing practical skills through personal reflection, socializing, and networking (Day, 1998). Creating an informal learning culture in the workplace helps motivate employees and foster their skill development. Formal learning programs have been successful in preparing inmates to find employment and lead independent lives upon their release; however, informal learning programs could potentially contribute to the learning process of dealing with situations in their work and home environments.

### **Informal Learning in Prisons**

Group learning programs have been an important component of rehabilitation for inmates in correctional settings, establishing important goals for group work with inmates (Winterowd, Morgan, & Ferrell, 2001). It has been argued that specific, well-defined and realistic goals to be achieved and evaluated fairly should be developed to guide group work with inmates (Rizvi, Hyland, & Blackstock, 1983). Participating in learning activities in a group setting helps inmates learn more about themselves, their values, and opinions (Kahnweiler, 1978). They also assist in improving their relationships with other members in the group, family members, friends, inmates, and prison staff by teaching effective communication skills and altruistic behavior (Kahnweiler, 1978) and by emphasizing the importance of relationships. Motivational factors and group dynamics as well as specific topics of discussion can serve as catalysts for self-understanding and empathy for others. A goal clearly related to rehabilitation is modifying delinquent behavior (Wardrop, 1976). Group learning activities provide inmates with opportunities to develop other ways of achieving their goals in life without breaking the rules or

harming themselves or others. Inmates in a group setting may be able to relate better to others by realizing the common experiences shared, the value and importance of relationships, how they can help one another, and how they personally affect and assist group members (Winterowd, Morgan, & Ferrell, 2001). Focusing group work on issues of pro-social behavior and conformity is essential to reducing recidivism (Winterowd, Morgan, & Ferrell, 2001). Inmates can learn how to relate positively and meaningfully with others by learning pro-social skills and conventional rules in every context. By learning both the consequences of their actions on others and how to resolve conflicts in group, they can transfer this knowledge into their daily life (Winterowd, Morgan, & Ferrell, 2001). Group learning is a practice that prison educators are using to encourage positive behavior change in inmates since it facilitates communication with offenders about compliance and behavior change (Miller, 2007). People with low self-control are more likely to commit crimes; educators can help offenders improve self-control by encouraging natural talents and interests, talking about what things worked for them in the past, and identifying and role-playing difficult situations.

Traditional prison programs provide four areas of learning: educational/academic instruction, vocational training, prison industries, and employment/transitional training. Life skills training (e.g., obtaining housing, balancing checkbooks, and maintaining appropriate interpersonal relationships), mental health treatment, substance abuse treatment, faith-based programs, and other types of interventions are available to prisoners (Dubin, Lawrence, Mears, & Travis, 2002). Although programming available to inmates covers wide spread areas of adulthood, there continue to be challenges in effective programming that could ultimately reduce recidivism (Dubin, Lawrence, Mears, & Travis, 2002). Prisoner motivation, differentiating the type of programming to individual prisoners' ongoing interests and requirements, and availability of space in particular programs is a challenge for prison administrators. Allowing prisoners to take ownership of their learning could increase motivation and participation, alleviate lack of availability in formal and non-formal prison programs, and aid prison administrators in differentiating the type of program offerings (Day, 1998).

### **Self-directed Learning and Garrison's Model**

Self-directed learning is an important concept of informal learning. Malcolm Knowles (1975) defines it as a process in which individuals take the initiative to diagnose their learning needs, formulating individualistic learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, and implementing appropriate learning strategies to evaluate successful outcomes (Knowles, 1975). Primarily a form of informal learning, self-directed learning has been vastly researched in the field of adult education from different scholars perspectives. Self-directed learning is described as a (a) process of organizing instruction, focused on the level of learner autonomy over the instructional process and (b) personal attribute with the goal of education as developing individuals who can assume moral, emotional, and intellectual autonomy (Candy, 1991).

Several models have been proposed to understand self-directed learning, including Garrison (1997), which suggests learners assume personal responsibility (motivation), collaborative control of the cognitive (self-monitoring), and contextual (self-management) processes in constructing and confirming meaningful and worthwhile learning outcomes. The motivational dimension is imperative in the learning process, calling for the learner to expect an outcome of their learning which will be beneficial to them. Not only do learners have to invest in their learning activities, but they have to persevere throughout the experience until the learning has been acquired (Garrison, 1997). Self-monitoring requires responsibility of the learner to acquire comprehension and understanding, ensuring that learning activities have value and learning objectives are being accomplished (Garrison, 1997). Self-management concentrates on the

external social and behavioral effects of learning transactions, goal setting, different types of learning approaches, and establishing learning results (Garrison, 1997).

Self-directed learning provides for opportunities of meaning during learning interactions and without it, one may question the value in acquiring knowledge. Nonetheless, self-directed learning does not take away the expectation of the teacher, but requires the teacher to provide the educational desires that facilitate a self-directed learner (Garrison, 1997). Adult learners usually identify themselves as independent beings, capable of self-direction even in a controlled environment (Boucouvalas & Pearse, 1985). They are usually shaped by their past experiences, which play a very important part in the growth of an individual, becoming an important catalyst conducive to learning. Self-directed learning helps individuals grow using acquired knowledge and skill to better their lives. Inmates make up an integral group of adults in need of skill and knowledge development to better their lives and, essentially, to make use of in an environment that they have to re-acquaint themselves with once they are released from prison. Adult inmates are a unique group of adult learners, who learn better when their adulthood is respected and their learning is planned with them rather than for them (Boucouvalas & Pearse, 1985). Learning is unique to each individual and they learn best at their own pace and at their own time. Keeping this in mind, adult educators are shifting their focus to self-directed learning programs, keeping in mind individual learners' needs.

### **Garrison's Model Applied to Prisons**

Different prisons have unique physical features, depending on the year of build and the level of security. However, a few features are similar in every prison. The features most conducive for informal learning are a prisoner's cell, a service facilitated area such as a dining hall, or a recreational area (Dubin, Lawrence, Mears, & Travis, 2002). These areas allow for open space and the potential for prison educators to share knowledge and information skills with inmates in an appropriate learning environment. They would provide opportunities for prisoners to learn in a group setting. Learning acquired from non-formal settings could contribute significantly to informal learning practices that instilled value, ensure collaboration, and monitor meaning in inmates' learning experiences. Inmates acquire life skills in addition to vocational skills that could assist them once they are released.

Inmates released from prison are usually struggling to fit into an ever-changing society, enter into a workplace they generally have limited skills for, and trying to make a successful life without the necessary training or capabilities to succeed (Schweikert-Cattin & Taylor, 2000). Self-esteem and belief in them may be at an all-time low. Programs in prisons need to be designed to increase inmate morale, facilitate self-management, reduce friction, and improve prison environment. Participation of inmates in these programs occupies the inmate's time productively, reducing the negativity synonymous with their environment and encourages pro-social behaviors (Maggioncalda, 2007). Incorporation of Garrison's self-directed model would encourage inmates to partake in learning experiences in various settings in prison to become equipped with motivation and meaning, accountability, a desire to achieve their learning objectives, and provide self-meaning and personal accomplishment amongst other benefits.

In correctional settings, self-management involves inmates effectively learning; using resources available to them and applying them to learning within their individual contexts, taking control of the learning and reaching their learning objectives in collaboration with other individuals. Recreation areas in prisons can help encourage group discussions, helping inmates learn from similar experiences (Boucouvalas & Pearse, 1985). Individuals can learn to take control of their own learning, helping them gain control of acquired knowledge to better use in in

their respective environment. Prison educators could potentially help inmates structure their learning programs which can be most beneficial to them, once they are released. Self-monitoring is reviewing the learning strategies and planning and modifying your thinking according to your goal. Inmates can reflect about what they are learning and how it can be beneficial to them. Since self-monitoring is a cognitive thinking process, inmates could learn to think how the learning programs can best benefit them and also reflect upon why they were incarcerated and work toward bettering themselves. Motivation can help inmates continue their learning process successfully until they reach their goals (Garrison, 1997).

### **Conclusion**

Formal education programs in prisons have been available to inmates, but have been offered uniformly without considerations to the individual learning needs and preferences of the inmates (Taxman, 1998). Individual models of learning programs for the offender population, although frequently discussed, have not been implemented within the larger domain of the criminal justice system. The tendency is to implement programs to serve smaller populations rather than the masses of offenders that need interventions (Taxman, 1998). Learning, being an integral part in self-improvement, becomes a dynamic predictor of adult offender recidivism. The other predictors include criminal history, history of antisocial behavior, social achievement, age/gender/race, and family factors. Less robust predictors include intellectual functioning, personal distress factors, and socioeconomic status in the family of origin (Gendreau, Little, & Goggin, 2006).

The introduction of the Garrison's model of self-directed learning, which focuses on individual learning needs, can have a favorable effect on the learning of inmates. Prison educators help inmates shift focus of their learning to suit individual needs, requirements, and preferences. They can help inmates gain the knowledge that they need for self-improvement, self-realization, and self-motivation to help overcome the obstacles/reasons, which led them to be incarcerated. To be able to get to the root of a problem is one of the ways to eradicate the problem (Day, 1998). When inmates are able to take the responsibility of their own actions and also take control of their own learning, they can be well equipped to deal with society once they are released from prison. Garrison's model, if incorporated by prison educators within the prison system, will help inmates become self-directed learners. Learning is not limited to the confines of the prison, but it is something that inmates can integrate as part of their personality and reflect on and continue to learn once they are a part of society. Garrison's three-dimension integrated model can trigger a learning environment in the prison system by focusing on individual learning, developing preferential skills, and equipping inmates with knowledge and a mind open to new ideas so they cease to become repeat offenders, which can potentially reduce recidivism (see Fig. 1).

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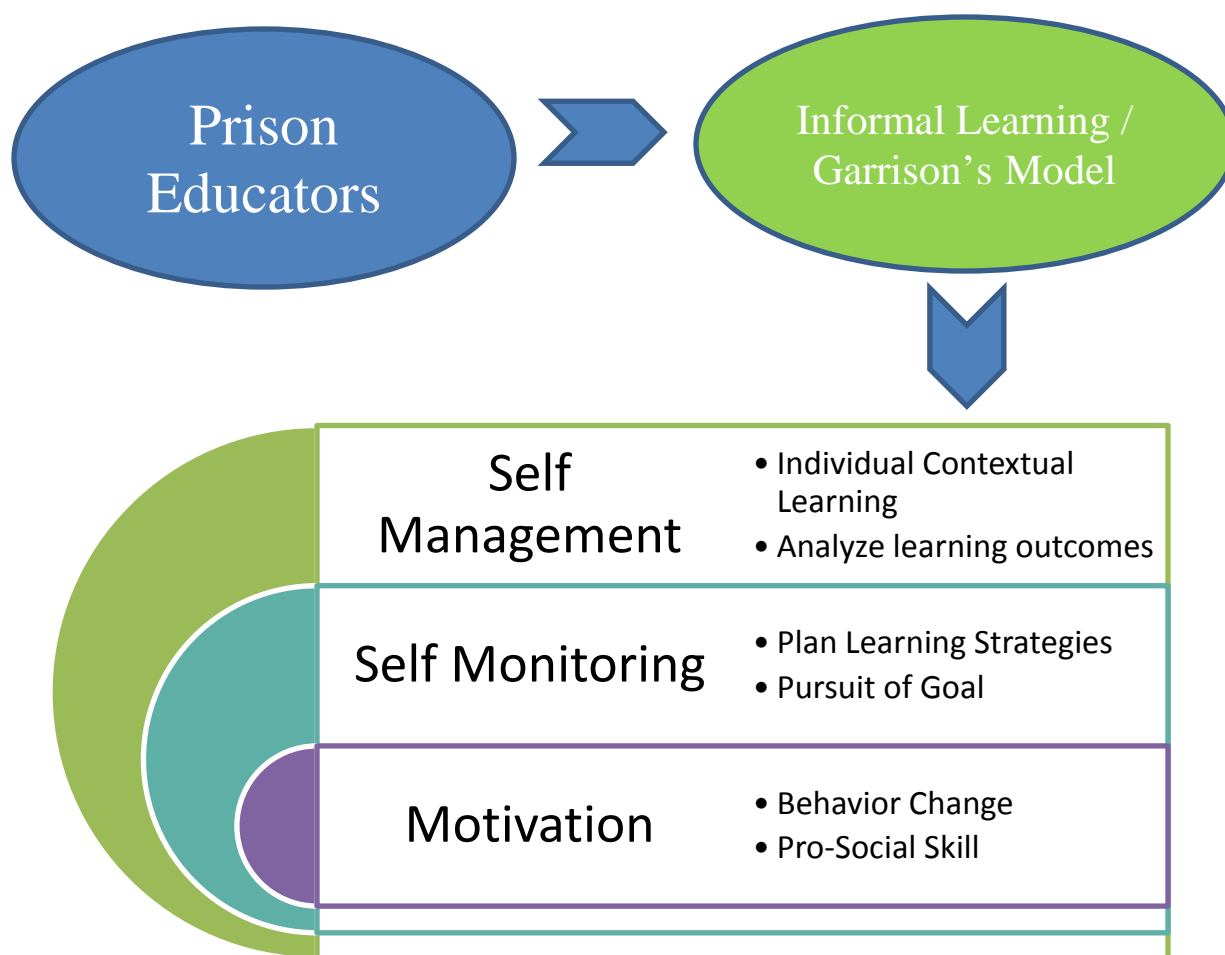


Figure 1: Incorporation of Garrison's three-dimensional model into prison informal learning programs.

## Adult Learners and AIDS Artwork: Suggestions for Adult Education Practice

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**Abstract:** The purpose of this paper is to explore the ways in which the creative and purposeful use of AIDS Artwork as an educational tool may reduce stigma about HIV/AIDS and help adult learners to regulate their own prejudices about the diseases.

Imagine a child passed over and ignored because others believe even the slightest symbolic contact will result in the child passing a dangerous contagion. Imagine believing that victims of a terrible disease deserve to die from it. Imagine believing this disease was a punishment. Imagine losing your friends or a member of your family to this disease, knowing that you may soon follow in their footsteps. Imagine an uncontrollable pandemic. Imagine HIV/AIDS as one of the most relevant, continual cultural issues that we face as a global society.

Realities surrounding human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) have changed since the first reported human cases in the 1980s, but stigma still marginalizes those who currently have or are falsely perceived to be more likely to contract HIV/AIDS (Parker & Aggleton, 2003; Varni, Miller, McCuin, & Solomon, 2012). This stigma increases health and psychological risks for persons living with HIV/AIDS—referred to in this paper as PLWHA (Vanable, Carey, Blair, & Littlewood, 2006). However, concerns related to stigma have been lowered for PLWHA in instances where those with whom they have close interactions have felt convicted by personal values not to discriminate (Miller, Grover, Bunn, & Solomon, 2011). Stigma-related concerns have been less ameliorated in instances where PLWHA felt as if others were not discriminatory simply because their community pressured them not to be. Therefore, exploring new techniques that increase adult awareness of their knowledge of, experience with, and beliefs about HIV/AIDS may be beneficial in decreasing stigma for PLWHA.

The limited nature of HIV/AIDS education literature, tools, and instructional methods necessitates continued exploration of new practices. HIV/AIDS educators may benefit from the development of methods designed to bridge the gap between truth about HIV/AIDS and what people *actually believe*. AIDS Artwork—visual, fine, and performing art created by individuals to express feelings about or understanding of portions of the HIV/AIDS narrative—may be a powerful tool for teaching adult learners about HIV/AIDS realities. Nabulime and McEwan (2011) noted of their experiences using sculpture as a part of HIV/AIDS education in Uganda:

By encouraging openness and dialogue, [sculpture helps] to reduce stigmatization and discrimination. As the interviews revealed, [the art] can educate, entertain and provoke interest. [Sculptures] simultaneously initiate discussion about the dangers of the disease, which may lead to behavioural change, while also giving hope by reducing stigmatization of those living with HIV/AIDS. (p. 292)

AIDS Artwork has the potential to demonstrate the unnerving power of HIV/AIDS to cross sexual, racial, gender, age, and socioeconomic dividing lines. This may be accomplished through the engagement of adult learners in the reflective process of creating and explaining amateur art inspired by HIV/AIDS.

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The purpose of this paper is to explore the ways in which the creative and purposeful use of AIDS Artwork as an educational tool may reduce stigma about HIV/AIDS and help adult learners to regulate their own prejudices about the diseases. Using Jarvis's (1987, 2004, 2006) experiential learning process theory as a framework for analysis, this paper will discuss some of the literature on HIV/AIDS education (Baumgartner, 2002; Boshier, 1992) and on the use of socially-informed art in adult education (Grace & Wells, 2007). Previous discourses on art and HIV/AIDS will also be discussed using the theoretical framework to reposition conversations within the field of adult education.

### **HIV/AIDS Stigma and Prejudice**

In 1986, DiClemente, Zorn, and Temoshok surveyed 1,326 high school students to determine their overall awareness of realities about AIDS in San Francisco. Of these students, 78.7% reported "being afraid of getting AIDS" (p. 1443) and 79.6% agreed that "most people who get AIDS usually die from the disease" (p. 1444). DiClemente et al. (1986) concluded that increased education about HIV/AIDS would be necessary to decrease infection rates. Now, 25 years after this research was conducted, it is not difficult to see how this statement may still carry some truth. Ortega, Bicaldo, Sobritchea, and Tan (2005) said that in the Philippines, workplace discrimination related to HIV/AIDS "occurs mostly in practice rather than on the levels of legislation and policy" (p. 161). Liu, Canada, Shi, and Corrigan (2012) found that some PLWHA have a difficult time obtaining and maintaining employment, based primarily on employer perceptions of incompetence and/or HIV/AIDS being highly contagious. These findings suggest that stigma about HIV/AIDS is still alive in the hearts and minds of many. What is spoken in policy may not always be enacted in reality; education is a potential solution to this problem.

According to Pryor, Reeder, and Landau (1999), adults' views of HIV/AIDS become contaminated by their social contexts and experiences with the conditions. For example, an individual who has only ever seen or heard of AIDS cases in drug-users, gay men, or the sexually promiscuous may believe that those are the only populations at risk for contraction. Further, this same individual may internalize these previous experiences to personally justify the marginalization of populations *perceived* to be at higher risk. This stigma may be dangerous for many reasons, not the least of which is that people "are more likely to seek out and follow through with HIV testing services that they perceive to be nonthreatening, nonjudgmental, and responsive to their individual needs and circumstances" (Valdiserri, 2002, p. 341). A system of prejudice and judgment may contribute to at-risk individuals' lack of willingness to get tested. However, the implications of HIV/AIDS-related stigma are much further reaching than health care concerns.

As of 1999, Herek and Capitanio found that nearly a quarter of the individuals in their study believed that HIV/AIDS could be passed between two gay men even if neither of the men was infected at the time of sexual intercourse. When compared with data from a study conducted eight years prior, Herek and Capitanio (1999) found that the "changing epidemiology of HIV" (p. 1139) did not seem to reduce stigma. Individuals in their study still believed AIDS was something primarily contracted by gay men, that people with HIV/AIDS are guilty in some way, and that "mere symbolic contact with [PLWHA], such as touching an article of clothing or drinking from a sterilized glass used by a [PLWHA]" (p. 1139) could lead to infection. Vanable et al. (2006) found "a substantial minority of [HIV positive] participants reported that people behave negatively (42%), avoid being near them (29%), and exclude them from social events

(20%), because of their HIV status” (p. 480). This prejudice must be reduced before PLWHA may escape, to some degree, harmful stigma on a daily basis.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Arguing from a constructivist perspective, Jarvis (2006) posited that a person brings her/his biography—history of experiences, relationships, and social interactions—into new learning situations. Within Jarvis’ experiential learning process theory, learning is foundationalized by the past and spurred by a specific experience within a social context. When such an experience occurs, Jarvis (2004) argues, “No longer can previous learning cope with the present situation; people are consciously aware that they do not know how to act” (p. 93). After adult learners engage in the learning process, they move through a continual process of reflection, emotion, and potential action until the change is enacted and embodied holistically—in every sense of that individual’s being (Jarvis, 2006). The application of what has been learned is then contextualized within the ever-changing immediate world of the learner (Jarvis, 2006), meaning that what “works today” for a learner may not “work tomorrow” or could change given a new physical or metaphorical location. The nature of this change being somewhat unpredictable, internalization of knowledge on the part of the learner is a critical aspect of the experiential learning process because with that foundation, the learner may be able to better interpret new and challenging situations.

### **Prejudice, Stigma, and Learning**

#### **Prejudice Awareness**

Racial prejudice may be reduced with education. Hogan & Mallot (2005) found, “completing a college level course in race and gender issues did indeed reduce prejudice toward African Americans in students” (p. 123). These findings are consistent with the contentions of Shaefer (1996) who argues that education itself is not the answer to reducing prejudice, but rather education created with the explicit purpose of highlighting issues not typically addressed in the classroom. Conceptually, it is reasonable to believe that the same logic in designing education courses about race and gender may be applied to the development of courses that grapple with HIV/AIDS topics. However, HIV/AIDS education does not necessarily need to take place in a formalized higher education setting to make a difference. Adults may learn in a number of different settings/environments, and it is important that adult educators meet learners where they are in order to reduce stigma across identity and environmental factors.

Drawing on previous research conducted on the reduction of prejudice, Paluck and Green (2009) compiled a list of potential interventions from the literature. Table 1 (Appendix) represents the findings and the socio-psychological theories that frame the intervention approaches supported by experimental evidence from the field/laboratory. These findings support the conceptualizations within this paper by providing a basis for the claim that social prejudice in adults may be regulated with theoretically grounded interventions aimed at reshaping learners’ knowledge and beliefs about HIV/AIDS.

#### **Stigma Reduction**

Nyblade (2006) argues that literature pertaining to HIV/AIDS stigma reduction is not sufficient at the present time. More data must be collected before the nature of HIV/AIDS-related stigma can be fully understood and combated against. However, some scholars have experienced success in practice with programs aimed at reducing stigma. Heijnders and van der Meij (2006) found that education and advocacy are among the most useful strategies for reducing stigma related to various health conditions, including HIV/AIDS. Wu, Li, Wu, Liang, Cao, Yan, and Li (2008) experienced success reducing HIV-related stigma in health service providers; this

was accomplished through a brief (four-hour) educational intervention. According to their results, even the short educational initiative was able to reduce fears and increase knowledge of precautions among the learners.

### **HIV/AIDS Education**

Boshier (1992) was one of the first to argue that the field of adult education has an obligation, and the capacity, to help combat miscommunication about HIV/AIDS that emerges from varying discourses about the diseases. According to Boshier, discourse about AIDS began with rumors of a “gay plague” (p. 128). In the mid-late 1980s, discourse shifted to concentrate on AIDS patients as “the contaminated other” (Boshier, 1992, p. 129). Other discourses leading up to Boshier’s publication in 1992 included “innocent victim[s]” (p. 130), “heterosexual-risk” (p. 131), and “development” (p. 132). According to Boshier (1992), what all of these discourses about AIDS have in common is the conceptualization of HIV/AIDS education “from the assumption that individuals are capable of making the ‘right’ choices” to avoid contracting HIV/AIDS” (p. 133). Arguably, these discourses still linger today, and there is a need for quality HIV/AIDS education to “represent [the] multiple meanings” of the diseases (Boshier, 1992, p. 133). According to Archie-Booker, Cervero, and Langone (1999), AIDS education programs “defined as generic across cultural boundaries of race, gender, and sexual orientation” (p. 173) can result in programs that are not “culturally relevant” (p. 173) for certain populations—in their study, African American women. Multiple meanings should be considered to avoid this fate.

Ironically, the multiple meanings referred to by Boshier (1992) and Archie-Booker et al. (1999) are often considered primarily from an “outsider” (HIV-negative) viewpoint. However, some research does exist to discuss adult education’s role in relation PLWHA. In a qualitative study examining how HIV-positive adults make meaning of their experience, Baumgartner (2002) describes “an increased appreciation for the human condition” and “an expanded view of intimacy” (p. 50) as key changes for people who are successful at managing their own identities as HIV-positive. Participants of the study said that dealing with HIV diagnosis positively impacted the way they interacted with different kinds of people, and the diagnosis also encouraged a more holistic sense of intimacy beyond what is physical (Baumgartner, 2002). The assumption that these kinds of positive life changes can exist for PLWHA informs a different approach to HIV/AIDS education—an approach that aims to teach both PLWHA and the general population about how the conditions shape and impact lives in a complex, multilayered manner. One way of developing a more inclusive curriculum may be to include art as a tool of instruction.

### **Learning with Art**

In the last several years, art as an educational tool has made its way slowly into the field of adult education (Clover & Stalker, 2005; Lipson Lawrence, 2005). Theorizing about their own experiences with administering an art education program to lesbian, gay, bisexual, intersexual, trans-identified, two-spirited, and queer (LGBITTQ) youth and young adults, Grace and Wells (2007) posited: “dialectical engagement helped [program participants] to see themselves in personally transforming ways that helped to counter a past in which they were invisible in families, schools, and communities” (p. 100). The authors reflected further that youth who completed the arts program felt more able to “counter the ignorance that so often leads to fear and symbolic and physical violence toward LGBITTQ persons” (Grace & Wells, 2007, p. 100). The art created as a result of their program was installed and displayed for the purpose of “representing self, others, reality and possibility in art” (Grace & Wells, 2007, p. 105). Grace and Wells (2007) called for the continued blending of arts education into adult education initiatives aimed at “cultural action for social transformation” (p. 104), in this case,

specifically for LGBITQ persons, but arguably on a much larger scale for other stigmatized or marginalized identity groups, such as those living with HIV/AIDS.

### **AIDS Artwork**

Artistic expression has nearly always been a part of the HIV/AIDS discourse. The first patients and their loved ones turned to their journals, their canvases, their cameras, and their creative spirits to make sense of the confusing, earth-shattering news of testing positive, and to record feelings and thoughts in what were often unfortunately their last days together. In 1984, “The AIDS Show” opened in San Francisco, followed in 1985 by the opening of “As Is”—both were plays aimed at raising awareness of the realities of AIDS near the beginning of the pandemic (Artery, n.d.). In 1987, the AIDS Quilt, which now contains hundreds of thousands of pieces dedicated to victims of HIV/AIDS, debuted in Washington, D.C. That same year, the now-well-known AIDS education initiative ACT Up created its artwork to be used nationally. 1988 and 1989 saw the opening of the first well-established art exhibits dedicated to persons living with AIDS and also birthed the first Day Without Art (a day dedicated to mourning HIV/AIDS). In 1990, the documentary “Common Threads: Stories from the Quilt” (Epstein & Friedman, 1989) won the Academy Award. The mid-late 1990s brought HIV/AIDS discourse to the Internet in creative ways and also saw the first stage productions of the Broadway smash hit, “Rent” (Larson, 1993), which humanized HIV/AIDS as a disease by making a number of the main characters HIV positive. One may also grasp the importance art may have in creating understanding of HIV/AIDS by doing a “Google Image” search for the term “AIDS Artwork” and scrolling through the thousands of paintings and photographs that appear, each telling unique portion of the HIV/AIDS story without the use of any words.

The majority of the academic literature exploring art and HIV/AIDS has focused on how art can be used therapeutically for PLWHA (Rao, Nainis, Williams, Langner, Eisin, & Paice, 2009; Willemsen & Anscombe, 2001). However, recently Nabulime and McEwan (2011) used sculpture activities as a part of AIDS education in a Ugandan community and “were successful in stimulating dialogue and discussion and reminding people of their own experiences related to HIV/AIDS, which they then felt more able to articulate in public” (p. 290). This public articulation about experiences with and knowledge about HIV/AIDS may be exactly what is needed in order to reduce prejudice and stigma against PLWHA.

### **Discussion**

The proposed development of adult learners in educational settings using AIDS Artwork as a tool for instruction draws its strength from my experiential learning theoretical framework (Jarvis, 1987; Jarvis, 2004; Jarvis, 2006). Figure 1 (Appendix) represents the Critical Senses conceptual map developed for the purpose of this paper. Within the Critical Senses conceptual map, it is my belief that adult learners should first explore alternative viewpoints on HIV/AIDS. These viewpoints may focus on the following: (a) the capacity of HIV/AIDS to cross social and cultural boundaries and affect people from all walks of life, (b) the belief that HIV/AIDS does not necessarily have to mean death or social demise for PLWHA, (c) openness to the truth that HIV/AIDS is not a punishment for non-heteronormative sexual behaviors and practices, and (d) the critique of depictions of HIV/AIDS that serve to keep certain truths and realities about the conditions hidden. The desire to enter such a learning environment may spark from interaction with PLWHA, realization of lack of knowledge about the diseases, witnessing prejudice in the community, or some other significant event.

After adult learners have had the experience of re-evaluating their beliefs and understandings of HIV/AIDS, they may apply their new knowledge to deconstruct the stigma

surrounding the conditions by *creating* and *explaining* personal works of AIDS Artwork. Stigma and prejudice may indicate “miseducative experiences” (Jarvis, 1987, p. 16), which Jarvis argues should be seen as valid experience that feeds into the overall learning process. Education is vital to fill the gaps between previous and new knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes about HIV/AIDS, and such education should take place “in splendid isolation from the world in which the learner lives” (Jarvis, 1987, p. 11).

Adult learners who understand how their new knowledge and the application of that knowledge may lead to new learning about prejudices related to HIV/AIDS may be ready to consider ways that stigma can be reduced for PLWHA. Holistic embodiment of experiences in the learning process may enable the adult learner to internalize lessons from AIDS Artwork to regulate personal and community prejudice against PLWHA. In subverting systems of power that have sustained HIV/AIDS stigma, these adult learners may be more equipped to make educated choices. For adults completing an AIDS Artwork educational session, this social intelligence should be considered a primary goal of instruction: that learners integrate material into their belief system and enact critical principles on a daily basis.

### **Implications**

Though it is likely that AIDS Artwork may be most easily implemented in formal learning environments, the use of art activities to educate about HIV/AIDS need not be limited to settings specifically designed to address HIV/AIDS or other health issues. College classes that address issues related to health, diversity, social justice, identity, power, sexuality, and more, may also benefit from the inclusion of some of the methods put forth in Table 2 (Appendix), which represents potential uses for AIDS Artwork, as influenced by each major section of this conceptual paper. The activities in Table 2 might also be used in support groups for PLWHA and their close family members and friends, or as part of a module in HIV/AIDS prevention programs. Finally, these activities could be implemented in the already-existing therapeutic art programs designed for PLWHA (Rao et al. 2009; Willemsen & Anscombe, 2001).

The Critical Senses conceptual map (Appendix) offers a helpful framework for future researchers who wish to explore experiential learning methods, or methods that utilize art, in HIV/AIDS education efforts. Researchers may consider developing and implementing instructional programs based on this conceptual map, preceded by assessments to determine participant attitudes and prejudices/stigma about PLWHA and followed with interviews and/or focus groups to determine whether or not those attitudes have changed and prejudices/stigma have been reduced. Similar studies may be completed quantitatively after the conceptual map has been fleshed out more fully through this type of qualitative research.

In creating new HIV/AIDS education activities based on AIDS Artwork, this paper contributes to adult education theory by expanding on applications of Jarvis’ experiential learning process. The continued testing and expansion of Jarvis’ model in an innovative fashion will be crucial to the advancement and validation of the field of adult education. It is possible that AIDS Artwork used purposefully in practice and in research may lead to the development of more holistic and socially just learning theory.

### **Conclusions**

The evolution of HIV/AIDS awareness may be spurred with the design and implementation of purposeful adult educational activities using AIDS Artwork as the basis for learner application of principles. The tools/activities represented in Table 2 are merely a beginning of the possibilities that could stem from the merger of AIDS Artwork, adult education, and HIV/AIDS education. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, medicines and treatments are available to



ameliorate many of the medical and physical problems faced by PLWHA; however, presently there is no cure for the diseases. The field of adult education sits at a position of considerable power to help prescribe treatment for some of the other problems faced by PLWHA: social problems. This paper attempts to expand adult education's awareness of prejudice and stigma. The use of AIDS Artwork with adults may prove helpful in taking HIV/AIDS education to the next level, a level that values alternative perspectives on the diseases and regulates the prejudices that have been instilled in many adults since the beginning of the pandemic in the early 1980s.

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## Appendix

Table 1

*Prejudice-Reduction Approaches and Theories Supported by Experimental Evidence from Field/Laboratory*

Intervention approach	Theoretical frameworks
Cooperative learning ( <i>learning by exploring the root of prejudice with other learners</i> )	Social Interdependence Theory
Entertainment ( <i>learning about prejudice through some form of media</i> )	Extended contact, narrative persuasion, social norm theory, social cognitive theory
Peer influence, discussion/dialogue ( <i>learning from what other have to say about prejudice</i> )	Social norm theory, small group influence, social impact theory, contact hypothesis
Contact ( <i>learning from contact with prejudice</i> )	Contact and extended contact hypothesis
Value consistency and self-worth ( <i>learning by evaluating prejudice in relation to own values</i> )	Cognitive dissonance, self-affirmation and self-perception theory

Note. Adapted from Paluck & Green, 2009, p. 358

Table 2

*Potential Uses for AIDS Artwork*

Activity	Prejudice Reduction Strategy	Brief Description
AIDS Mini-Quilts	Cooperative learning	<i>Alternative perspective considered: boundary-crossing.</i> Pair up in groups (3-5). Each individual will create one, hand-drawn square of a paper mini-quilt. The group will piece together a quilt and create an explanation of the <i>overall</i> story that it tells about experience with and knowledge of HIV/AIDS.
Embodied Stereotypes	Cooperative learning	<i>Alternative perspective considered: critique common discourse.</i> Pair up in groups (2-4). Brainstorm together about common things heard about HIV/AIDS. The group will create <i>one depiction</i> of how stereotypes might harm persons with HIV/AIDS.
Show-and-Tell	Peer influence	<i>Alternative perspective considered: boundary-crossing.</i> Each individual will create a sculpture out of basic molding clay that relays some aspect of new learning; explanations will be shared with and <i>critiqued</i> by the class.
Integrating "Positive" Experiences	Contact	<i>Alternative perspective considered: critique common discourse.</i> Learners will hear real stories from persons living with HIV/AIDS, either in person, by video, or in writing, and integrate what they hear from these people to create poems and/or very short stories that reflect a <i>portion</i> of the HIV/AIDS experience previously unfamiliar to them.
Visualizing Values	Value consistency	<i>Alternative perspective considered: not punishment.</i> Each individual will use various craft supplies to create a work of art that demonstrates <i>some aspect</i> of the truth that HIV/AIDS is not a punishment for choices made. A second work should also be created to <i>contrast</i> the first and show a potential reason for why some may

		believe it is a punishment.
Positive Storytelling	Peer influence	<i>Alternative perspective considered: not death sentence.</i> Pair up into teams (2 people). Teams will share with each other what has been learned in the session and then each team member will individually create a drawing that they believe metaphorically represents the learning experience <i>of their teammate</i> . Teams will report back to the class.
Pre- and Post- Learning Comparison	Contact	<i>Alternative perspective considered: critique common discourse.</i> Before the session begins, individuals will be asked to write short paragraphs about what they have heard about HIV/AIDS in the past. After the instructional session has completed and it is time to apply (create art), each individual will then draw a picture that represents how they believe their views have changed, <i>or remained the same</i> , after contact with further information about HIV/AIDS.
Mini- Gallery	Entertainment	<i>Alternative perspective considered: critique common discourse.</i> Each individual will have the opportunity to create a work of art based on his or her learning, using whatever mediums are available from the instructor. After everyone has completed their work, the pieces will be set out and the class will walk around (as if in a gallery). The group will then come back together and discuss which pieces they connected with and why, and what that means <i>in relation to the learning</i> from the session.

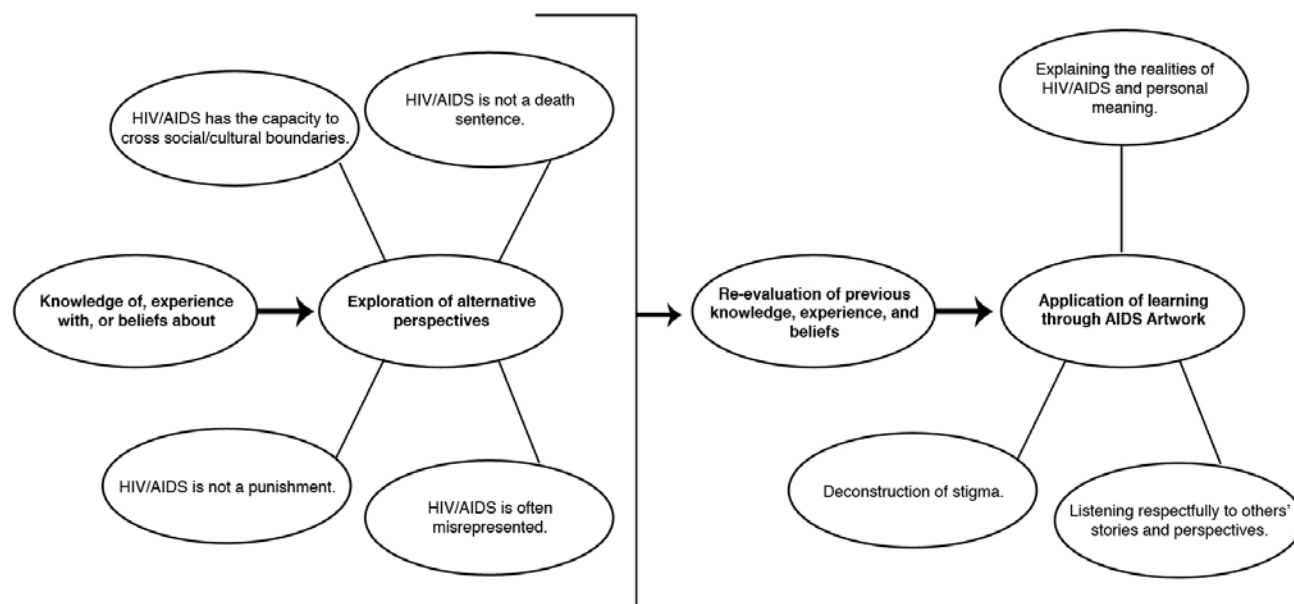


Figure 1. The Critical Senses Conceptual Map for the use of AIDS Artwork in HIV/AIDS Education

## An Analysis of the Proposition Density, Sentence and Clause Types, and Non-Finite Verbal Usage in Two College Textbooks

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**Abstract:** This study investigated the proposition density, sentence and clause type usage and non-finite verbal usage in two college textbooks. The teaching implications are presented.

A proposition is an idea unit; it is a statement that expresses a factual claim (Jay, 2003); it is the basic unit involved in the understanding and retention of text (Kintsch, 1974; Kintsch & Keenan, 1973). “Propositions correspond roughly to verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and subordinating conjunctions (not nouns or pronouns)” (Covington, 2008, p. 2). Proposition density is an important factor in reading comprehension because of a proposition’s role in text comprehension and retention. In addition, “sentences in print often have a complex, embedded syntax that places demands on the reader’s working memory” (Graesser, McNamara, & Kulikowich, 2011, p. 226). The combination of text comprehension and retention, and demands on the reader’s working memory suggest that proposition density might be useful in the selection of college textbooks. The widely adopted readability formulas utilized in reading comprehension research do not estimate proposition density. Those readability formulas include Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level or Reading Ease (Klare, 1974), Degrees of Reading Power (Koslin, Zeno, & Koslin, 1987), Lexiles (Stenner, 2006), and Coh-Metrix (Graesser, McNamara, & Kulikowich, 2011). These single metrics are based on length of words and sentences (Flesch-Kincaid), readers’ performance on a cloze procedure (Degrees of Reading Power and Lexiles), and on various language-discourse levels (Coh-Metrix). Sentence and clause types and non-finite verbals are important in this research because they are directly related to complex, embedded syntax. Finally, the authors did not find any published studies of propositional density, sentence and clause type usage, and non-finite verbal usage in college textbooks. Therefore, the authors believe that the results of this study will contribute new information to the field and will establish baseline, or benchmark data for further comparative research on important factors that should be considered in the selection of textbooks for students who are reading to learn in post-secondary education.

### Purpose

The purpose of this empirical research study is to present a comparison of the proposition densities, the sentence and clause types, and the usage of non-finite verbals in two college textbooks. In this study, the authors define proposition density as the number of propositions in each sentence. The following example illustrates how the authors determined propositional density in this study:

In *The young gray squirrel has a very long tail*, there are five propositions identified below using the numbers one to five:

1. *has (squirrel, tail)*
2. *young (squirrel)*
3. *gray (squirrel)*
4. *long (tail)*

#### 5. *very* (<4>)

The proposition density of this sentence is 0.56 (5 propositions divided by the nine words contained in the sentence = 0.56). Furthermore, in numbers one to five above, 5. *very* (<4>) is an adverb that modifies the adjective *long* (*tail*) in 4. This is the preferred method for listing the propositions in a sentence.

### Method

The authors selected two widely known and widely adopted sports psychology textbooks to analyze: Weinberg and Gould's (2007) *Foundations of Sport and Exercise Psychology* and LeUnes' (2008) *Sport Psychology*. The authors selected *goal setting* as the common topic from both texts. Weinberg and Gould's text has an entire 20-page chapter on goal setting while the LeUnes' text contains only 52 sentences on goal setting; therefore, the authors randomly selected 52 sentences from Weinberg and Gould's text to match the content of LeUnes' sentences on goal setting.

The authors identified and recorded the number of propositions (i.e., verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and subordinating conjunctions) in each of Weinberg and Gould's 52 sentences and the number of propositions in each of LeUnes' 52 sentences. The propositional density for each text was determined by dividing the total number of propositions identified by 52, the number of sentences examined. In addition, the researchers identified the number of different sentence types in the analyzed sentences (i.e., simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex), the number of clause types in the analyzed sentences (i.e., noun, adjectival, and adverbial), and the number of different non-finite verbals in the analyzed sentences (i.e., gerund, infinitive, and participle). Present and past participles were merged into one category—participle.

### Statistical Hypotheses

Because the authors could not find any studies in a review of the literature that presented data with which a comparison could be made, the authors developed the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference in the average number of propositions per sentence in the two textbooks.

The alternative hypothesis is that there is a significant difference in the average number of propositions per sentence in the two textbooks.

2. There is no significant difference in the number of sentence types used in the two textbooks.

The alternative hypothesis is that there is a significant difference in the number of sentence types used in the two textbooks.

3. There is no significant difference in the number of clause types used in the two textbooks.

The alternative hypothesis is that there is a significant difference in the number of clause types used in the two textbooks.

4. There is no significant difference in the number of non-finite verbals used in the two textbooks.

The alternative hypothesis is that there is a significant difference in the number of non-finite verbals used in the two textbooks.

### Results

Table 1 displays the results of the proposition density analysis.

Table 1  
*Proposition Density*

Text	Weinberg and Gould	LeUnes
Number of propositions	635	648
Average number of propositions per sentence	12.21	12.46
Standard deviation	5.42	6.59
Range	4 - 26	3 - 29

$t = -0.20$ ,  $df$  102, n.s.

There were 635 propositions in the 52 sentences from the Weinberg and Gould text and 648 propositions in the 52 sentences from the LeUnes text. On average, there were 12.21 propositions in each Weinberg and Gould sentence and 12.46 propositions in each LeUnes sentence. A  $t$ -test for independent samples indicated that there was no significant difference between the means of the two samples of text; therefore, the data on which the test was based do not provide sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

The authors used the chi-square test for contingency tables for the analyses of sentence types, clause types, and non-finite verbal usage. Table 2 presents the data on sentence types.

Table 2  
*Sentence Types*

Text	Simple	Compound	Complex	Compound-complex	Total
Weinberg and Gould	27	1	20	4	52
LeUnes	32	4	14	2	52
Total	59	5	34	6	104

Chi-square = 3.94,  $df$  = 3, n.s.

The calculated chi-square of 3.94 is smaller than the tabled value for three degrees of freedom; therefore, both texts appear to use all four sentence types with equal frequency. The data on which the test is based do not provide sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 3 presents the data for clause types in the samples of the two textbooks.

Table 3  
*Clause Types*

Text	Noun	Adjectival	Adverbial	Total
Weinberg and Gould	6	15	12	33
LeUnes	6	9	7	22
Total	12	24	19	55

Chi-square = 0.65,  $df$  = 2, n.s.

The calculated chi-square of 0.65 is smaller than the tabled value for two degrees of freedom; therefore, one can conclude that the two textbooks used noun, adjectival, and adverbial clauses with similar frequency. The data on which the test is based do not provide sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 4 presents the data for the use of non-finite verbals found in the samples of the two texts.

Table 4  
*Non-finite Verbals*

Text	Gerunds	Infinitives	Participles	Total
Weinberg and Gould	25	23	18	66
LeUnes	41	8	12	61
Total	66	31	30	127

Chi-square = 12.16,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < .01$

The calculated chi-square of 12.16 exceeds the tabled value for two degrees of freedom at the  $p < .01$  level of significance. The data at hand are not compatible with the null hypothesis but are supportive of the hypothesis of a significant relationship between the text and the use of non-finite verbals. The test of independence does not specifically identify the difference between the two texts, but an examination of the bivariate frequency table suggests that LeUnes tends to use more gerunds than Weinberg and Gould, and that Weinberg and Gould use more infinitives than LeUnes.

### Discussion

The authors could find no criterion-referenced or norm-referenced data on propositional density, sentence and clause type frequency, and non-finite verbal usage to compare with the results of this research. That said, the authors are confident that both textbooks have many propositions embedded in each sentence, and further that the propositional density and complex, embedded syntax might create a cognitive overload for some readers. For example, compare the sentence that is offered to illustrate propositional density in the introduction of the paper, *The young gray squirrel has a very long tail*, which contains five propositions with the following sentence from the Weinberg and Gould (2007) textbook:

*In addition to improving our understanding of what makes goals more effective sport psychology researchers have also learned a good deal about the process of goal setting, including how people set goals, what goals are most important to people, what barriers impede goal attainment, and how different types of individuals differ in their goal setting.* (p. 349)

The authors are convinced that this sentence with its extremely dense propositional load and its complex, embedded syntax might create a cognitive overload for some readers for the following reasons. Learners can only attend to a finite amount of information at a given time due to the limited capacity of the working (short-term) memory. Incoming information from all the senses is stored in the sensory memory very briefly before it decays or is lost completely. The short-term store receives input from the sensory store and the long-term store, and this information is retained for approximately 30 seconds. Information is lost unless it is rehearsed; it is also lost if it is no longer needed. Information is transferred from the short-term store to the long-term store for fairly permanent storage (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968). If the amount of information to be processed exceeds a student's working memory capacity's to process it, then that student will have difficulty learning the material.

Miller (1956) advanced the notion that a person could hold from five to nine pieces of unrelated information in the short-term memory for processing, but more recent research indicates that the estimate should be lowered to as few as four (Cowan, 2001; Feldon, 2010; Janssen, Kirshner, Erkens, Krischner, & Pass, 2010). The Weinberg and Gould sentence shown above has over a dozen propositions in it. There is no metric to calculate how many pieces of



related and unrelated information a reader of that sentence would need to hold in short-term memory for eventual storage in the long-term memory, but the point should be obvious that this particular sentence entails a heavy processing load.

### Teaching Implications

The authors found that the two textbooks analyzed in this research contain, on average, a dozen propositions per sentence. The authors believe such an extremely dense propositional load might pose difficulties for some culturally and linguistically (CLD) students on their class rosters. Some CLD students have difficulty comprehending texts with a heavy propositional density because they may still be acquiring language and content concurrently. For this reason, the authors offer some suggestions based on their research findings to benefit CLD as well as majority students.

When a particular content objective is located in a very richly embedded propositional network, the instructor may want to focus on students' background knowledge of the content objective and supply the necessary vocabulary and background schemata needed to comprehend the passage. The instructor might also wish to provide steps to make the input more comprehensible. Comprehensible input includes (a) scaffolding, (b) breaking down the new concepts into smaller, more manageable parts, (c) advance organizers, (d) graphic organizers, (e) outlines of the materials to be covered, (f) semantic maps that show the relationships of the concepts or knowledge in the text, and (g) verbal scaffolding (Echevarria, Short, & Peterson, 2012). Graphic organizers are especially useful for depicting relationships between nomenclature and ideas within a content objective and a learning task and to reduce a novel content objective into small, more manageable parts. Instructors could also use (a) thematic maps to depict hierarchical relationships, (b) network trees to illustrate superordinate or subordinate elements, and (c) spider maps to relate non-hierarchical information to a topic sentence or to a thesis statement.

### Summary

The authors have presented data on the average number of propositions per sentence and the usage of sentence types, clause types, and non-finite verbals in two college textbooks. There are no comparable data for comparison. The authors have also related the findings to factors that are known to influence text comprehension and retention and to short- and long-term memory retention. The authors concluded the paper with some pedagogical suggestions based on the results of the analyses. The data presented in this paper provide a benchmark for further cross-validation studies with other texts and for cross-validation, concurrent validation studies with the most common readability formulas used in reading comprehension research.

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## **The Use of Picture Exchange Communication System to Reduce Screaming Behavior in a Child with Severe Autism**

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**Abstract:** Using a multiple baseline across subject areas design, the effect of a package intervention consisting of the Picture Exchange Communication System and differential reinforcement of alternative behavior to decrease screaming behavior of a child with autism was examined. Results showed that the intervention decreased the screaming behavior of the participant.

Screaming behavior has been found amongst children with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and other developmental disorders (Peterson, Bondy, Vincent, & Finnegan, 1995; Scattone, Tingstrom, & Wilczynski, 2006). The extant literature related to the screaming behavior of children with ASD and developmental disorders shows that different methods have been employed to reduce screaming behavior. De Mers, Tincani, Van Norman, and Higgins (2009) conducted a study to reduce problem behaviors without the use of reinforcement. Specifically, using a multiple baseline across participants design, the effect of music therapy on the screaming and hitting behaviors of three young children with challenging behaviors was examined. Results showed that music therapy decreased screaming and had a therapeutic effect on all three participants.

Methods using non-contingent reinforcement have also been used to treat screaming behaviors. In a study illustrating the use of brief functional analysis probe conditions to verify the results of a descriptive assessment, Aikman and Garbutt (2003) implemented an intervention in which the teacher alternated 5-minute periods of academic demands on an 8 year-old child with severe developmental disabilities, with 5-minute periods of free activity during those lessons which in baseline were associated with higher levels of disruptive behavior, including screaming. The intervention reduced screaming behavior to under 50% of baseline levels. Additionally, the effectiveness of the use of differential reinforcement of other behavior (DRO) in decreasing the intervals with screaming of a child with ASD and pervasive developmental disorder was demonstrated in a study using an AB withdrawal design by Galiatsatos and Graff (2003). During baseline, the mean percentage of intervals with screaming was 37%. Over the final 4 weeks of treatment, screaming had decreased to a mean of approximately 9% of intervals.

Although a review of the literature revealed that methods without the use of reinforcement, methods using DRO, and methods using non-contingent reinforcement, have been applied in efforts to reduce screaming behavior in autistic and developmentally delayed children, it failed to produce instances of research where reinforcement in the form of differential reinforcement of alternative behavior (DRA), or edibles, was utilized as part of the study methodology. Theoretically, in DRO, all behavior can be reinforced as long as it is not the behavior that is not being reinforced. Alternatively, DRA offers the advantage that an adaptive behavior can be chosen as the replacement behavior to be displayed as a substitute to a maladaptive behavior. In addition, edibles have been shown to be a powerful reinforcer for normally developing children (Solberg, Hanley, Layer, & Ingvarsson, 2007) and children with developmental disabilities (Todd & Reid, 2006).

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### **Picture Exchange Communication System**

The Picture Exchange Communication System (PECS) (Peterson, Bondy, & Finnegan, 1995) is a form of augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) that uses pictures instead of words to help children communicate. The PECS was designed especially for children with autism who have delays in speech development. The use of the PECS has been found to reduce problem behaviors in children with ASD. For example, the three studies where problem behavior was a dependent variable in a research synthesis of 13 single subject studies (Kai-Chien, 2008) showed that PECS is an effective intervention for positive behavior change. Likewise, a study by Charlop-Christy, Carpenter, Le, LeBlanc, and Kellet (2002) using the PECS and a multiple baseline design across participants where the subjects were three children with ASD resulted in ancillary gains associated with decreases in problem behavior (i.e., tantrums, grabbing, being out of seat, and disruptions). Furthermore, results of a meta-analysis of 13 single subject studies indicate that use of PECS to target problem behaviors reduced or eliminated aggression, tantrums, grabbing, being out of seat, and throwing objects (Hart & Banda, 2010).

While PECS has been used effectively to treat tantrums, disruptions, and other functionally similar behaviors, its use for reducing screaming behavior is not documented in the literature. Also, although PECS training procedures include provision of reinforcers for communicative behavior and use of picture icons as a behavior change strategy to increase the frequency of these behaviors, program implementation does not specify using edibles as the only reinforcer. Moreover, examples of studies where edibles were used as the sole reinforcer were not found in the PECS literature.

### **Multiple Baseline Designs**

Multiple baseline designs are among the most frequently used methods in single subject research. The multiple baseline design is one of the more robust designs in terms of demonstrating a functional relationship between the independent and dependent variable(s). There are various examples of studies where the use of a multiple baseline design evidenced a strong relationship between the intervention and target behavior(s). Hargrove, Roetzel, and Hoodin (1989) showed a functional relationship between an intervention involving controlled sequential training of sentences and the prosody of a child with language impairments using a multiple baseline across behaviors design. In the same way, a clear functional relationship was shown between peer support provided by students without disabilities to students with disabilities and positive effects on the academic engagement of the students without disabilities through a multiple baseline design across settings (Cushing & Kennedy, 1997). Cooper (as cited in Richards, Taylor, Ramasamy, & Richards, 1999) summarized advantages of the multiple baseline design, including:

- 1) the withdrawal of an effective treatment is not required to demonstrate the functional relationship between the independent and dependent variables, 2) “the sequential implementation of the independent variable parallels the practice of many teachers”, and 3) “generalization of behavior change is monitored through the design. (p. 154)

It was hypothesized that both tangible and social reinforcement can increase the use of the PECS. Additionally, it was hypothesized that the use of PECS can serve as an adaptive replacement to screaming behavior, and its use reinforced through an edible. Accordingly, the purpose of the current study was to determine whether use of the PECS could reduce the screaming behavior of a ten year-old child with ASD.

## **Method**

### **Participant and Setting**

The participant in this study was a 10 year-old non-verbal boy with ASD. The Developmental Assessment of Young Children (Voress & Maddox, 1998) showed his intellectual ability to be in the developmentally delayed range. The child presented with a significant delay in pragmatic, receptive, and expressive language skills and demonstrated extreme difficulty using words (Checklist of Pragmatic Skills, adapted from Booth, Derickson, & Randolph, 1984). The functional assessment revealed that the participant had basic levels of receptive language, could read and write (on a keyboard) first grade level words, and could recognize sight words.

The setting for this study was the participant's school. Data collection and the application of the independent variable took place in the child's classroom. The participant's educational placement consisted of a self-contained ASD cluster classroom with six other children with ASD.

### **Dependent Variables and Response Definitions**

The dependent variables in this study were the participant's screaming behavior and the choice of the PECS to communicate. Screaming was chosen because it was the behavior reported as most problematic by the classroom teacher and observed to be in need of intervention. During the functional assessment of behavior (see Appendix A), classroom observations were conducted by the researcher. Results confirmed the teachers claim that screaming was the behavior in most need of intervention. The researcher verified with classroom staff that screaming behavior was a relevant target behavior. An occurrence was defined as screaming when it: (a) was loud enough to disrupt activities within the classroom, (b) was done while the subject was in observable frustration/distress, and (c) lasted a minimum of 2 seconds.

The PECS was provided to the participant to be used as an alternative to screaming for communication. An instance of the use of PECS was defined as: (a) pointing to an icon, or (b) picking up an icon and showing it to the researcher, or (c) picking up an icon and handing it to the researcher.

### **Independent Variable**

The independent variable for this study was a combined package intervention consisting of the PECS and differential reinforcement of alternative behavior (DRA). For the purposes of this study, the participant was trained on the first three phases of the use of PECS, as specified by Bondy and Frost (2001): Phase 1-how to communicate; phase 2-distance and persistence, and phase 3-discrimination between symbols. Bondy and Frost (2001) state that Phase 1 is "designed to teach physical behavior that will be considered communicative" (p. 729). Through this phase, students are taught to communicate without using words (i.e., approaching another person [reach towards], engaging in a desired behavior [give a picture] to get a desired outcome). Bondy and Frost (2001) explains that in phase 2 "children are taught to persist in their communicative attempts despite a variety of obstacles or when lesson parameters change slightly...the child will learn to reach farther to get to the hand of the communicative partner or to actually travel to the partner by walking..." (p. 730). In this phase, students are also taught to get their pictures when they need to communicate. Phase 3 of the PECS essentially teaches discrimination between symbols so that messages become specific. Bondy and Frost (2001) specify the use of reinforcers to increase the frequency of the behaviors targeted by each of these three phases. In the current study, DRA was used to encourage a change in the target behavior (screaming). In

DRA, the subject is reinforced for an adaptive response that is intended to replace a maladaptive target behavior.

### **Experimental Design**

The current study was conducted using a multiple baseline across subject areas design. This design was chosen because: (a) not withdrawing treatment is beneficial to the participant, and to the individuals in the participant's setting, (b) using an across subject area design is more convincing than using only one subject area to demonstrate a functional relationship between the independent and dependent variables, (c) the participant's behavior occurs during content instruction of more than one subject, and (d) it offers the advantages of providing intervention in all subjects of need.

### **Procedure**

All observations, and collection, recording, and reporting of data were performed by the researcher, a graduate student, under the supervision of the professor. The method of recording and reporting behavior for this study was frequency and duration for each occurrence of the dependent variable (screaming) and frequency for each instance of the use of PECS. The researcher concluded that the study's social validity would be increased if only screaming that lasted 2 or more seconds was counted as an occurrence. The reasoning was that screaming of this length or longer would, first, disrupt individuals in the screaming participant's environment, and second, signify that the child was frustrated. Observation periods for baseline and intervention phases consisted of 15 minutes each.

### **Baseline**

Prior to the intervention phase for math, which was the first subject area in which the independent variable was applied in the multiple baseline design, collection of baseline data took place on a daily basis until there was stabilization of data points for each subject area (math, reading, and writing). Data stability was defined as obtaining no more than 10% variation in data points for 3 consecutive days. Proceeding intervention in the math subject area, the independent variable was applied to the next subject area when the participant was screaming at a frequency of 30% of baseline levels for 3 consecutive days (criteria) following intervention. Through the multiple baseline across subject areas design, the independent variable was applied first to math, then reading, and lastly, to writing.

After the introduction of the intervention during the math subject area, baseline data continued to be gathered daily for the subject areas, which remained at baseline condition (reading and writing). Also, intervention conditions were kept in place, and data continued to be gathered daily for subjects for which the participant had reached the 30% of baseline screaming for 3 consecutive days criteria during previous intervention phases.

After collection of baseline data, and before intervention in math, the experimenter conducted an assessment of the participant's ability to recognize the words/phrases chosen for PECS icons to eliminate the confound of not being able use them functionally because of lack of not being able read or recognize them by sight. The functional assessment disclosed which words/phrases best represented the participant's communicative needs during instruction. The words chosen were "I need a break", "bathroom", "sad", "sick", "hungry", "it hurts", "help", "don't like", and "I'm tired". As discussed earlier, the participant had a basic level of receptive vocabulary. In addition, since the functional assessment revealed that the participant was able to decode simple words and had an adequate sight word vocabulary, it was decided that icons with words, as opposed to pictures, were to be used. The experimenter conducted three random trials

that required the participant to point to an icon after instructed to do so (“point to \_\_\_\_\_”). After the three trials, it was determined that the participant was able to recognize all the word icons.

### **PECS Training**

Once demonstrating the ability to recognize the word icons, and prior to the application of the independent variable during math instruction, the participant was trained on the first three phases of PECS. The experimenter adhered to the training procedure specified by Bondy and Frost (2001), albeit with two adaptations. First, Pediasure (a preferred reinforcer) was used as the sole reinforcer. As touched upon earlier, Bondy and Frost (2001) suggests the use of a variety of reinforcers during PECS training. Pediasure was used to expedite the learning of the PECS before the intervention phases and to create an association between receiving this particular reinforcer and using PECS to communicate, in order to increase the probability that the participant would use the PECS during the intervention phases of the study. During training, the participant was provided Pediasure in a baby bottle to consume for three seconds, as opposed to other reinforcers or social praise, for each instance of successful performance of a training phase requirement. Second, whereas the standard training procedures for the acquisition of the PECS indicate that two separate trainers are required to serve as communicative partner and physical prompter, in this study both roles were taken on by the experimenter. The participant was successfully trained on the three phases. He was able to master each phase’s requirements in an average of fifteen minutes per phase.

Following PECS training, the experimenter proceeded to apply the independent variable and collect intervention data across the subject areas. The experimenter, immediately before conducting instruction on the current curriculum of focus, made available to the participant for use to communicate a plastic card with velcro strips with the word icons attached to it, by placing the card on the table to his right side. The experimenter sat directly in front of the participant and set an Iphone (attached to his belt) to vibrate once 15 minutes of intervention and data gathering lapsed. Two data sheets on clipboards were placed to the right side of the experimenter on a short table, and out of the view of the participant, to record each occurrence of screaming and instance of use of a PECS icon.

To determine whether screaming behavior qualified as an occurrence, the experimenter placed a stopwatch with time running to his left on another short table out of the view of the participant. During subject instruction, just as was done during training of the three PECS phases, the participant was provided the baby bottle Pediasure reinforcer to consume for 3 seconds for each instance of the use of a word icon. The frequency of screaming and use of PECS was graphed daily for the observations of each subject area. Changes in level, variability, and trend for data points were inspected visually during baseline and intervention phases for screaming behavior, and during intervention phases for use of PECS.

### **Inter-observer Agreement**

Reliability data was collected by an independent observer naive to the experimental condition in effect at the time. The independent observer accompanied the researcher on approximately 30% of the observations and sat out of the participant's line of vision while recording. Data were recorded simultaneously with the primary observer as to whether or not the child had demonstrated the target behaviors. Inter-observer reliability was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the sum of the agreements and disagreements and multiplying by 100 and resulted in an inter-observer agreement of 83%.

### **Visual Analysis**

Carr, Halle, Horner, McGee, Odom, and Wolery (2005) state that “visual analysis involves interpretation of the level, trend, and variability of performance occurring during baseline and intervention conditions” (p. 169), and that judgments are also made regarding a) the immediacy of effects following the onset and/or withdrawal of the intervention, b) the proportion of data points in adjacent phases that overlap in level, c) the magnitude of changes in the dependent variable, and d) the consistency of data patterns across multiple presentations of intervention and nonintervention conditions. (p. 169)

The information derived from analyses conducted using the above guidelines is used to determine whether a functional relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables.

### **Results**

The participant displayed a high frequency of screaming during baseline conditions. Mean level of screaming occurrences per 15-minute observation were 21, 15, and 26 for math, reading, and writing, respectively. Compared to baseline, visual analyses suggest that the intervention package of PECS and DRA decreased screaming behavior and increased use of the PECS to communicate. Application of the independent variable during math instruction resulted in a decrease in the frequency of screaming to 28% (a mean of 6) of baseline (a mean of 21) in 11 sessions. Likewise, in reading the frequency of screaming was reduced to 31% (a mean of 6) of baseline (a mean of 19), although in a much shorter period of time (three sessions). Furthermore, in writing, the frequency of screaming was reduced to 26% (a mean of 7) of baseline (a mean of 26) in four sessions, a relatively short period of time as well. Visual analyses of Figure 1 reveals that the reduction in screaming to approximately 30% of baseline levels for reading and writing occurred in approximately 32% less time than it occurred for math.

Upon provision of the PECS word icons on the first intervention session, the participant began using them to communicate. Through visual inspection of Figure 1 it was determined that during the first eight intervention sessions in math the mean use of word icons per session was ten. However, the mean use of word icons per session for the last ten sessions was fifteen. In other words, for approximately the first half of the sessions use of PECS took place at sixty six percent of what it occurred for the second half of the sessions conducted. The same analyses for reading and writing (Figure 1) revealed a pattern with less variability in the use of use of PECS throughout all intervention sessions. For reading, the mean use of word icons per intervention session for the first four sessions was twenty two, and for the last three sessions it was twenty four. In writing, the participant used the PECS at a frequency of twenty instances per session for the first two sessions and for the last two sessions. Although approximately half of the interventions during the application of the independent variable to math were required for the participant to increase use of PECS, acceptable levels of use did begin from the first implementation session nevertheless. For reading and writing use of the word icons was consistent and stable across all intervention sessions.

### **Discussion**

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the effects of a package intervention consisting of the PECS and DRA on the screaming behavior of a child with ASD in a classroom setting. It was found that the intervention had a positive effect on the screaming behavior of the participant across the math, reading, and writing subject areas. After the independent variable was applied, decreases in screaming behavior and increases in the use of PECS were observed upon visual analyses of data. The results suggest that the PECS/DRA intervention used to decrease screaming behavior and increase the use of PECS was effective for the participant in this study.



The participant was chosen to enter the study because he was reported to display screaming behavior across subject areas in the classroom setting. Functional analysis reveals that the participant's frequent and intense screaming of long duration was a signal of frustration and that it disrupted individuals in the classroom. Therefore, intervening on the target behavior was a socially valid undertaking. Although the study had a high degree of social validity and practical application, generalizability was compromised due to the fact that there was only one participant and one interventionist, which suggests the need for future replications with larger groups of students and/or more than one interventionist. Future research could be conducted using alternate designs, like for example, multiple-baseline across subjects (participants) and across settings. In an across setting design, or a replicated across subject areas design, the participant could be instructed by a different interventionist in each setting (subject area) so that each setting (subject area) is independent of the other.

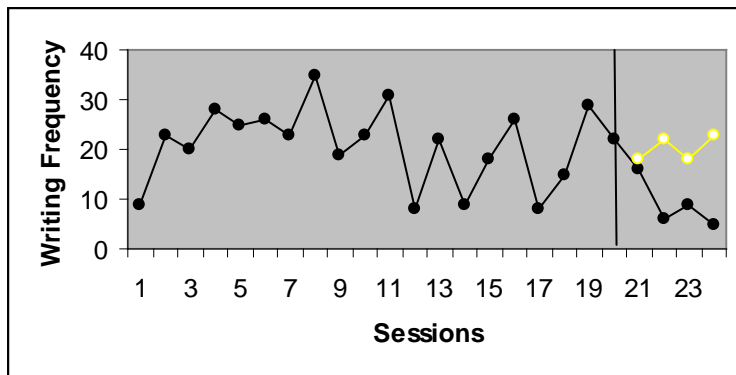
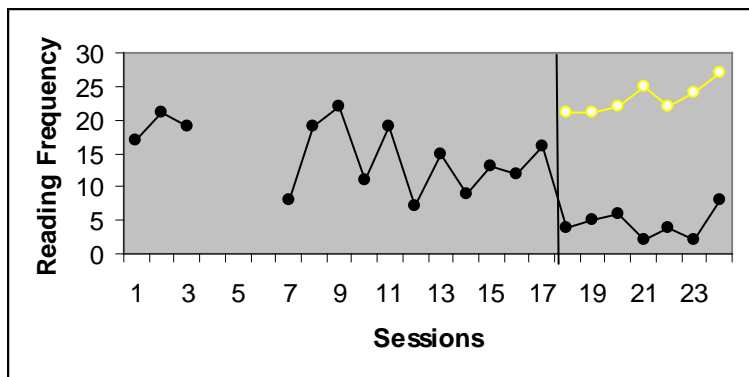
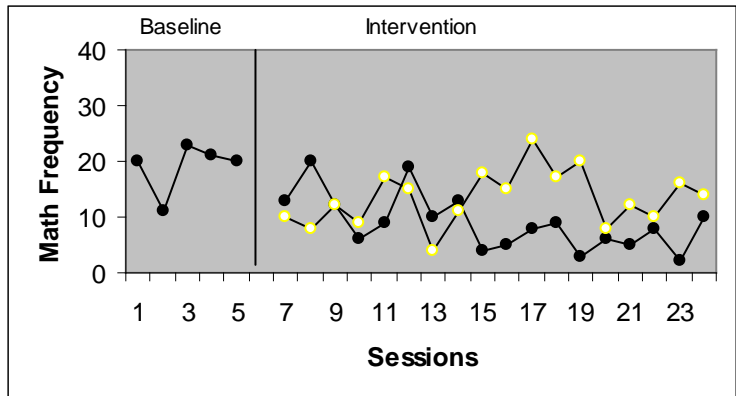
The participant's screaming behavior decreased, and use of the PECS increased, almost immediately when intervention began in the subjects of reading and writing. This was not the case in math, the first subject where the independent variable was applied. Some of the immediate decrease/increase in the dependent variables could be attributed to carryover effects between the subject areas as a function of the multiple baseline design. Efforts were made to minimize threats to internal validity by instructing the teacher and support staff not to use the PECS while the study was being conducted, for example. However, given the nature of the setting, it can be assumed that there was some degree of external influence (i.e., history effects and covariance) on the results of the study.

This study's scope was limited to observing the effects of the PECS and DRA on reducing screaming and increasing functional communication through an adaptive replacement behavior. It did not focus beyond the participant simply using the word icons to express his needs, and did not address possible additional actions associated with each word icon. For example, although there was a word icon depicting "I need a break", whether the participant could go take a break or for how long was beyond the boundaries of this study. Replications of the current study could add, to the intervention package, other consequences and contingencies on top of the simple provision of the Pediture reinforcer for the use of the word icons. In the above example, upon presentation of the "I need a break" icon, the participant could be provided with Pediture and progressively be taught rules related to taking a break appropriately and for an adequate amount of time. Another component that could be considered for inclusion in the intervention could be the fading of Pediture consumption for the use of PECS through a fixed ratio schedule where the number of responses required for reinforcement is gradually increased. This single-subject design has a few inherent limitations. Nevertheless, it lends support to the effectiveness of the PECS combined with DRO as an intervention to reduce screaming behavior.

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Black Line = Screaming  
 White Line = Use of PECS

Figure 1. Data from the multiple baseline across subject areas study.

## APPENDIX A

**Functional Behavioral Assessment: Part 1 (Description)**

Date: 10-5-11

Student Name: BM ID:

DOB: 9-23-01 Case Manager:

Data Sources: Observation | Teacher Interview |

**Description of Behavior (No. 1):**

BM displays screaming out behavior in the classroom, in academically and cognitively demanding activities (i.e., teacher-facilitated math, reading and writing lessons).

**Setting(s) in which behavior occurs:**

The subject's classroom.

**Frequency:**

Screams intermittently for intervals of 10 minutes. When in screaming "mode", screams out every 20 seconds.

**Intensity (Consequences of problem behavior on student, peers, instructional environment):**

Loud and intense. Disrupts the general instructional environment and lessons. Affects peer focus on tasks.

**Duration:**

4 seconds/occurrence (until needs are met or gets desired consequence).

**Describe Previous Interventions:**

None

**Educational impact:**

1) Longer to finish tasks, and 2) Maintains non-verbal status.

**Part 2 (Function)**

**Function of Behavior (No. 1):** Specify hypothesized function for each area checked below.

**Reinforcement (Identify environmental triggers and payoffs that play a role in organizing and directing problem behavior):**

Antecedents: Getting liquid on body or clothes; presentation of a non-preferred task; hunger.  
Consequences: Changing clothes; engaged time decreased; getting food.

**Physiological/Constitutional (Identify physiological and/or personality characteristics; developmental disabilities, temperament; that play a part in organizing and directing problem behavior):** Developmental delay (autism); language deficits.

**Communicate need (Identify what the student is trying to say through the problem behavior):**

Attempting to communicate wants and needs (see "antecedents" and "consequences" above).

## **Playing the Game: A Hermeneutic Phenomenology of Graduate Education Students' Perceptions of Instructor Power in a Higher Education Classroom**

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**Abstract:** The purpose of this hermeneutic phenomenological study was to explore students' experiences with the power of their instructors in a higher education classroom. This study provides a deeper understanding of instructor power from student perspectives to inform teaching practices in the higher education classroom.

Higher education is a distribution center of knowledge and economic, social, and cultural power (Cervero & Wilson, 2001). The distribution of knowledge and power occurs primarily in the higher education classroom. Power, associated with the position of the educator, consists of "formal authority, control over resources and rewards, control over punishment, control over information, and ecological or environmental control" (Cranton, 2006, p. 108). A critical approach to understanding adult learning involves identifying and critiquing concepts relating to power, such as hegemonic ideology and practice, knowledge construction, systems of power and oppression, and barriers limiting liberation and the practice of democracy (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005; Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007). A critical approach to understanding the higher education classroom begins with recognizing the instructor's position of power and authority (Tisdell, Hanley, & Taylor, 2000). The power instructors wield exists mostly unquestioned, allowing for teaching practices that reproduce the existing societal patterns of inequity in the classroom (Brookfield, 2000). Therefore, the purpose of this hermeneutic phenomenological study was to explore graduate education students' experiences with the power of their instructors in a higher education classroom.

### **The Higher Education Classroom as a Context for Understanding Power**

Instructors as agents of the higher education system exercise a great amount of economic, political, and social power and control over the lives of their students. An educator has the ability to evaluate student learning and performance by assigning a grade at the end of a course. This evaluation is then used for the purpose of credentialing or the awarding of a degree, which then leads the student to additional resources, socioeconomic growth, self-sufficiency, and a better future (Buttaro, 2004; Zalaquett, 2006).

Power is behaviorally manifested in the classroom as instructors exercise the power to control the dynamics of the classroom by "talking down to students, allowing no interruptions or questions, and maintaining complete control over resources, information, and rewards" (Cranton, 2006, p. 122). Students are taught about the power relations in higher education through physical arrangements and through language. Although students are generally told that they live in a free and democratic society, traditional classroom practices teach students to become obedient to unilateral authority (Macedo, 2006).

The conceptual framework for this study emerged from the literature on using a critical approach to understanding adult learning. Critical theory is one of the more recent contributions to the field of adult education and higher education. According to Brookfield (2005), "a critical

approach to understanding adult learning sees it as comprising a number of crucial tasks such as learning how to perceive and challenge dominant ideology, unmask power, contest hegemony, overcome alienation, pursue liberation, reclaim reason, and practice democracy” (p. 2). Using a critical approach involves questioning the normalcy and exercising of such power and the practice of alienation, particularly by those who are alienated and disadvantaged as a result. This study was an exercise between researcher and participants to discuss and understand how instructors in higher education, who are in positions of power and privilege, have exercised their power, positively or negatively, during our higher education classroom experiences. It was a dialogic process grounded in the discussion and analysis of our own experiences (Brookfield, 2000).

### **Method**

A hermeneutic phenomenological study intertwines the interpretations of both the participants and the researcher about a lived experience to uncover layers of details and to identify the core essence of that lived experience (van Manen, 1990). The use of hermeneutic phenomenology created a space for me as a researcher to explain meanings and assumptions of participants’ experiences based on my own theoretical and personal knowledge (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007). The aim was to illuminate lived experiences because the meanings of lived experiences are usually not readily apparent (van Manen, 1990).

#### **Sampling Strategies**

Participants were selected using criterion, convenience, and snowball sampling. Criterion sampling involved reviewing all cases relevant to this study that met the criteria for participation, which was defined as currently enrolled as a graduate student of education at a large, urban public research university in southeast Florida (Patton, 2002). Convenience sampling involved using methods easily accessible and inexpensive to the study (Patton, 2002). Participants for this study were recruited and selected using email listservs that reached all of the graduate students in the College of Education. As a form of snowball sampling, participants were asked to recommend additional students who may provide information-rich cases for this study (Patton, 2002).

#### **Participants**

The 15 participants in the study included nine women and six men. Their ages ranged from under 30 to over 60 years old. In terms of racial-ethnic identification, eight self-reported as being Latino, six as White (non-Latino), and one as African American. Six of the participants were enrolled in an education master’s degree program and nine were enrolled in an education doctoral degree program. With regards to occupation, seven reported employment in a non-instructional role in higher education, three were employed in an instructional role in higher education, four were teachers in grades K-12, one was employed in the corporate sector, and two reported other forms of employment (some participants reported more than one occupation).

#### **Data Collection and Interpretation**

The primary data gathering method were semi-structured interviews guided by an interview protocol that included main questions and possible follow-up questions to address the research questions of this study (Creswell, 2003). Participants were contacted by email to set up a mutually convenient time for a face-to-face interview. Interviews ranged from 47 to 90 minutes. Additional data, such as thoughts, reflections, and insights during the study, were collected in a research journal.

Data were interpreted using thematic reflection (van Manen, 1990). Ideas and concepts that were recurrent and emerged in the descriptions of respondents’ lived experiences were

considered themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Themes were then shared by email with participants as a form of member checking (Patton, 2002). The aim was for participants to be able to recognize their experiences in the initial findings and themes and offer new insights to better capture and explain their experiences. Of the 15 participants, a total of nine responded and all nine expressed support of my findings. No new insights were provided by participants during the member checking process.

### **How Students Perceived Instructor Power in the Higher Education Classroom**

The research questions in this study were designed to explore student experiences involving the power of their instructors in the higher education classroom. Three themes emerged from data interpretation: (a) structuring of instructor-student relationships, (b) connecting power to instructor personality, and (c) learning to navigate the field of higher education.

#### **Structuring of Instructor-Student Relationships**

The way instructor-student relationships were structured in the higher education classroom shaped how students perceived power in the higher education classroom. Participants frequently used the metaphor of family to explain the instructor-student relationship and identified the ethic of caring and nurturing as important qualities by which to understand the instructor-student relationship. The hierarchical perspective from earlier education experiences were perceived and expressed by comparing instructors to typical parental figures such as mother, father, uncle or aunt. This perception of a familial hierarchy to understand the classroom flattens somewhat in higher education so that the instructor-student relationship is increasingly seen from a collegial perspective as participants progressed from undergraduate to graduate studies.

When participants perceived their instructors as having a positive influence on them, participants identified caring and nurturing as values that defined the instructor's professional practice of teaching. The discussion of an ethic of caring and nurturing by instructors flowed from the family metaphor. Caring is an expression of concern, whether explicitly or implicitly, for another person. "He cared about me learning" (Elizabeth 35:3). "I think that she had a caring heart" (Jessica 38:4). "It's the attitude and the essence of their teaching and their presence in the classroom that makes the student say this person cares for me" (Mariana 41:10). When the instructor cares about a student, the instructor is interested in not only that student's learning in the course, but their overall personal and professional success and well-being. Participants generally perceived that it was really up to the instructor more so than the student to establish the tone for the instructor-student relationship because instructors had "the power to shape the environment in the class" and "the power to lead the students in a direction that will be beneficial for that student" (Leila 40:43).

When participatory forms of instruction were used, participants felt that instructors used their power to validate other forms of knowledge/ways of knowing. "You release the intellectual capital in the class. He [the instructor] was not threatened by that at all" (Elizabeth 35:11). "He brought such positive energy to the classroom. He really got you participating" (Leila 40:19). "You feel that your voice is valuable and that a lot of people's voices are very valuable" (Leila 40:23). Because of the less hierarchical structure that was perceived by participants when they were in a highly participative and open classroom, participants placed less emphasis on the instructor's formal power and authority in the classroom.

### **Connecting Power to Instructor Personality**

When participants discussed instructor power in the higher education classroom, their perceptions were mostly reflections of the instructors as unique individuals, rather than as agents of the higher education system. In essence, the exercises of power were perceived as indicators of instructors' personality traits. For example, one of the participants shared about one of her instructors, "his personality is very eccentric and very blunt. Some people find that offensive" (Daniela 34:5). Even in light of derogatory comments involving racism or sexism, some participants still attributed those behaviors to the instructor's personality traits or identity rather than seeing those behaviors as part of a larger pattern of racism or sexism permeating the academy. Participants were more likely to label the particular comments as being racist, sexist, homophobic, etc. rather than label the particular instructor as a racist, sexist, or homophobe.

Because an instructor is already in a position of power, unreasonable exercises of power were considered a reflection of a personality flaw of the instructor. Sometimes the unreasonable exercises of power were explicit, such as verbally or physical confronting students in the classroom. Nicole shared an instructor once told her in front of the class, "I did not get a Ph.D. because I am an idiot....So if I were you, I would sit down and leave it as is" (Nicole 43:3). Other times, the unreasonable demonstrations of power were more implicit in the classroom interactions between instructor and students. For example, instructors dominated the classroom time to "brag the hell out of himself" (Elizabeth 35:31), "fall asleep in class" (Leila 40:28), or "pontificated for the entire 3 hours we were in class and focused a lot on himself, projects that he was working on, issues he had with the school [and] with the faculty" (Hirv 37:6). In all of the situations where participants discussed instances they thought instructors used their power unreasonably, not one of the participants addressed the issue with their instructor.

### **Learning to Navigate the Field of Higher Education**

As participants progressed from undergraduate to graduate studies, they perceived expertise in content or knowledge development as secondary to expertise in successfully navigating the field of higher education. Strategies participants used to navigate the field included using evaluations of instructor performance, preserving the self, and learning to play the game.

Participants relied on non-institutional sources of student evaluations to gain insights on what to possibly expect when they entered a new instructor-student relationship. Student evaluations administered by institutions of higher education were generally not available to participants or perceived as unreliable because students may be reluctant to truly share their feedback about the instructor's effectiveness until they felt their grades had been safely recorded. Students may have not known, or doubted, instructors receive their student evaluations several weeks after official grades have been submitted for the term. Participants reported that they looked to other information sources to find out information about their instructors such as the Internet and more specifically RateMyProfessors.com. Michael shared that current students "have it easier than a lot of us had in the past with all this 'Rate the Professor' stuff. You can just Google and figure out some idea of what the professor's going to grade like" (Michael 42:6).

Self-preserving behaviors as discovered in this study are behaviors that enabled the participants to feel psychologically safe to persist through their educational experiences. For example, self-preservation took place on an intrapersonal level. "I want a grade but I will no longer sacrifice my self-esteem for a grade. That is something I will not do" (Nicole 43:20). In other words, on an intrapersonal level participants engaged in self-preservation by not letting the instructors harm or lessen their self-esteem or self-concept. This is a process of rationalization



used when “logical reasons are given to justify unacceptable behavior,” particularly if it is in “defense against feelings of guilt, to maintain self-respect, and to protect from criticism” (APA, 2009, p. 421). Another self-preserving behavior was deciding not to continue in an instructor-student relationship. Five of the participants (Camilo, Gina, Judy, Sasuke, and Nicole) reported that they dropped a course because they could not continue to be in what they perceived to be a negative instructor-student relationship. Gina, Sasuke, and Nicole changed their major of study altogether because of negative interactions with their instructors. If a student chose to remain in an unfavorable instructor-student relationship rather than exit the relationship, the student engaged in self-preservation in the classroom. Participants shared that some ways to engage in self-preservation in the classroom include: stay quiet, brush off the things that bother you, do not always tell the truth, and make sure you do not get labeled as a trouble-maker.

Participants described their experiences in higher education as ultimately not about what new knowledge or skills they acquired; it was about learning how to play the game. The emphasis was on getting through the process of earning the degree. For example, Leila shared, “You just play the game....I don’t even think that getting a doctorate has made me that much smarter ....I’m getting the credential that will give me power in society. I’m going to be Dr. So and So.” (Leila 40:40) Participants shared stories about how they went along with what the professor wanted, despite what they believed, just because that was required to get them through the process. Learning to play the game is about learning how to acquire the cultural capital that is sought after and that is tied to the educational credential being earned. Playing the game involved learning “how to present oneself vis-à-vis relations of power” in order to earn the rewards that follow the cultural capital (Isserles & Dalmage, 2000, p. 160). The rewards may include a job, entry to a profession, promotion, or acceptance at another educational institution. Entering into the field of higher education requires the implicit adherence of the rules of the game (Swartz, 1997). For participants, the ability to play the game successfully was facilitated when there was consistency in the rules of the game. Participants alluded to a preference for consistency of instructor behavior, over finding them to be caring, nurturing, or agreeable.

### **Discussion**

The findings from this study revealed that by the time participants enrolled in higher education, they were already aware of the power of their instructors. Their awareness of instructor power stems primarily from their prior learning experiences in their primary and secondary school experiences. The family was an important agent in legitimizing instructor power, particularly for participants from immigrant families that placed an emphasis on earning a college degree in order to climb the socioeconomic ladder and secure a better life and future than did their parents. As a result, participants perceived instructors as gatekeepers to the status or credentials sought in higher education. In other words, instructors possessed power as gatekeepers to cultural capital.

Two expectations widely shared by participants were that instructors should exhibit an ethic of caring and nurturing. When instructors violated those expectations, participants emotionally distanced themselves from the relationship. The strategies then participants adopted were focused on task and course completion, rather than finding self-fulfillment in the course material, learning experiences, or the instructor-student relationship. As a result, participants experienced elements of alienation in their educational experiences.

Although instructors are bound by rules, institutional and public policy, institutional and professional expectations, peer faculty pressure, and other forms of oversight, participants viewed instructors as having a lot of freedom over their work. Instructors can choose to be

flexible and understanding when particular life circumstances require scheduling accommodations for students, or they can choose to remain rigid with the established deadlines they indicated on their syllabi. Instructors can choose to allow students to write a paper, which is graded and returned, or instructors can choose to require students to engage in peer review and then to revise and resubmit papers so that they learn how to improve their writing skills. Instructor power is discretionary. Although there is no doubt that students must earn their grade, what participants questioned is the extent to which instructors' decision-making is influenced by subjectivity when evaluating student performance (Isserles & Dalmage, 2000). None of the participants actively questioned the normalcy of this exercise of power or the mechanisms that permit this discretionary exercise of power to occur.

Participants ultimately described the experiences involving the power of their instructors in the higher education classroom as playing the game. The more participants perceived themselves to be confident, self-aware, and self-assured, the more likely they were to not internalize the instances of instructor power. Those who allowed those experiences of instructor power to be internalized were more likely to have sought ways to escape the relationship by dropping the course or changing their major. Those who had a higher level of perceived self-confidence had an easier time brushing off the instances of instructor power and then just play the game. Participants found the more they progressed through their higher education – from undergraduate to graduate studies – the better equipped they were to play the game.

Playing the game can be primarily interpreted in two different ways. The first is from a negative perspective that connotes triviality of the higher education experience as something participants do not take seriously, lays blame on participants as students, and detracts from the reality of instructor power in the higher education classroom. This negative perspective also places instructors and students in adversarial relationships and assumes conflicting goals and priorities. The other way to interpret the concept of playing the game is from a positive perspective that frames it as an adaptive approach for participants to navigate the sociopolitical terrains of higher education despite instructor power. Playing the game involves preserving the sense of self while trying to maximize the possibility of positive outcomes in a relationship.

### **Implications for Teaching in Higher Education**

The findings from this study have implications for teaching in higher education. Instructors should be cognizant of the difference in power between themselves and students, consider how their teaching practices may influence the difference in power, and work towards creating a democratic classroom (Tisdell, 2001). To foster growth and awareness, instructors should engage in critically reflective teaching about their profession and how they approach instructor-student relationships in the classroom by focusing on the ways power influences educational transactions and how one's assumptions may impact the interest of both students and instructors (Brookfield, 1995).

Because participants described their experiences involving instructor power in the higher education classroom as playing the game, how students learn to play the game is important. But to move students toward a critical awareness of the issues of power involved in the higher education classroom, students need to move beyond learning *how* to play the game to learning *why* the game is played. This is what Freire (2000) referred to as conscientization, which is the process by which students gain a critical consciousness of the social and political sources of oppression. This requires that instructors not only help students understand the sources of power and oppression, but instructors also help students discover ways to take actions that will

empower students to overcome them. Only by learning why the game is played are students then able to bring about changes in how they play the game.

This research contributes to understanding instructor power in a higher education classroom from a bottom-up perspective in the social hierarchy because the researcher and the participants were all students. This research was an exercise in identifying and engaging in the process of unmasking power (Brookfield, 2005). But if students, such as the participants in this study, are generally not able to understand and discuss power from a systems perspective, students may not be learning the tools of critical inquiry and language required to engage as socially active students and citizens (Darder, 1995). What is needed is a critical pedagogy that places politics and ethics at the center of educational theory and practice by recognizing the role educational institutions play in the production of dominant societal identities and cultural practices (Giroux, 2006). When an instructor gives students the opportunity to learn within a culture of critical inquiry and engagement, the instructor, as an agent of the American higher education system, upholds “the knowledge, values, skills, and social relations required for producing individual and social agents capable of addressing the political, economic, and social injustices that diminish the reality and promise of a substantive democracy at home and abroad” (Giroux, 2006, p.2).

### **Considerations for Future Research**

This study raises new questions for areas of future study of higher education students. A concern raised in this research is the hesitancy for participants to label instructors as racist, sexist, homophobic, etc., despite having identified their instructor’s behavior as such. Why is the emphasis on the individual and not the system, or both? In all instances, participants have shifted their language to labeling the behaviors, not the person. Are students generally not equipped with the language and the perspective to be critical even as graduate students? Or does the fact that they are still in the higher education system mean they must continue to play the game? In terms of “playing the game,” future research can explore further the unspoken rules in higher education and whether they are consistent across all different types and sizes of institutions. Furthermore, how can students be empowered to break the rules of the game and question authority without sacrificing any prospects for upward social mobility, access to jobs, and other opportunities?

Future research may also explore different segments of student demographics to understand if there are any differences in the way instructor power is perceived and experienced. This may be conducted in a multitude of ways by exploring possible differences in common demographic categories (e.g., age, race, gender, and ethnicity), courses of study (e.g., undergraduate, masters, and doctoral), or programs of study (e.g., liberal arts, engineering, and business). Research should seek to expose the oppressive underbelly of higher education that reproduces societal systems of power. Until researchers start asking the tough questions to elicit responses and critical thinking from students in higher education, greater understanding that can significantly spark transformation and critical consciousness will not be achieved.

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## **Intercultural Education and Intercultural Competence in Higher Education in Ukraine**

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**Abstract:** The establishment of independent Ukraine in 1991 created a political and social climate that entailed a need and possibility for democratic educational reforms in Ukraine. An integration of Ukraine in multicultural European and global society can be supported academically by infusing intercultural education in primary, secondary, and higher education curricula.

This literature review introduces the importance of implementing intercultural education and intercultural competence in higher education in Ukraine. It will examine sociopolitical and socio-historic foundations of intercultural education in Ukraine and connect them to current trends in intercultural education and power issues in intercultural education policy-making in the country. The main argument of the paper is that effective intercultural education policies and curricula that foster intercultural competence are an important link to promote Ukraine's integration in the diverse European society.

It is important to define terms *multicultural* and *intercultural* to pinpoint differences between them. Following Gundara (2010), the term *multicultural* is used as a descriptive term that "indicates elements of diversities in schools and communities" (p. 299) due to current racialized usage of the term to describe new immigrant populations visibly different from dominant White populations. The term *intercultural* will be used to address "broader taxonomic features of difference and diversity . . . through intercultural policies and practices" (p. 299). For this paper, the term *intercultural* is used to address education policies and practices.

To conduct this literature review, the author used the following search terms to retrieve the appropriate articles and book chapters from ERIC search engine—*intercultural education, Ukraine, higher education, intercultural competence, multicultural education, intercultural relations, and intercultural policies*. Second, the author skimmed through the abstracts of the retrieved articles and looked through the tables of content of the books available in FIU library and those ordered through an interlibrary loan. Last, the author used only those articles and books that directly dealt with issues of intercultural education in Ukraine.

### **Intercultural Context**

Diversity and the "East-West" division of Ukraine as well as the representation of languages in education, intercultural tolerance and xenophobia, and internationalization of higher education in Ukraine is discussed in this section.

#### **Diversity and the "East-West" Division of Ukraine**

Ukraine is a multicultural and multiethnic country that is inhabited by more than 110 ethnic groups and national minorities. According to the latest 2001 census (State Statistics Committee of Ukraine, 2001), the population of the country consists of Ukrainians (77.8%), Russians (17.3%), Belarusians (0.6%), Moldovans (0.5%), Crimean Tatars (0.5%), Bulgarians (0.4%), Hungarians (0.3%), Romanians (0.3%), Poles (0.3%), Jews (0.2%), and other groups (1.8%). However, the full diversity of the country is not reflected in the census because it does not distinguish between ethnic subgroups of native Ukrainians that have their own distinctive

culture, dialects and live in specific geographic regions of the country (e.g., hutsuls, boikians, lemkians, slobozhany, poltavtsi).

The relations between diverse cultural groups in Ukraine have been polarized into pro-European west and pro-Russian east and are characterized by political, ideological, religious, and linguistic tensions. This conditional division is an aftermath of the occupation of different regions of Ukraine by different countries. Historically, different parts of Ukraine had been under the influence of diverse cultures until the country joined the USSR (Riabchuk, 2009). Before the Soviet Union, Western *oblasts* (regions) of Ukraine have been under the Polish, Austro-Hungarian, Romanian, and Czechoslovakian rule, while eastern and southern oblasts have been under the influence of Russia (Riabchuk, 2009; Shulman, 1999). As a result, in southeastern oblasts of Ukraine, “multiethnicity has not translated into multiculturalism . . . but instead has provided a nutrient substance for the Soviet-style melting pot” (Riabchuk, 2009, p. 21).

The theoretical underpinnings of the “east-west” cleavage in Ukraine are reflected in Elster, Offer, and Preuss (1998) who determined two kinds of cleavages innate to postcommunist transitions:

- (1) those of a political-ideological kind that divide the population into those who have been loyal or acquiescent under the old regime, including its elites and activists and those who identify themselves as its . . . opponents or victims, and (2) those cleavages of an identity-based kind that divide the population into members of the titular nation and religious, linguistic, and ethnic majorities of various kinds. (p. 249)

This conditional division of the country along *fault lines* (Huntington, 1996) is interconnected with the voting pattern and religious affiliation—Ukrainian Orthodoxy of the Kyiv Patriarchate and Greek-Catholicism of the west and Ukrainian Orthodoxy of Moscow Patriarchate of the east part. As Pachlovska (2009) pointed out, the current pro-Russian President of Ukraine, Yanukovich, did not separate the Ukrainian Orthodox Church of the Moscow Patriarchate (UOC MP) from his election campaign. Moreover, the UOC MP “declared itself against all religions in Ukraine that supported the political opposition: Ukrainian Orthodox (Kyiv Patriarchate) and Jews, Catholics and Moslems, Protestant and Buddhists” (p. 42). Further, Ukraine is divided into multireligious and multicultural European part and monoreligious and monocultural Soviet part.

### **The Representation of Languages in Education**

Linguistic diversity of Ukraine is not independent of the bipolar division of the country. The predominantly Russian-speaking east and Ukrainian-speaking west add to the complexity and tensions of the titular country. After the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the Ukrainian language was declared the only state language of the independent Ukraine, “disrupting the previously established hierarchy in which Russian was the language of power and Ukrainian had low status (Bilaniuk, 2009, p. 336). According to the data in the Country Report (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine [MESU], 2010), the Ukrainian language is the mother tongue of 64.3% of the population, and the Russian-speaking population totals 36.4% of the country. Other languages are numerous but are spoken by a small number of other cultural groups (1.5%), such as Moldavian, Hungarian, Gagausian, Armenian, Azerbaijanian and others. Currently, the Ukrainian language, after being “marginalized and denigrated relative to Russian, has become increasingly used in public urban contexts and by political and cultural leaders” (p. 337). However, it “has not lost all of its connotations of low prestige and backwardness, and in many contexts Russian retains the prestige and power that it had in the Soviet Union” (p. 337). Only 41.8% of Ukrainian population prefer to speak Ukrainian, while 36.4% consider Russian as their language of communication and 21.6% self-identify as bilingual (MESU, 2010).

The relationship of language diversity to other forms of cultural diversity was identified by Romaine (2011) who argued that languages are “a benchmark for cultural diversity because virtually every major aspect of human culture ranging from kinship classification to religion is dependent on language for its transmission” (p. 377). Therefore, the discussion of Ukrainian language and languages of minorities in Ukrainian education follows next.

How is the language diversity represented and accommodated in Ukrainian schools and higher education institutions? According to the Country Report prepared by the MESU (2010), based on the results of the All-Ukrainian poll of the Sociology Institute, most students study in Ukrainian (80.4%), while schooling is available in languages of minorities as well.

The same study reports that there is a trend toward an increase in the representation of the languages of minorities in Ukrainian education from 0.45% in 2001 to 1.13% in 2007/2008 (MESU, 2010). However, students’ proficiency in Ukrainian is required to continue their education. Since 2010, education testing has been conducted in Ukrainian only, while before the language provisions for the minority groups were offered (MESU, 2010). It should be noted, however, that the number of secondary students learning Russian as a subject (1,292,518) sufficiently exceeds the number of students that learn Ukrainian as a subject (829,610), while the number of students using Russian as the language of instruction (779,423) is smaller than those using Ukrainian (3,608,725).

The representation of the languages of minorities in higher education as languages of instruction is not as diverse as it is in secondary education—ten languages in higher education institutions in comparison to 19 in secondary schools (MESU, 2010). However, the use of minorities’ languages in higher education should not be confused with the use of foreign languages as languages of instruction for majors in foreign languages.

### **Intercultural Tolerance and Xenophobia in Ukraine**

Overall, the population of Ukraine does not express high level of tolerance towards the representatives of other cultural and racial groups. Data from a Kyiv International Institute of Sociology (KIIS, 2010) survey revealed that in 2010 Ukrainians express the highest level of tolerance—do not mind if the following ethnic groups live in Ukraine—towards Ukrainian-speaking Ukrainians (96%), Russian-speaking Ukrainians (94%), Russians (85%), Byelorussians (76%), and Jews (63%). Less than half of Ukrainians agree that the following groups should live on the territory of Ukraine: Black population (22%), Germans (38%), Roma (37%), Canadians (36%), Americans (35%), and French (33%; KIIS, 2010). In addition, results of the KIIS (2010) survey indicated that the level of xenophobia of Ukrainians is somewhat high, as measured on a scale of social distance (Bogardus, 1933). The scale ranged from 1 (would agree if the representatives of this group become members of their family) to 7 (would not let the representatives of this group enter Ukraine). From the results of the KIIS survey, we can infer that Ukrainian population is still not prepared for smooth integration to a multicultural European society. Therefore, it is important to introduce and support intercultural education in Ukraine.

### **Internationalization of Higher Education in Ukraine**

The top three priorities of education policy in Ukraine, as officially reported to UNESCO European Center for Higher Education by Kremen and Nikolajenko (2006), are “the further development of the national education system, its adjustment to a new economy, and its integration into the European and global community” (p. 11). As a result, internationalization of higher education is viewed positively by Ukrainian policy-makers and encouraged to fully integrate Ukrainian higher education into the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the European Research Area (ERA), and increase its competitiveness and compatibility with higher

education of other countries, while preserving national achievements and traditions of higher education (Kremen & Nikolajenko, 2006).

The Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (MESU) encourages faculty and student mobility and is supportive of international agreements in higher education. As of 2006, MESU had 82 inter-governmental and 46 inter-departmental agreements with 60 countries (Kremen & Nikolajenko, 2006). The examples of cooperation of higher education institutions of Ukraine and international organizations are the implementation of the European Union's program Tempus and Bologna process in the country. Ukraine became a member of Tempus in 1993. The program supports cooperation and modernization of higher education in the countries of the EU and its partner countries by means of higher education projects (Tempus, 2011). Since, the program has been supporting internationalization of Ukrainian higher education institutions and the establishment of higher education partnerships (e.g., student exchange and joint research projects) with higher education institutions of the EU (Tempus, 2011).

The main objective of the Bologna process is the creation of European Higher Education Area by 2010 that will make European higher education more compatible, comparable, and competitive (European Commission, 2011). Since Ukraine entered the Bologna agreement in 2005, the following subsequent developments occurred in the country, according to the latest National Report (2009):

- by the order of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine No.162 of July 13, 2007 there was approved an Action Plan on quality assurance for higher education of Ukraine and its integration into the European and world educational community for the period until 2010;
- a draft of the Law of Ukraine "On amendments to the law of Ukraine "On Higher Education"" has been prepared taking into account Bologna provisions and recommendations;
- there was introduced the system of ranking of higher education institutions (HEIs) of Ukraine (September 2007);
- Ukraine became a governmental member of the European Quality Assurance Register (EQAR) (April 2008);
- Ukrainian Association of Student Self-government (UASS) became a member of the European Student's Union (December 2007);
- by the order of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine No.602 of July 03, 2008 there was established a working group on the development of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for higher education. Consultations to design its profile, level descriptors, credit ranges are being held. (p. 2)

### **Intercultural Competence**

The development of intercultural competence is one the most important outcomes of internationalization of higher education institutions (Deardorff, 2006; Krajewski, 2011). Accelerating globalization creates a demand for interculturally competent workforce (Krajewski, 2011). However, there is no unanimous agreement among scholars about the definition of intercultural competence. The most fruitful attempt to define and assess intercultural competence was accomplished by Delphi study that was based on collaborative efforts of 23 leading intercultural scholars (Deardorff, 2006). The scholars provided definitions and specific components of intercultural competence organized in Table 1.

Deardorff (2006) organized the results of the study in the Process Model of Intercultural Competence (Figure 1). The model reveals the developmental nature of intercultural



competence that starts with appropriate individual attitudes (respect and openness toward other cultures, curiosity and discovery) and moves towards interactive internal and external outcomes by means of appropriate knowledge, comprehension, and skills. In this model, better understanding and assessment of intercultural competence follows the identification of desired internal and external outcomes of intercultural competence.

With this framework in mind, Deardorff (2011) argued that intercultural competence and global learning can be infused in curricula by means of local cultural immersion, study abroad as well as bringing up students' cultural backgrounds for in-class activities that will help them take on multiple cultural perspectives. She emphasized that faculty themselves need to get a full understanding of intercultural competence to include it in curricula and pointed on the importance of implementation of intercultural education in undergraduate courses by means of service learning and education abroad. The researcher's choice of service learning and education abroad as tools of intercultural education was determined by her understanding of intercultural learning as a transformational process that leads to the development of students' intercultural competence and transformation by means of intercultural experiences.

Another important research on intercultural competence defined it as “a complex of abilities needed to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself” (Fantini, 2007, p. 9). Similarly, Bennett and Bennett (2004) defined intercultural competence as “the ability to communicate effectively in cross-cultural situations and to relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts” (p. 149). Both definitions emphasize ability and interaction aspects of intercultural competence and are reflected in most definitions that received 80-100 percent agreement rating in the above-mentioned Delphi study (Table 2), especially close to the definition that received the highest approval mean of 19 out of 20 participants—“ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 249).

Unlike the previous definitions of intercultural competence, Spitzberg and Chagnon (2009) take into account an aspect of interaction management: “. . . intercultural competence is the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive, and behavioral orientations to the world” (p. 7). The authors specify that these orientations include nationality, race, ethnicity, tribe, religion, or region (Spitzberg & Chagnon, 2009). For the purpose of this paper, the author uses Fantini's (2007) definition of intercultural competence.

### **Intercultural Education**

Intercultural competence can be developed by means of intercultural education. Given current ethnic, linguistic, religious, and political tensions based on conditional east-west divide of Ukraine on the one hand, and increased communication with other countries, on the other hand, intercultural competence and intercultural education are needed in the country. Combined, they may promote intercultural understanding, intercultural sensitivity, tolerance, and cooperation between different cultural groups living in Ukraine and beyond its borders.

However, the development and implementation of intercultural education in Ukrainian curricula is in the burgeoning state. So far, the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine has started infusion of intercultural education in geography, history, and ethics and is currently revising textbooks to address multiculturalism (MESU, 2011). On its website, MESU recognizes and supports intercultural education as a means of promoting understanding between the Ukrainian majority and minorities, foster mutual respect, understanding, and tolerance. MESU

(2011) emphasizes the following aspects of intercultural education—“право на визнання унікальності, своєрідності кожної людини, її духовного внутрішнього світу, повагу до прав дитини на свободу, щастя і всебічний розвиток, реалізацію її здібностей” (Здійснення мовної політики в Україні, пара. 44). *In in the author’s translation*, this means a right on recognition of uniqueness and specific features of every person, his or her spirituality, respect of children’s human rights and freedom, happiness, the whole development of a child and realization of his or her abilities..

Despite numerous education reforms and support of international NGOs, current Ukrainian education system remains authoritarian, with prevailing monocultural instruction. Intercultural education is not explicitly mentioned in either Ukrainian government documents, or national education policy documents. Fimyar (2008) scrutinized selected education policy documents and found inconsistency, controversy, and vagueness in the policy texts. For example, key competencies for a globalized world were described as citizenship skills, multicultural skills, literacy, ICT documents/IT skills, and life-long learning skills with no further elaboration.

Although the State recognizes the importance of implementing intercultural education in higher education, educational policies and teaching methods remain largely monocultural and ethnocentric (Koshmanova & Ravchyna, 2008). Ukrainian faculty still preserve Soviet authoritarian teaching philosophy and teaching methods and are skeptical about innovative education reforms. In addition, teacher candidates are remotely aware of the necessity of multiculturalism and cultural tolerance (Koshmanova & Ravchyna, 2008). In sum, the Ukrainian education system is not prepared to educate students needed for the democratic future of the country. Koshmanova and Ravchyna (2008) suggest that a transition from monocultural education is possible if teacher educators possess multicultural knowledge and skills. That is, faculty and students need to develop an adequate degree of intercultural competence to move beyond xenophobia, stereotypes, and monoculturalism to the reconciliation of east-west tensions, celebration of cultural diversity, and smoother integration in multicultural European society.

Indeed, the roles of higher education institutions and current and preservice educators as agents of intercultural understanding and dialogue cannot be overestimated. In its White Paper on intercultural dialogue, the Council of Europe (2008) pointed out that the university can nurture publicly active ‘intercultural intellectuals’ promote scholarly research on intercultural issues, and implement appropriate intercultural practices in all aspects of teaching. Accordingly, higher education curricula need to include methods and strategies that can prepare graduates to manage and peacefully resolve intercultural conflicts stemming from racism, xenophobia and other negative manifestations of monoculturalism, as well as foster democratic global institutional approach (Council of Europe, 2008). Thus, it is important that higher education faculty and students have both the knowledge of intercultural issues and the ability to implement them effectively in classrooms.

In addition, Hurenko (2009) argued that the priorities of multicultural education in Ukraine derive from the priorities of democratic and multiethnic Ukrainian society. Therefore, they are supposed to (a) reflect the ideas of equity between ethnic, religious, linguistic, and cultural groups of the country; (b) encourage development of national cultural life that includes majority and minority groups; (c) support understanding and respect of all groups; (d) teach patriotism and tolerance; (e) promote intercultural communication; and (f) solve and avoid intergroup conflicts (Hurenko, 2009).

### **Future Research and Conclusions**

The outlined issues and trends in intercultural education in higher education of Ukraine call for more theoretical and empirical research in the field and its adequate and effective implementation. For example, Yaksa (2009) pointed on scarcity of research in the area, an absence of a scientifically grounded approach of training of future teachers in addressing multicultural issues. In addition, there is a need to create a model of intercultural (multicultural) education that can be used for education and training of pre-service teachers (Yaksa, 2009; Hurenko, 2009). Nikolayenko (2011) points out that east-west cleavage in Ukraine imposes difficulties in adoption of effective education policies. Therefore, a research focused on the development of sound education policies that will embrace the country's diversity and help alleviate internal tensions is needed. Accelerating globalization, gradual transition to integration in the European Union, internationalization of education, as well as current intercultural tensions within Ukraine call for effective and adequate development and implementation of intercultural education in education system of Ukraine, especially in higher education. Interculturally competent professionals are needed in all professional fields. However, intercultural education is a new and underdeveloped area in higher education institutions of Ukraine. Therefore, more research is needed to support its implementation.

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## Appendices

Table 1

### *Definitions of Intercultural Competence*

<b>ACC</b>	<b>REJ</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Item</b>
20	0	3.4	0.7	Understanding others' worldviews
19	1	3.8	0.6	Cultural self-awareness and capacity for self-assessment
19	1	3.7	0.6	Adaptability and adjustment to new cultural environment
19	1	3.5	0.6	Skills to listen and observe
19	1	3.4	0.8	General openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other cultures
19	1	3.4	0.8	Ability to adapt to varying intercultural communication and learning styles
18	2	3.8	0.4	<b>Flexibility</b>
18	2	3.8	0.4	Skills to analyze, interpret, and relate
18	2	3.7	0.6	Tolerating and engaging ambiguity
18	2	3.6	0.6	Deep knowledge and understanding of culture (one's own and others')
18	2	3.5	0.8	Respect for other cultures
17	3	3.5	0.9	Cross-cultural empathy
17	3	3.4	1.0	Understanding the value of cultural diversity
17	3	3.3	0.9	Understanding of role and impact of culture and the impact of situational, social, and historical contexts involved
17	3	3.2	1.0	Cognitive flexibility—ability to switch frames from etic to emic and back again
17	2	3.0	0.8	Sociolinguistic competence (awareness of relation between language and meaning in societal context)
17	3	3.0	1.1	<b>Mindfulness</b>
16	4	3.6	0.8	Withholding judgment
16	4	3.4	0.8	Curiosity and discovery
16	4	3.2	0.9	Learning through interaction
16	4	3.1	1.2	Ethnorelative view
16	4	2.9	0.9	Culture-specific knowledge and understanding host culture's traditions

Note: ACC = accept; REJ = reject.

Note. Cited in Deardorff, 2006, p. 249.

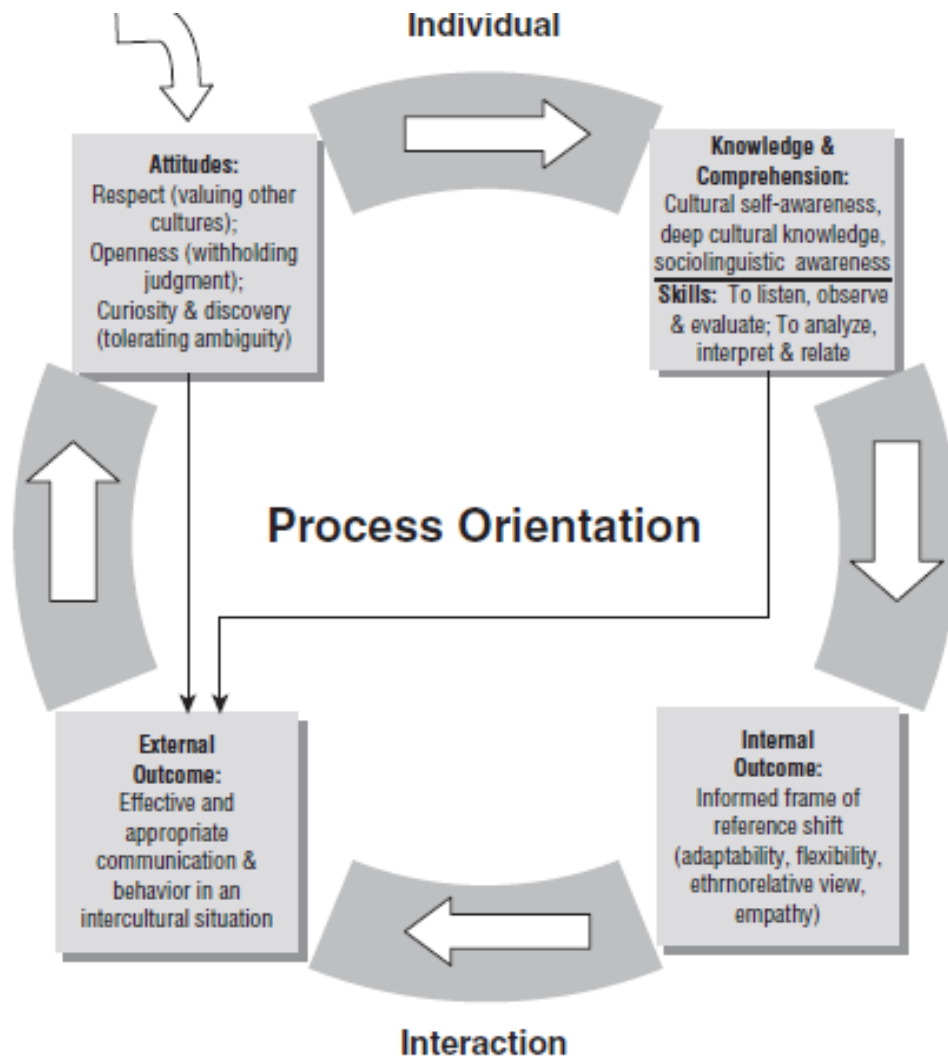


Figure 1. Process Model of Intercultural Competence. Cited in Deardorff, 2006, p. 256.

## An Investigation of Participants' Perspectives About a Learning Assistant Program and Their Thinking about Becoming a Mathematics Teacher

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**Abstract:** A Learning Assistant program that recruits strong STEM undergraduates to become mathematics teachers was explored through a qualitative study. Three program participants were purposely selected and interviewed. The program reaffirmed one participant's choice to become a teacher and clarified for one that it might be a career for him.

According to the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (USDOE, 2008), students' scores in mathematics in the United States are behind that of U.S. competitors: Singapore, Hong Kong, and England. In order for students in the United States to become academically competitive in mathematics with other countries, their mathematics teachers must be qualified. This situation indicates that there is a distinct need for recruitment of teachers who are highly qualified in mathematics. All of the literature reviewed identified low levels of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) education recruitment as a problem but few offered solutions. One solution mentioned repeatedly across the body of literature was the offer of programs and grants as incentives to pursue careers in STEM education. One program designed to improve recruitment and preparation of STEM teachers is the learning assistant (LA) program, originally established at the University of Colorado.

The LA program at the University of Colorado has (a) increased the pool of well-qualified K-12 physics teachers by a factor of 3 or more, (b) engaged scientists significantly in the recruiting and preparation of future teachers, and (c) improved the introductory physics sequence so that students' learning gains typically double the traditional average (Otero, Pollock, & Finkelstein, 2010). Because the model is fairly young, there is very limited research on its effectiveness. Students chosen for the LA program are among the top performers in their respective mathematics and science classes. The LA program requires learning assistants (LAs) to take a semester long seminar focused on the learning and teaching of both science and mathematics. LAs are also taught useful strategies for tutoring other college students in lower division mathematics, physics, and chemistry. LAs are paid a stipend for working 10 hours per week assisting faculty in classes, leading group recitation sessions, and tutoring in the labs. LAs who commit to a STEM education major are given a \$20,000 Noyce scholarship in exchange for 4 years of service teaching in K-12 schools. In recent years, other universities have begun to adopt LA programs. A lack of research exists on ways that LA programs and other programs for recruiting STEM majors into teaching careers influence student views about careers in teaching. Thus, it is of value to investigate participants' perspectives about such programs and in what ways these programs are helping them develop their thinking about mathematics teaching as a career.

Studies have shown that students choose to become teachers because they enjoy helping others, sharing information, and interacting socially (Barker & Reyes, 2001). Most research on motivation to become a teacher (i.e., Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Kyriacou, Hultgren, & Stephens, 1999; Papanastasiou & Papanastasiou, 1998; Saban, 2003) suggests that reasons for

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becoming a teacher fall into three categories: intrinsic, extrinsic, and altruistic. Intrinsic reasons for choosing to become a teacher are related to aspects of the job itself and its inherent satisfaction such as enjoying the subject matter, liking the activity of classroom teaching, and a sense of having a personality suited for teaching. Extrinsic reasons for teaching include aspects of the job that are not inherent to the work itself and produce some separable consequences or outcomes such as long vacations, social status, lead to other jobs, and job security. Altruistic reasons for teaching include aspects of the job that are seen as giving back or contributing to the common good such as helping to improve society, believing the subject is important for students to learn, and teaching is a noble profession. Altruistic reasons are considered by some, and in the present study, as an extension of intrinsic reasons (e.g., Covington & Mueller, 2001; Kasser & Ryan, 2001).

Reasons for choosing to teach are interrelated to an individual's goal of becoming a teacher (Schutz, Crowder, & White, 2001). According to Schutz and colleagues (2001), "goals are subjective representations of what one would like to happen and what one would like to avoid in the future" (p. 229). In their investigation of pre-service teachers' development of the goal to become a teacher, Schutz et al. (2001) found four main sources that were predominant in their participants' goal history of becoming a teacher: (a) family influences, (b) teacher influences, (c) peer-influences, and (d) teaching experience. Their research supports the supposition of experiences and external factors influencing individuals' goal development of becoming a teacher.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate from the points of view of mathematics LAs: (a) their thinking about their LA program, and (b) how the LA seminar and related LA experiences have influenced their thinking about becoming a mathematics teacher. This study's overarching goal is to inform the role that an LA program can play in attracting STEM undergraduate students to a career in teaching mathematics. More specifically, the following research question guided this investigation: *What do mathematics undergraduate students participating in an LA program at a southeastern urban, public university think about the program and the choice of mathematics teaching as a career?*

### **Setting and Participants**

This study was conducted within the LA program on the main campus of a large southeastern urban public university during the Fall 2011 semester. Over 46,000 students, approximately 20,240 men and 25,760 women, were enrolled at the university across its two campuses and internationally (Florida International University, 2011). On the main campus, 15% of the students were White non-Hispanic, 61% were Hispanic, 13% were Black Non-Hispanic or African American, 4% were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 7% were part of other minority groups.

At the university, 51 STEM undergraduates were joining the LA program and completing the LA seminar for the first time in Fall 2011. The main goal of the LA program is to increase recruitment and retention of STEM undergraduates choosing to become STEM teachers in order to meet recent initiatives such as the 100kin10 Challenge that focused on recruiting, preparing, retaining, and supporting 100,000 excellent STEM teachers over the coming 10 years. The LA program consists of two main components: (a) an LA seminar completed by LAs their first semester in the program, and (b) LA teaching/tutoring experiences. The LA seminar is focused on issues of learning and teaching of mathematics that provide the participants with initial knowledge that supports their work in their LA teaching/tutoring experiences. The LA



teaching/tutoring experiences provide the LAs with opportunities to teach/tutor (10 hours per week) undergraduates in STEM courses that the LA has successfully completed and meet for planning and reflection sessions with faculty and/or other LAs.

The participants of the study were mathematics undergraduate students at the university that were participating for the first time in the LA program, were enrolled in the LA seminar, and had expressed a genuine interest in tutoring their peers and working with faculty. Early in the Fall 2011 semester, STEM LAs were given a survey to gather demographic data, background information, and participants' thinking about becoming a teacher. One part of the survey included Likert-type items pertaining to reasons for becoming a teacher. Thirteen mathematics LAs completed the survey. Of these, three were selected for interviews using purposeful sampling in order to select a sample from which the most can be learned (Merriam, 2001). The three participants that were selected (reported here by pseudonym) varied in their thinking about becoming a mathematics teacher: Kate, who was definitely interested in becoming a mathematics teacher; Kory, who was not interested; and Kyle, who was not sure.

### **Research Methods**

This section describes the methods used to collect the data and analyze the data. The research design of this study was qualitative with naturalistic inquiry.

#### **Data Collection**

The research design was qualitative and involved the development of case studies. The data collected for the investigation included surveys, interviews, and field observation notes. The students enrolled in the LA seminar class completed a survey a month at the start of their LA program which was into the semester and their start of the LA program. The survey, developed by the authors drawing in part from the work of Pop (2010), was used to gather demographic data, background information, and participants' thinking about becoming a teacher. The gathered surveys were separated into three groups based on participant responses: (a) interest in pursuing a career in teaching, (b) disinterest in pursuing a career in teaching, and (c) undecided in regards to pursuing a career in teaching. Nine of 13 mathematics LAs (three from each group) were selected to be contacted for an interview. Of those nine, three responded to an e-mail invitation to be interviewed, each with a different perspective on becoming a mathematics teacher (i.e., definitely interested, unsure, and currently not interested). Throughout the semester, the first author conducted weekly field observations in the LA seminar class. The persistent engagement and persistent observation allowed the researchers to develop trust and learn the culture of this class (Glesne, 2006). The field observations allowed the researchers to see what activities and instructions were given to the LAs related to STEM education and in preparation for their LA teaching/tutoring experiences. The field observation notes gave the researchers insight on the environment of the LA seminar, which was found to be rich in project-based learning activities. Toward the end of the semester, the three selected LAs were interviewed. These interviews were conducted following an interview protocol. Interviews were semi-structured and flexible, allowing new questions to be posed as a result of what the interviewee said.

#### **Data Analysis**

The surveys and transcribed interviews for each of the three selected participants were coded and analyzed in order to build a case pertaining to each participant. The data sources were coded and analyzed separately and triangulated to better inform each case. The codes were reduced to major themes. These themes represent the repetitive patterns that were indicated by the data and were identified across the data (Merriam, 2001).

The data were analyzed and interpreted in two stages. During the *early* data analysis stages, the survey data were categorized and interpreted. During the *later* data analysis stage, coding was incorporated across the surveys and interview transcripts. All data sources were coded using the coding methods as described by Merriam (2001) where “coding occurs at two levels – identifying information about the data and interpretive constructs related to analysis” (p. 164). The first level of coding involved the assigning of phrases, single words, numbers, and/or letters to various facets of the data and led to the second level where common themes or patterns found across the data were identified and categorized (Merriam, 2001).

### **Findings**

The data analysis provided for the development of three cases, one for each participant: Kate, Kyle, and Kory. These cases help to understand participant’s conceptions about the LA program and their thinking about becoming a mathematics teacher.

#### **Kate**

Kate was a junior mathematics major with an education focus, who at the start of the semester definitely intended on pursuing a career in teaching. Analysis of Kate’s survey responses revealed the high level of importance she placed on intrinsic (including altruistic) reasons for considering a career in teaching. For her, the extremely important reasons included wanting to help students succeed, the belief that teaching is a noble profession and teachers can help improve society, liking classroom teaching, and having a personality suited for the job. With respect to extrinsic reasons, she rated highly other’s people’s influence and previous jobs as important reasons. On the survey, she indicated that she has tutored privately. She responded that she is interested in a career in teaching because she “always had a passion about helping other students learn and teaching them in order to watch them succeed,” and she has “also been strongly and positively affected by my own teachers.” Kate felt that she was making a difference in the lives of others, which may have greatly impacted her decision to pursue a career in teaching.

As part of her LA experience, Kate worked as a tutor for 5 hours in a mathematics open lab and 5 hours in an algebra lab. As part of working in the algebra lab, Kate attended a weekly meeting with other algebra LAs and faculty teaching algebra to discuss what the students are learning and where they may be having difficulty. For Kate, the algebra related work is helping her to “relearn things that I forgot in algebra” and the open lab preparing her for answering “tough questions that I sometimes might not know the answer right then and there so I either have to figure it or I have to find it out for them.”

During the interview at the end of the semester, Kate revealed her continued excitement and passion for teaching. Prior to joining the LA program, she had decided to become a mathematics teacher and the LA program continued to support that for her. Growing up, Kate had great experiences with her teachers and her teachers acknowledged her mathematics strengths.

I remember in my fifth grade class that was a huge thing because my teacher was older and we were going through, I forgot the topic, but we are going through a topic that she had learned in a different way than students were able to learn it now. So I remember it was a huge frustration so I remember in one of the classes me I think as a 5<sup>th</sup> grader, which I was super honored. One of the classes she actually had me stand up to be able to help her relate it because I have the ability, and I think it’s a blessing, to understand math from different point of view and from different umm generations.

Kate often utilized her talent to decipher her teacher's lessons and translate the content to her peers, particularly while tutoring them prior to the tests. Their successes reinforced positive feelings for her about teaching. Kate's mom also implicitly supported her growing interest in teaching by cooking big dinners when Kate was having the tutoring sessions with her friends. Kate's goal to pursue a career in teaching can be traced back to the four main sources for setting a goal to become a teacher discussed by Schutz (2001): (a) family influences, (b) teacher influences, (c) peer-influences, and (d) teaching experience. Although each person's story is unique, the types of influences on those choosing to pursue a career in education are similar across stories. For Kate, the LA program helped reaffirm her desire to become a teacher, particularly through the further opportunities to teach that it provided and the positive peer-influences.

### **Kyle**

Kyle was a senior with a triple major, one of which was mathematics. At the start of the semester, he did not intend on pursuing a career in teaching. Analysis of Kyle's survey responses revealed that he had low levels of intrinsic motivation when considering a career in education. Different from Kate, he rated reasons of teaching being a noble profession, liking classroom teaching, and having a personality suited for the job as not very important for deciding to be a teacher. On the other hand, he thought extrinsic reasons, such as long vacations and job security, were important for person choosing to be teachers. In the survey, Kyle also indicated that he taught others as a private tutor and that he did not like teaching enough to do it for the rest of his life.

For his LA experience, Kyle was placed as an LA with a calculus professor in a calculus class. During his 10 hours as an LA, he attended the calculus class, assisted the professor as needed, and tutored the calculus students. He typically did not meet outside of class with the calculus professor he assisted. Kyle's main reason for becoming an LA was to help him have a stronger curriculum vita (CV) or resume. Although he tutored privately, he thought being officially selected to be an LA by a mathematics department at a university would provide recognition for him.

Kyle's interview at the end of the semester revealed that his interest and "passion" for becoming a financial analyst was very high and he lacked interest in becoming a teacher. When Kyle was asked if he would consider pursuing a degree in education he replied as follows:

No . . . I don't . . . I don't intend to . . . umm first of all as I mentioned before I don't think anyone can just, uhh, hop into education you really have to prepare yourself academically and I wouldn't get a degree in education because that is not what interests me most. I am more interested in mathematics, economics, finance, so it is not something I like.

Kyle indicated that prior to joining the LA program, he had been tutoring privately for only about one year. Thus, he did not have much teaching experience in his history. He felt comfortable tutoring because he knew the material very well. However, with respect to becoming a teacher, he felt that his family and friends may have influenced him subliminally:

It's just that parents, family, friends they influence everything obviously the environment we live in so maybe at some point it's like a lot of other probably fields. Someone has maybe told me, 'Oh with teaching salary it's not gonna . . .' Well, maybe that has been in the back of my mind . . . that coupled with the fact that I'm not passionate about it.

With respect to the LA program, he indicated that he enjoyed his LA experience and it has helped him hold teachers at a much higher regard because he understands better what their work entails. However, although Kyle's experiences were found to be enriching, they were not

enough to attract him to education. Unlike Kate, he did not have a history of experiences within Schutz's (2001) four main sources that encouraged him to become a teacher. Kyle was not positively reinforced by his family and teacher influences, while Kate was received positive reinforcement from all four sources.

### **Kory**

Kory was a junior mathematics major with an education focus, who at the start of the semester was unsure about teaching in the future. Analysis of Kory's survey responses revealed that he, like Kate, rated highly intrinsic (including altruistic) motivations for becoming a teacher when considering a career in education. For him, the extremely important reasons included wanting to help students succeed, the belief that teaching is a noble profession and teachers can help improve society, having a personality suited for the job, and liking classroom teaching. However, unlike Kate and more like Kyle, he rated as not very important the following extrinsic reasons: other's people's influence and previous jobs. Also, like Kyle, Kory rated job security as a fairly important reason for someone to become a teacher. Through the survey, Kory also expressed that he was interested in politics or becoming an astronaut. He said that his main reason for becoming an LA was to "see if I want to become an educator." Prior to the LA program, Kory did not have much experience tutoring or teaching others.

As part of his LA experience, Kory worked for 10 hours both in an algebra class and with the algebra students working in the algebra lab. As part of working with the algebra class, Kory attended weekly meetings with faculty teaching the Algebra course and with other algebra LAs. In those meetings, they discussed what the students were learning at the time and areas in which they might have or were having difficulties. Kory felt his experience as an LA "was a good learning experience" and he was "definitely satisfied and happy and fulfilled that I helped other students get through difficult courses."

During Kory's interview at the end of the semester, he said that the most crucial influence in his decision to become a mathematics teacher or not was the LA program:

I would say the LA experience has been the most decisive. I mean, I had always thought about it but it wasn't until I had been participating in my LA class and seminar that I really enjoyed teaching and saw that it is something that I could see myself doing then. Prior to the LA program experiences, Kory did not have much teaching/tutoring experience, positive peer influences toward teaching, or positive teacher influences, three of the main sources supporting individuals for choosing to become teachers outlined by Schutz (2001). Prior to the LA program, Kory did not have experience tutoring and, unlike Kate, Kory did not discuss any individuals who significantly impacted his decision to pursue a career in education. The LA program seemed to begin to provide some of these influences through the experiencing teaching/tutoring the algebra students, working with other LAs, and working with algebra faculty. When asked what Kory thought would be most rewarding to him as a teacher, he responded:

The most rewarding experiences would be being this student that actually appreciated me as much as I appreciated them I would try to make a good connection with every student but the ones that make the effort to make a connection back with me and come back to me to visit afterwards and say that I really did affect them along the way in their education and in their life, not just the subject that I had taught them.

Although at the start of the semester, Kory was unsure about choosing to become a mathematics teacher, the high importance he placed on intrinsic reasons for becoming a mathematics teacher

and his positive experiences as an LA make him more susceptible to being recruited as a mathematics teacher.

### **Discussion**

The three cases of Kate, Kyle and Kory reveal some similarities and differences that can inform the implementation of programs, like the LA program, to recruit mathematics teachers. Both Kate and Kory were juniors. They rated intrinsic reasons as extremely important for individuals' choices to become a teacher. Additionally, for Kate, sources in her history for setting the goal to become a mathematics teacher were directly aligned with Schutz's (2001) four main sources: (a) family influences, (b) teacher influences, (c) peer-influences and, (d) teaching experience. Thus, Kate had decided to become a teacher when she enrolled in the LA program and the program confirmed her decision. Kory, however, was not sure if he wanted to pursue a career in teaching and did not have a history aligned with Shutz's main sources for becoming a teacher to support such a decision. For Kory, the LA program seemed to be building a history for him of these main sources. He felt the LA program was helping him to decide to become a teacher. He reported that through the LA program he recognized that "I really enjoyed teaching and saw that it is something that I could see myself doing them."

Kyle, a senior, on the other hand, did (a) not rate intrinsic decisions highly for influencing individuals' choices to be a teacher, and (b) rate some extrinsic reasons highly, such as long vacations and job security. With respect to Shutz's main sources for choosing to become a teacher, Kyle had only been tutoring for a year so he did not have much teaching experience. Additionally, he felt that his family and friends may have made comments about becoming a teacher that may have swayed him away from pursuing teaching as a career. Important for Kyle was that he had a passion for being a financial analyst that he did not have for teaching. Kyle stated that he enjoyed the LA seminar and the LA experience; but when he was asked to what extent it affected his decision to pursue a career in education, he stated, that he had other considerations such as wanting to be a financial analyst and knowing that to become a teacher required a great deal of preparations.

The LA program seems valuable to some extent for recruiting and retaining strong STEM undergraduates to become mathematics teachers. For individuals, like Kate, with a positive history of the four main sources (a) family influences, (b) teacher influences, (c) peer-influences, and (d) teaching experience for becoming a teacher (Shutz, 2001), the LA program may confirm that teaching is the career for them and may help to retain them in the major. For individuals, like Kory, who are not sure and do not have a history of positive or negative influences to become a teacher and have positive intrinsic motivations to be a teacher, the LA program can begin to provide a positive history of influences to make the decision to become a teacher. Last, for individuals such as Kyle, a senior with a passion for another career, who do not rate highly intrinsic motivations for becoming a teacher, and who have little positive main sources for becoming a teacher such limited experience teaching/tutoring and some negative influences (family and friends) discouraging teaching as a career, the LA program may not be a good recruitment tool to become a teacher. However, it did help clarify his thinking about what it takes to be a teacher, and it did help him value the work of teachers more.

### **Implications**

Further study of the LA program would be valuable because the program is fairly new and has the potential to increase recruitment of STEM educators (Otero, Pollock, & Finkelstein, 2010). In the future, the researchers in this study will survey the students in the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester in order to detect change in their career decisions and

possible reasons for those changes. With future data, the researchers plan to develop a linear model that will help predict a student's probability of choosing to pursue a career in teaching prior to joining the LA program.

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## **Instituting Tobacco-Free Employee Policies: An Invasion of Privacy or an Employer's Legal Right?**

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**Abstract:** Rising health care costs are causing some employers to assess and regulate the health behaviors of their employees. Different approaches and levels of non-smoking regulations are discussed, and the legal parameters and challenges of regulating employees' private behaviors are explored.

Faced with staggering increases in the costs of health insurance premiums and health care, employers are starting to focus on the health behaviors of their employees as a way to manage and potentially reduce these corporate health care expenditures. It has always been in the best interest of employers to have workers who are healthy, productive, and satisfied, but now employers are using incentives - and disincentives - to deal with the rising costs of health care and the choices of their employees (Hand, 2009). Wellness programs and exercise facilities have become standard as large corporations promote the health and wellness of their employees, yet some employers have gone a step further by imposing strict policies that attempt to curb the off-duty smoking habits of their employees (Schleiter, 2008). Leading the way are some large, well-known US companies such as Scotts Miracle-Gro and General Electric. Public employers such as the states of Alabama and Georgia are also addressing employee wellness incentives, and even small businesses are instituting programs that connect their employees' health behaviors with health care costs (Hand, 2009; Parekh 2005; Schilling, 2009).

While employers try to manage their health care expenditures with the implementation of wellness and smoking cessation programs, employees, watch groups, and some legal professionals wonder if these companies are overstepping their bounds and invading the private choices of their workers (Cohen & Cohen, 2007). Janice Bellace, professor of Legal Studies and Business Ethics at The Wharton School of Business, warns, "Any company moving into this area has to consider what employees think is unreasonable or an invasion of privacy" (as cited in Wharton, 2006, p. 2). Critics call these policies "lifestyle discrimination" and claim that they interfere in the private lives of employees and penalize them for participating in a lawful activity. Critics also call attention to the risk that allowing employers to consider smoking habits in their hiring and firing practices will serve as a "slippery slope" - a gateway - for other lifestyle factors as well (Schleiter, 2008). Lewis Maltby, president of the National Workrights Institute in Princeton, NJ, fears that companies are venturing into dangerous territory by establishing such policies, and he asks, "If employers start controlling one aspect of employee conduct, what else is there to control?" (as cited in Worthington, 2007, p. 67).

When does this concern for healthy employees and a concern for lower health care costs become an inappropriate intrusion or even discrimination? Are employees entitled to privacy in their personal choices even if those choices end up having a negative impact to their workplace and their employer? What control can an employer have of employees' off duty, legal behavior? This article will first explore the increase in health care costs that businesses have faced in recent years and explain the trends in wellness programs, specifically, smoking cessation programs, that have increased along with these rising costs. Next, two approaches to monitoring and

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eliminating employee smoking will be viewed through examples of efforts currently used in American companies. The legal landscape including HIPPA, ADA, and legal outcomes of lawsuits of these approaches will then be explored.

### **Rising Health Care Costs and Tobacco Cessation**

According to a 2011 study published by the Kaiser Family Foundation, a nonprofit research group that tracks employer-sponsored health insurance expenditures, the cost of health insurance coverage has nearly doubled since 2001 (Kaiser, 2011). Employee-sponsored health insurance costs comprise one quarter of all non-wage compensation, and it is estimated that about \$4 per hour of wages goes to pay for health care costs (Barton, 2006).

These rising costs have caused many companies to create ways to steer their employees toward healthier lifestyles. According to a 2008 national survey by Harris Interactive, the vast majority of employers believed that encouraging their employees to adopt healthier lifestyles would greatly reduce their corporate health care costs (Hand, 2008). The Society for Human Resource Management estimated that 59% of companies offered wellness programs in 2010; 28% paid bonuses for smoking cessation, weight loss, or other health goal achievements; and 10% provided insurance discounts for not smoking, getting a health risk assessment, or joining a weight loss program (as cited in O'Brien, 2009).

While companies focus on health issues for their employees, tobacco use becomes a significant target for these wellness programs. According to a study conducted from 2006 to 2008, by the U.S. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 33.6 million full time employees - or 28% - ages 18 to 64 reported they had smoked cigarettes in the last month (as cited in O'Brien, 2009). These high numbers have caused some companies to take a hard look at smoking cessation programs. According to Peter Capelli, director of the Center for Human Resources at The Wharton School of Business, crack-downs on employees who smoke, on or off the job, were the "thin edge of a wedge...It has become socially acceptable to attack smoking and smokers" (as cited in Wharton, 2006, p. 2).

### **One Approach: Hiring or Firing Based on Tobacco Use**

While many companies are instituting smoking cessation programs as part of an overall wellness initiative, some companies are taking a very strict, and more controversial, approach to eliminate smoking from their workforce (Schleiter, 2008). In 2005, Weyco Inc., a Michigan based insurance and medical benefits company, implemented a policy requiring employees to be tobacco free at all times, even during their off-duty hours. Employees were subject to dismissal if random breath or urine tests showed positive results for nicotine or tobacco. In 2003, two years prior to enforcing the tobacco-free policy, Weyco set up smoking cessation programs which included hypnosis, acupuncture, and other methods to help employees quit smoking (Schleiter, 2008). Current employees who refused to quit smoking were forced to leave the company. Fourteen of the 200 employees chose to quit the company before the policy actually went into effect, and at least 4 employees have been terminated for refusing to take the breath or urine test. As Weyco Inc. learned, some states have laws that prohibit employers from discriminating against smokers (Berman & Crane, 2008). As a result, a Weyco employee who smoked and was located in Illinois was able to remain employed and free from smoker related testing (Maher, 2004).

Scotts Miracle-Gro Co., a \$2.7 billion lawn care company headquartered in Marysville, Ohio, also began by taking a "quit smoking or be fired" stance on employee smoking. On September 1, 2006, Scotts fired a probationary employee for a positive drug test for nicotine. Scotts' corporate approach was a long process that developed over time. In the early 2000s,



Scotts' CEO, Jim Hagedorn, watched his company's health care costs explode. In February 2003, as a response to health care costs that had risen 43% in 4 years, Hagedorn doubled what the workers were paying for their health insurance (Hand, 2009). This increase led to a severe loss of morale and Hagedorn knew he needed another approach. After more thought and a news broadcast that prompted an epiphany, Hagedorn ended up hiring an outside company to come in and implement a wellness program at Scotts. Included in this wellness program are strict rules about smoking. Smokers were offered assistance with smoking cessation programs and had one year to quit or be terminated (Schleiter, 2008). Scotts no longer hires anyone who smokes. Hagedorn acknowledges that his programs have "Big Brother" overtones, but he is committed to bringing down health care costs: "If people understand the facts and still choose to smoke, it's suicidal, and we can't encourage suicidal behavior" (as cited in Hand, 2009, p.7).

#### **Another Approach: Financial Incentive Approach**

Some employers have taken a slightly less coercive approach with their tobacco-free workplace policies. Focusing on the extra expense of their health insurance premiums, some employers are passing on health insurance surcharges to their employees who smoke and refuse to participate in a smoking cessation program (Hand, 2009). Conversely, some companies are framing this as a "discount" to employees who do not smoke. In February 2005, General Electric went as far as commissioning a study using their employees in a smoking cessation program. Nearly 1,000 employees who indicated they were smokers with a desire to quit were randomly placed in one of two groups. Both groups were given information about local smoking cessation programs in their area. The incentive group, however, was also told about financial rewards they could earn for participating in a smoking cessation program and for remaining tobacco free for six and twelve months thereafter – as evidenced by a biochemical test (Schilling, 2009).

For the incentivized participants, the odds of quitting reached 15% and were 3.29 times higher than the non-incentivized group (Schilling, 2009). Because of the success of the study, in early 2010, General Electric began offering a modified incentivized smoking cessation program for all of its employees. Disincentives - financial penalties related to health insurance premiums - were added to deal with employees who were not remaining tobacco free. Other large US companies such as Humana Health Care, IBM, and PepsiCo also have financial incentives in place in order to help motivate all employees to become tobacco free (Hand, 2009; Schilling, 2008). The public sector is implementing these programs as well. The states of Georgia and Alabama, and Palm Beach County all currently have smoking cessation programs available with financial incentives - and disincentives - in place for their workers (Bolton, 2011; Parekh, 2005).

#### **Legal Challenges**

Although some employees appreciate the mandatory employer wellness programs, others fear they are too intrusive and fear negative job repercussions for non-work conduct such as smoking (Hendrix & Buck, 2009). Employers have generally been successful in defending smoking policies that have generated lawsuits by disgruntled employees (Schleiter, 2008). One of the early lawsuits based on a smoking cessation policy involves an employee still in his training period who was fired for a positive result from a nicotine urine test. The employee's suit is based on the fact that he was still in a probationary period and was not yet eligible for health benefits and the smoking cessation program (Schleiter, 2008). The suit also challenged Scotts' legal standing for firing based on an anti-nicotine program. In 2009, this suit was dismissed and Scotts Co. was free to continue its hard-line stand on smoking cessation. This also paved the

way for companies to be more confident that they can regulate the smoking behavior of their employees even when they are not on the job (Berman & Crane, 2008).

Another legal issue that companies need to be concerned with is the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA). HIPAA prohibits health plans from discriminating against plan participants based on a health factor. A wellness program that provides a “reward” based on a health factor must satisfy each of the following factors:

- (a) The reward cannot be more than 20% of the total coverage,
- (b) The program must be designed to promote health or prevent disease,
- (c) The program must be available to all similarly situated employees,
- (d) A reasonable alternative must be available for individuals for whom it is unreasonably difficult or medically inadvisable to meet the standard (Friedman & Chagala, 2006, p.7)

Companies that have instituted wellness programs with a smoking cessation component that meets the above HIPAA criteria have been able to withstand the legal challenges that have arisen.

Two other legal issues to be considered are state laws and the federal American with Disabilities Act (ADA). Most states follow the “employment-at-will” doctrine, meaning that they are generally free to set the standards for whom they hire and what they require. Within these parameters, contractual details, federal law, and state law cannot be violated. In 29 states, employee smoking cessation policies are perfectly legal (Hendrix & Buck, 2009). Legal challenges based on federal laws have not been successful either. There is no constitutionally protected “right to smoke,” and the ADA does not consider an addiction to nicotine a disability (Berman & Crane, 2008).

### **Implications for Higher Education Institutions**

As a workplace, American colleges and universities face the same potential employment policy issues as any company. Tobacco free campuses, including student residential housing areas, are becoming more prevalent, and there are now at least 648 100% smoke-free campuses in the U.S. (ANRF, 2012). Qualitative findings are indicating a general support for the smoke-free campus policies (Berg et al., 2010), but more research will be needed to evaluate if any of these colleges or universities are considering an expansion to a complete smoking cessation policy for employees. Colleges and universities will have the track records of public companies, private companies, states, and municipalities to learn from as they determine how deeply they want to interfere with the smoking rights of their employees.

### **Conclusion**

It appears that Peter Capelli of The Wharton School of Business was correct when he stated that, “it has become socially acceptable to attack smoking and smokers,” referring to crack-downs on employees who smoke (as cited in Wharton, 2006, p. 3). The smoking cessation trend among employers is continuing (Hand, 2009; Schilling, 2009) and disgruntled employees are having a difficult time finding a legal way to challenge their employer’s tobacco-free workplace mandates (Berman & Crane 2008; Hendrix & Buck 2009; Schleiter, 2008). Although it has been established that the employers are within their legal rights to mandate smoking cessation, the literature did not make it clear how much money is actually being saved in health care costs. The current literature also does not address any potential “costs” that may be occurring due to issues such as employee resentment or low employee morale. Since there is now a track record of companies that are encouraging and enforcing smoking cessation policies, further research could be conducted that evaluates actual health care cost savings. Studies and surveys could also be utilized in these companies to assess whether there are other “costs”

associated with these programs due to any negative feelings from the employees such as resentment or low morale.

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## The Impact of Social Media in the Workplace

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**Abstract:** Today, individuals communicate easier and faster due to accessibility of the Internet. However, when employees are distracted with social media, it can become a concern for organizations. This paper reviews literature concerning social media and its implications at workplaces, and provides recommendations to control it, using Adams' equity theory (1963).

*Advances in computer technology and the Internet have changed the way America works, learns, and communicates. The Internet has become an integral part of America's economic, political, and social life.*

*(Clinton, 2000, para. 1)*

The arrival of communication in the form of social media has connected individuals throughout the world together (Bennett, 2010). Social media can be defined as where people communicate, utilizing online platforms while they are connected to the Internet (Cox & Rethman, 2011). With social media, people interact not only with a single person, but they can choose to connect with many other individuals to speak concurrently, though they are at various locations. In addition, people may engage in a variety of activities; for instance, they can download photographs, upload videos, and electronically transfer information. Social media diminishes the problem of communication with others over long distances, and expedites the ability for people to communicate at any time (Hantula, Kock, D'Arcy, & DeRosa, 2011). Some of the most popular platforms in social media are Twitter, LinkedIn, and Facebook, which give people the ability to easily connect with friends, relatives, and co-workers (Bennett, 2010; Sherman, 2009). Twitter is a unique form of communication because of its brevity on the postings: the limit is 140 characters, and the users have no need to be acquaintances with each other—by 2009, Twitter had 41 million users (Kwak, Lee, Park, & Moon, 2010). Conversely, LinkedIn is more business oriented and has 85 million members (Wang & Kobsa, 2009). Users post their professional image to the public, showing their skills, contacting other professionals in the field, and even searching for prospective candidates for their industries (Cox & Rethman, 2011). Facebook, which is the most social in nature, stated they had over 400 million active users in 2009 (Warnakula & Manickam, 2010). Two years later, on November 4, 2011, Facebook stated they had more than 800 million active users, and more than 350 million of these people were utilizing their mobile devices. Moreover, Facebook contends that more than 50% of their active users log on to Facebook in any given day. Further, Facebook states the average user has 130 friends with whom they interact. (Facebook Statistics, 2011).

In the past, before the advent of Facebook, other social media sites were also popular: IM, Classmates, and MySpace (Skeels & Grudin, 2009). Additionally, it is noteworthy that the social media phenomenon is not isolated to America; for example, in Asia, people use Cyworld, QQ, or Friendster. In Brazil and India, people use Orkut, and in Spanish speaking countries, people use Hi5 (Skeels & Grudin, 2009). In Japan, Mixi is popular; LunarStorm is popular in Sweden;

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Grono in Poland; and Bebo is the platform used in the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Australia (Boyd & Ellison, 2007).

Previously, communication was mostly done via landline telephones, which afforded limited features. Additionally, people contacted others by sending written correspondence through postal services, but this medium has lost popularity because it is slower and less accessible than electronic mail.

Due to the ease of Internet connections and access in the workplace, organizations can enhance business operations and employee communications by having their own inter-office social media platforms. This offers employees the opportunity to share knowledge and collaborate with each other (Skeels & Grudin, 2009; Stafford & Mearns, 2009). Additionally, this can be utilized as a training tool allowing for flexibility of employees' time and location (Cox & Rethman, 2011; Ferreira & du Plessis, 2009). However, organizations are also facing the adverse side of social media, which is the distraction of employees while performing their jobs (Mastrangelo, Everton, & Jolton, 2006; Sherman 2009). Some of the concerns managers must deal with are the time employees spend with social media while ignoring their work duties (Wang & Kobsa, 2009), and the attention employees devote to their technical gadgets (Ferreira & du Plessis, 2009). Additionally, safety issues may arise due to the distraction social media presents to the employees (Sherman, 2009). The problem for managers is controlling excessive use of social media on the job. The purpose of this paper is to show how Adams' Equity Theory (1963) can be applied to assist managers in remedying the situation of social media distractions in the workplace.

### **Method**

Both authors became interested in investigating the phenomenon of social media use at the workplace, as a result of myriad casual observations on employees' behavior while using social media on a computer or a smart phone. However, these observations were not used to develop an empirical study because the goal of the authors was to investigate research that had already been done concerning social media use in the workplace. Adams' Equity theory was chosen to apply to the problem of social media distraction in the workplace, because we were interested in the way that balance could improve employees' attitudes toward work.

The authors did an extensive literature review using ERIC, JSTOR, Wilson Web, and Google Scholar databases. Only information addressing the use of social media in the workplace was used. Articles that were rejected were those that did not have *social media in the workplace*, or *work distraction* as their main focus. The keywords were *social media*, *productivity*, *work distraction*, *work behavior*, *work performance theories*, *workplace*, *social networking*, *Facebook*, *Twitter*, *LinkedIn*, *Two-factor Theory*, and *Agency Theory*. The investigation was further refined by investigating Adams' Equity Theory, and how the theory relates to employee perception of balance in the workplace.

### **Equity Theory**

To assist managers in controlling employee use of social media during working hours, managers need to be equipped with tools in the form of tested, applicable management theories. One theory that can be applied to the work environment is John Adams' Equity Theory (1963). Equity Theory is a justice theory that deals with relationships and the perceptions of the people in any given relationship. These relationships include those existing between employees and the organizations for which they work. Equity Theory focuses on what people perceive as fair or as unfair in terms of input and outcomes in a relationship. In a relationship, people will seek to achieve a good ratio between their inputs and outcomes (Adams, 1963). Distress can be caused

for individuals when they feel either under rewarded or over rewarded (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987). When applied to business relationships, inputs for employees could be things typically thought of as good employee behavior, such as arriving to work on time, completing jobs in a timely manner, respect for others, keeping job skills current, and staying focused on job activities during work time, while outcomes could be good wages, various job benefits, pleasant work environment, employee recognition, and opportunities for advancement. Adams (1963) draws from Festinger's Dissonance Theory to put forth two postulates to describe the effects of the imbalance of input and outcomes or inequity in a relationship:

- (a) The presence of inequity in Person creates tension in him. The tension is proportional to the magnitude of inequity present. (b) The tension created in Person will drive him to reduce it. The strength of the drive is proportional to the tension created; *ergo*, it is proportional to the magnitude of inequity present. (p. 427)

Adams (1963) presented eight ways individuals may strive to reduce inequity in any given relationship: (a) An individual may increase low inputs. (b) An individual may decrease high inputs. (c) An individual may increase outcomes. (d) An individual may decrease outcomes. (e) An individual may terminate the relationship. (f) An individual may distort their view of reality concerning their own inputs and outcomes. (g) An individual may distort their view of reality concerning the input and outcome of others. (h) An individual may pick other people to compare themselves to. The application of Adams' equity theory could be used to reduce the excessive use of social media in the workplace.

Adam's Equity Theory (1963) may appear basic, but is complicated in the business environment because many work elements are ambiguous. The perception of what constitutes inputs and what constitutes outcomes often varies among individuals (Huseman et al., 1987). An example of differing perceptions in input and outcome would be some individuals see doing complex tasks as input, while others see the same task as an outcome (Huseman et al., 1987). Due to different views of input and outcome, the task of rewarding employees for positive inputs can become difficult.

### **Reducing Use of Social Media in the Workplace**

Warnakula and Manickam (2010) found that 98.9% of the employees surveyed in Sri Lanka visited their social networks at the office. Employees are supposed to perform the tasks assigned to them, but often their electronic social connections become a means of distraction (Mastrangelo et al., 2006; Sherman, 2009) due to the "beeps" alerting them about a new Facebook post, or by a Tweet. Frequently, employees disengage with their duties to respond to the social media alerts. Warnakula and Manickam (2010) found that more than 60.8% of study participants said they checked Facebook at work. Furthermore, because employees may be focusing on responding to the social media, the tasks they are executing may be done inadequately, leading to productivity losses (Warnakula & Manickam, 2010) or safety issues (Sherman, 2009). However, part of the problem of excessive use of social media in the workplace may be that employees feel entitled to use this form of communication during work because they may believe it helps balance their job input with their job outcome (Adams, 1963). Using social media would be one way of reducing their input, if they perceive they put more into their jobs than they receive from it.

With the advent of smart phones which give people compact, portable social networking access (Pence, 2011), organizations can no longer reduce the use of social media by having avenues of social media inaccessible on workplace computers. Reducing social networking rests on organizations to control employee use of social media through use of management tactics.

Through the use of Equity Theory, managers may be able to control excessive use of social media by striving for more balance in employee input and outcome. It would be essential to link excessive social media use with a reduction in employee input and employee work productivity. For instance, managers can meet the challenge of controlling social media at work (a) during the hiring process, (b) at new employee orientations, (c) through employee recognition programs, (d) through the use of visual aids in the work environment, and (e) through ongoing training programs.

### **Hiring Process**

Hiring new employees whose job skills and personalities match well with available organizational positions is the goal of the hiring process; however, often a proper match does not occur. In interviews with 166 managers, Nowicki and Rosse (2002) found that managers often felt their hiring procedures were insufficient, because the interviews they gave to prospective employees were not meticulous enough. This type of interviewing often results in selecting someone with the wrong skill set or personality fit for a job. Furthermore, it is important that employees feel emotionally engaged in their work for them to experience job satisfaction (Lopez, Green, Carmody-Buhh, & Garza-Ortiz, 2011). Lack of proper fit of employees with jobs may stem from inadequate hiring processes, leading to an imbalance of inputs and outcomes for employees, creating tension which the employee will then aim to reduce (Adams, 1963). One way employees may strive to balance tension at work could be by accessing social media during their working hours. To achieve balance between employee input and outcome, managers who oversee hiring procedures could have better employee-job matches by instituting more rigorous interviewing procedures. Managers may benefit by using personality profiling tools such as the Myers-Briggs model or the Predictive Index System (Violette & Shields, 2007). Moreover, assessments of skill levels in specific areas would help with employee-job matches, so employees could be placed in a job that is not too difficult, but challenging enough to keep the employee engaged, thereby reducing the desire to access social media during work time.

### **Orientation**

Orientation is a time when new employees are typically introduced to an organization's policies and procedures. At this time, they also get acquainted with the organization's culture. Policies regulating employee use of social media during work hours should be given to new hires immediately. It is important that managers be explicit when presenting the organization's expectations, as employees will seek to do well, but need to clearly know what is expected of them (Gerry, 1997). Furthermore, employees should be introduced to the concept of job equity and its application to them. The organization should ensure that employees expect an equitable balance of outcome to their input. In other words, the manager should take time to explain to the new hires the essence of job performance in exchange for pay and benefits. Employees should be given venues of bringing up concerns about job equity, such as employee suggestions, mentorship, human resource contact information, and lines of communications with superiors. In addition, they should be informed that using social media for personal endeavors during work time is a factor that affects job balance.

### **Employee Recognition Programs**

Employee recognition programs can be a key factor in employees feeling their work input and outcome is equitable. These programs can include appreciation of employees who have consistently focused on work duties, instead of connecting to social media to distract them. Performance based recognition would reinforce the concept of equity because employee input of resisting social media and staying focused on work would receive the outcome of being

recognized, thus supplying balance in terms of equity. Performance based recognition gives intrinsic reward as it acknowledges the journey of the work, not just the destination (Hart, 2011). When the “journey of the work” is reinforced, the use of social media could be reduced because it does not fit in with the commitment employees should make toward work goals. Employee recognition can be done at meetings, through use of employee of the month programs, or organizational newsletters. Holistic approaches to recognition are designed to build good employee relationships and can influence the overall success of recognition programs (Hart, 2011).

### **Visual Aids**

Visual aids could be posted around the facilities to remind employees to resist the distraction of social media at work. Images are often easier to understand and more effective than written materials are (Turnbull, 2005). Moreover, when carefully used words accompany the visual displays, the images may be even more effective (Turnbull, 2005). The artifacts could be charts, posters, attractive slogans, or simple sketches. These materials could portray safety issues and liability issues that arise from distractions caused by use of social media. Additionally, the imagery could display information about revenue loss from reduced employee input. Moreover, the graphics could reinforce the company’s policies and guidelines for social media use and the consequences involved.

### **Training Programs**

Training programs can be essential in educating employees on the excessive use of social media for personal use in the workplace. During training programs, employees should be learning about organizational social media policies and the employees’ responsibility in complying with these policies. During training, the concept of equity theory and job input and outcome balance should be stressed. It would be important to connect excessive use of accessing social media with reduction in work input that would lead to employees experiencing reduced outcomes. In order for training to be effective, it should be engaging and inclusive of all personnel. Moreover, training should use a variety of media, and be repeated at regular intervals. To achieve engagement, training should be done in an interactive manner. During this time, employees could learn that although social media is a valuable medium of communication, excessive use can interfere with job performance or safety issues (Sherman, 2009). Inclusiveness is especially valuable in controlling excessive social media use. It is necessary for all people in the company to be cognizant of how misuse of social media can reduce job input and outcomes. Training which involves various media would help employees fully comprehend the input to outcome balance. Because people learn differently, using a variety of media for training would help ensure that everyone understands the issue. Role playing scenarios, addressing a variety of social media misuse, could help employees experience the problem of reduced employee input. For the results of training to be effective, the training must be ongoing because delivering a training session once to employees certainly could provide some results to managers; however, it could be more effective if organizations facilitate educational opportunities frequently to engage employees with policy and social media issues (Herder, 2009). Training about social media could be instrumental for managers to educate employees to engage with social networking activities in a responsible manner, and to respect the values and mission of the enterprise.

### **Discussion**

Controlling social media in the workplace has moved to the forefront of management issues as many executives view its use as a killer of productivity (Skeels & Grudin, 2009).



Companies should devote effort to having clear policies and guidelines in this matter, and explaining them to employees who would sign a form that reflects their understanding of the policies and guidelines (Bennett, 2010). Having a formal policy with the employee's signature acknowledging the information on the policy is important to avoid legal litigations that may arise when managers try to control the use of social media (Bennett, 2010). In addition, Cox and Rethman (2011) proposed that employers carefully consider including social media use in their employees' contracts.

When considering social media and its impact at the workplace, it is important for employees to have clear policies, and understand them throughout training that prevent waste of time (Stafford & Mearns, 2009), and productivity reduction for their organizations (Skeels & Grudin, 2009). The use of social media should be promoted as a working tool, for example employees could exchange information with other members about common interests, policies, services and products. There should be a safe and collaborative work environment where employees have an enriching learning experience (Stafford & Mearns, 2009); for instance, managers could educate their employees about having a professional online presence, and teach them the risks of posting inappropriate pictures or comments on social media. In line with Adams' Equity Theory (1963), if employees are cognizant of their valuable input toward the organizational goal, they will feel their contributions are essential for the company's success, and they will have satisfaction with the outcomes they experience.

Social media has changed people's lives in many ways; changes have reached out to organizations and the human interactions in them. Positive or negative behaviors influenced by social media need to find equilibrium; whether positive, to maximize the benefits generated through its utilization in different arenas, or the negative aspects in need of redirection. All angles of social media use need further empirical research, so new information concerning this phenomenon can be investigated for future application to the field of education that could contribute, preserve or enhance knowledge (Stafford & Mearns, 2009).

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## Self-Identified Capabilities and Experiences with Mathematics of Adults Who Have Taken a Developmental Algebra Course

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**Abstract:** Some were born to do math, some persevered past fearful environments, while others withdrew. In this qualitative study, adults describe life with algebra and the meaning they sought. For all, pedagogy was critical, either positively or negatively; and all found salvation in intervention.

They came from different backgrounds, different countries, and different schools, but all faced the same challenge – taking an algebra course at college. They were the five people who agreed to speak with me about their encounter with Algebra. For all of them, it was a stepping stone, a mandatory, though sometimes perceived as useless, stop on the way to something greater. One called it Elementary Algebra, some said College Algebra. Only one acknowledged it as “a remedial course.” Developmental (or remedial) education is defined as “courses or services provided for the purpose of helping underprepared college students attain their academic goals” (Boroch et al., 2007, p. 82). Thus, introductory algebra courses are considered developmental. Many times students do not get credit for them, as they merely provide the knowledge base for the trigonometry course, which itself is the pre-requisite for college math and calculus courses (Small, 2006). Over 52% of the students enrolled in math courses are in developmental math (CBMS Survey, 1992). Of these, over 80% never progress beyond remediation (Viadero, 2009) making algebra courses the gatekeeper determining who achieves higher-level jobs (Moses & Cobb, 2001), full citizenship, or a higher education (Stinson, 2004).

Many adults find themselves in this developmental population as they return to school (AACC, 2011, Fast facts). Along with taking greater responsibility for their own learning, adults are looking for meaningful education that is geared towards problem-solving (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998). Those that are part of the digital generation – using technology as a natural part of life (Duderstadt, 1997) - prefer participation and experimentation instead of the “sequential, pyramid approach of the traditional university curriculum” (p. 80). With the requirement for providing interactive learning experiences (AMATYC, 2006), there are new opportunities and technologies available today. Yet failure and attrition rates in developmental courses continue to hover at over 50% (Small, 2006). With their varied needs and their desire to be more in control of their education, adult students should be partners in identifying the problem and crafting the solution.

The purpose of this study was therefore to attempt to uncover areas of intervention that can be addressed in a future algebra course. In particular, I considered that gaining an understanding of how students think about math and their ability to do math and exploring how they think experiences with math are contributing to their view of math today may be places to start in identifying areas of intervention. My research questions were:

1. How do at least three developmental algebra students view their capabilities in mathematics?
2. What do they consider to be stopping them from excelling in algebra?

### **The Role of Experience in Attitudes Towards Mathematics**

Prior research has sought to identify how students perceive math instruction (Weinstein, 2004); what functionality students remember from high school (Karsenty, 2002); success factors for women (Oswald & Harvey, 2003); and the success of media use in developmental courses (Star, Johnston, & Petty, 2008). Oswald and Harvey (2003), in particular, found a relationship between subjective experiences and how students perform in mathematics. Some students see no purpose in pursuing a subject that requires no thinking skills – merely “a process of memorizing and applying” (Erickson et al., 2008, p. 207). Others find themselves in the unappealing position of information receivers. Amidst claims that “school curriculum did not fit the customary ways of thinking and acting of working class students” (p. 207), even new technologies and opportunities may not appeal to the diverse adult population.

### **Effects of Pedagogy on Attitudes Towards Mathematics**

Pedagogy can have positive and negative effects on students’ learning and retention. When an authority figure in school creates an environment that violates a core need such as being able to see the world as a benevolent place, “an enduring sense of diminished control” (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998, p. 8) is established. These negative attitudes develop into math anxiety because of how mathematics is presented (Geist, 2010). Especially because math is considered an academic discipline with a focus on performance (Turner et al., 2002), there is a certain disregard for learner individuality and a hostile, competitive environment can be created that fails to resonate with learners’ needs. The core need of making meaning of the world (Chorpita & Barlow, 1998) is also violated when students are taught formulas blindly with no understanding expected of how they will eventually be used. Adult learners, in particular, who are more proactive about their learning and seek education as solutions to daily life’s problems (Betz, 1978) would be alienated by this environment as they would be unable to make meaning of the classroom world. Teachers’ lack of interest and enthusiasm for teaching mathematics also affects students (Jackson & Leffingwell, 1999). Oswald and Harvey (2003) speak further of direct external discouragement and negative stereotypes that can be conveyed by teachers.

### **Method**

Qualitative research was appropriate for a study like this as I was attempting to trace the conditions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) that led to students’ current perceptions of mathematics and algebra in particular. By means of interviews I hoped to explore what students perceived as barriers to their excelling in algebra and to identify areas of intervention that could be addressed in future algebra courses.

### **The Participants**

Eight participants came by referral from friends and colleagues and had all experienced a remedial algebra course in college. One did not respond, and two indicated that they did not have time. Thus, I ended up with five participants from varied backgrounds and countries. Three were located in other states and towns thus the interviews were done using the computer so that they could be recorded. In keeping with the confidentiality promised the participants and after review and analysis of their responses, I have assigned a name to each that I feel reflects the participant’s assessment of himself or herself.

The first interview was with Need-A-Voice. She is currently pursuing her Bachelor’s in Business headed to an MBA. Born in Jamaica, she attended some high school in the US, but it was several years before she started college. She now works fulltime yet manages to take four to five courses each semester. Though math comes easy for her family, she feels she will never be “100% comfortable with it.” She says that as far back as she can remember, “I do know that I

did not like math ... my brain is not wired for math.” Now, since working with a tutor, she says: “it is getting better ... What is also helpful is to have someone, a live voice, speak through the material yeah. That is very helpful.” I have known her for about a year and have been tutoring her for the past two months. Tutoring sessions were all done by phone or computer and were mostly review the night before an exam or answering questions along the way. Although my knowing her may have placed me in a position of power (Linhart, 2003) or colored her reflection, I found that she spoke quite calmly without hesitation. In addition the interview was on the computer with only an audio feed so there were no visual cues to distract her. Since she was so accessible she was the only one involved in member checking.

Need-A-Teacher was the second participant. She was born in Guyana but attended high school in the US. She started college many years after graduation, stopped then started back in earnest. So “it was kind of helpful taking the remedial class ... before going on to the next class.” According to her “I never liked math, never did” but the secret to topping her class is: I had a good teacher ... I always tell people that if you don’t like math, a lot of times it is because you don’t have a good math teacher ... I always say that, if you don’t have a good math teacher then you are in trouble because math is not something that just comes naturally.

She worked fulltime through school, holds a Liberal Arts Associates, and is now pursuing a Bachelor’s in Accounting.

My third interview was with Self-Teacher. She started college about 5 years after graduating high school, earned an Associates in Managerial Finance and is now pursuing a Bachelor’s in Finance. It’s been 9 years since her algebra classes but for her “it was just a repeat of high school so they were easy.” She shared:

The classes I took were self-paced. I did not have a teacher, I did it part online and by myself. I just did self-math. Didn’t have a teacher, didn’t have a problem with it. ... Could contact the professor, but I never did.

She considers that “people’s brains are just different. I just happened to be one of the good ones.”

Science student, Need-To-See, at a four-year university, was my fourth interviewee. Fresh out of high school, she is pursuing a bachelor’s in biology. She always loved math, even getting A’s. Now, she misses the slower pace, longer lectures that explained every-thing and gave more examples, and says about the required time on the computer working homework with interactive tools: “I struggle learning math and reading all that information. I am more of a visual learner, I like seeing the instructor.” Her grade level has dropped to borderline B to C.

The last interviewee was See-Whole-Problem. He is just starting college but could not complete the algebra course as he could not afford all the online practice materials needed. For him, he needs to “stay focused on the whole problem, not just the numbers” but he considers that math is “something I can do.” I met him face-to-face at the place where he was volunteering. We sat at a concrete table outside and talked as he traced the outline of the geometric shapes of which he spoke and tapped the table deliberately for emphasis. He hopes to get a bachelor’s in physical education so that he can teach.

As the interviewer, I fulfilled a desire of mine to hear the students’ side of the algebra experience. I have been teaching online and ground-based developmental algebra courses for several years and am disturbed by the high failure rate. I have felt some responsibility lies with the student to make any effort necessary to understand and battle through the algebra haze. Yet mindful of my own subjectivity, I was able to empathize with Need-To-See as she spoke of a teacher who makes her feel she is holding up the class by asking questions during the limited

class time, with Need-A-Teacher as she spoke of professors who “may teach it [math] because they have a degree, but not specifically in math”, and with Need-A-Voice as she spoke of the need for patience and full explanations. During each interview I monitored myself waiting for the participant to speak, asked for more specifics and simply followed along as they spoke. However my experience in the math classroom caused me to recognize some of the advice and methods being given by See-Whole-Problem as having been drummed into him over the years: “when you get the formula and ... it comes to testing, you jot it down like real quick and you plug in the number and you know that you’re right about the formula, the whole problem becomes real easy.”

### **The Procedure**

The research design used was a basic interpretive case study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007) in which I interviewed participants then looked for the themes that emerged from their responses. The process began with the selection of the responsive interviewing model (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) tool because I felt a less formal environment would make participants more comfortable as they shared. The questions started out with “So how are you doing today?” and proceeded in the same open-ended vein to: “How do you consider that you use math outside of school” and “Sorry it was not a more memorable experience for you but tell me some more about that, how did it go?” Experiences were explored as to the format of the course; the environment for asking questions; the student-teacher, student-student and student-family relationships; and personal characteristics that contributed to success. Along the way, I reflected in my journal about possible anomalies and any changes needed in future interviews.

Each interview was taped and transcribed verbatim and then coded by reading through the transcript with no preconceived thought of what it would contain. Four clear themes emerged:

1. Attitude towards math such as self-concept, ability level and comfort level
2. Recognition of the need for intervention and how it was achieved
3. Keys to success / lack of success indicating the factors which contributed to poor performance or success
4. The role of pedagogy indicating factors in how the course was structured that contributed to poor performance or success from each interviewee’s perspective.

Within each of these themes were several subcategories that reflected the mix of feelings and experiences involved. For example an overall attitude towards math emerged that was not always in line with the specific feeling towards the most recent course. A member check with Need-A-Voice indicated agreement with the themes I chose.

I then collected the comments into one file putting responses for each theme together, then synthesized a comprehensive set of subcategories, and tabulated responses in summary form. These tables are shown in Figure 1. In this way I could compare responses and identify thoughts that were not shared. I then proceeded to look for similarities / differences in experiences and if their commonality or lack thereof could be explained by theory. Finally I made recommendation of how issues raised can be addressed in future algebra courses or researched further.

### **Findings**

Analysis of the themes portrayed some adults who, in line with the literature, desired to orchestrate their own learning, leaving repetition and memorization behind (Erickson et al., 2008), while surprisingly, the younger, digital generation who supposedly prefer participation

and experimentation (Duderstadt, 1997) were not so willing to let go of passive note-taking. Another surprising finding that emerged was the common reason attributed to retention issues.

### **Attitude toward Math**

I started analysis by looking at the participants' attitude towards math overall and the latest algebra course in particular. Quite an alarming trend was seen. Need-A-Voice always felt that "math is not my favorite subject," but went from a general "my focus is to learn the rules" to "when I started this class I became afraid." At the root of this fear was an instructor:

the pace picked up and there wasn't that care. It was literally you have, here are the formulas, go and learn these formulas and let's get going. And if you are like me who really are not comfortable with algebra, that was kind of the beginning of ugh this is not that good.

Need-To-See also experienced a downward attitude, from "I loved math back then, I did very, very good. I would always get A's" to "It is different now. I am comfortable but I think it is a lot of information for one semester. I don't like that I have to teach myself." When asked what was different about high school she indicated that

I did better because my teacher was a really good teacher [laugh] I understood everything. I was in an environment where I was comfortable and I had no problem raising my hand and asking questions. I took a lot of notes. It was done at a pace that was good for me.

In this course, students got 2 hours of lecture time per week (even though the syllabus called for 3); then they had to spend 3 hours in the lab working through homework exercises. On the computer they could click to get explanations and suggestions for solving or they could request help from the Learning Assistant in the lab. But the

Homework for the class does not really match the test. It's the same material but in the test they expect you to show your work but in the homework you don't have to. You don't have to graph certain things by hand [on the homework] so if you don't know how to do it [on the test] you get it wrong.

Once again the blame was laid at the teacher's door for not providing an environment conducive to consistency, explanations, examples, and questions.

Though being more willing to learn because she can see the benefit of algebra, Need-A-Teacher admitted that she never liked math. She admitted that

[Before] I couldn't understand like how  $x$  and  $y$  would be applied in your life. What does this have to do with y'know someone who wants to be a doctor or lawyer or teacher, that's how I thought, who wants to know algebra? What was the reason or purpose for algebra? That was always my initial thought in math.

However, it was a teacher who made a positive difference for her and today she insists that after an encounter with a "good math teacher ... I can see why it is being taught. But not all parts of the topics being taught apply to my life." As she went higher in math, she also saw the benefit of the earlier procedures.

Finally, Self-Teacher changed the one thing she felt needed changing: "the long lecture by teachers. But I changed that and take things online and I'm better at teaching myself."

However, she found helpful the videos posted by a teacher giving lectures on the tough parts of the finance course. So maybe Need-A-Teacher is right that the teacher can make or break the experience. However, there are no general rules that apply to everyone: while Need-A-Voice could use more vocal support, Need-To-See has to see the instructor as she considers herself a visual learner.

### **The Need for Intervention and What Worked**

All participants were willing to get help when they ran into problems. Two main interventions helped: (a) support from a tutor or the professor, and (b) increased relevance of the material that produced a mind change. For Need-A-Voice it translated to getting to “a place in my mind where once I understood perhaps not 100% but I thought a good, some, some, um, some understanding of what I was doing then my comfort level grew.” She went on to say that “certainly the confidence I am now feeling thanks to that tutor, it has caused me to be more, it has just caused me to be more confident.” Need-A-Teacher indicated that

After we started to apply stuff like even stuff like percentage, how to calculate percentage in your head, you do that all the time, like calculate the tip, you do the math in your head, you don't need a calculator at all times. So it became interesting when you started to apply it to your daily life.

She too experienced a mind change:

I think when you realize that the initial issue with math, a lot of people think they don't have to use it in their daily life and why do you need it. And I think when you realize and understand that you do need it in your daily life it does not matter what you do. If you want to progress in any other subject you still need math. So I think my realization of that is what helped me.

Review with a tutor helped Need-To-See while studying more helped See-Whole-Problem.

### **Keys to Success / Lack of Success**

There were several subcategories here on which at least four participants agreed and at least two agreed on the rest. The keys that resonated most were: (a) mind change through understanding; (b) real-world application; (c) pedagogy that showed care, patience, support, comfortable environment; (d) more time to cover material; and (e) improved study habits. Showing up less frequently was the need for (a) consistency, (b) fewer topics covered in longer time, and (c) more active support from a tutor or learning assistant.

Though all participants felt that pedagogy was important, each needed a different aspect of it. Need-A-Voice wanted verbal review of prior steps as new ones were taught:

You know almost like you are reminding somebody oh remember when we get to this part, this is what you do. You know, and then you go on. Instead of just jumping to the next step and the feeling is we should see what is needed, what you needed to do in order to get to that next step, and oh by the way, I am not going to go over that.

Need-A-Teacher felt that a good teacher was needed who had specialized in math. Also, she felt that the concepts should be taught starting from a younger age otherwise “if you don't start knowing multiplication and division and those basic things from young, you kind of, all this stuff that you are learning at an older age is compressed, so much information at a time, then math seems complicated.”

Self-Teacher felt that different explanations were key as there are “Just different ways of learning for different people.” Need-To-See wanted to see the instructor writing examples on the board so that she could take notes and “have [more] one-on-one time with the instructor.” See-Whole-Problem felt that how the professor taught it made him ask questions so the teacher would review. He needed to stay focused on the whole problem, not just the numbers. For him, being able to see math in everything from the football field to the basketball court made it so much more important for him to understand and want to ask questions.



Four of the participants mentioned retention issues. Need-A-Voice and Need-To-See indicated that the memorization, rote style of learning that obviated understanding made it hard to retain information. Need-A-Teacher indicated that there was just too much to learn, and Self-Teacher was just prepared to use Google to find whatever she could not remember.

All participants earmarked the lack of relevance to their degrees or their current level of learning as a source of frustration. For Need-A-Voice,

This is my third algebra class. I don't get the feeling that [relevance] is the focus for all of these classes I've taken, that's really not it. It's not you know, Being able to make a connection between it and business, not really. For me the majority of algebra for me is not reasoning, it is learning the rule and knowing when to apply it.

Having taken higher level math classes, Need-A-Teacher can finally see that algebra prepares you adequately for future math classes. She admitted that the realization of its relevance was the turning point for her. Using books that "had real world stuff in it so it showed you where you would use it so it all seemed relevant" worked really well for Self-Teacher. She still uses many of the concepts even though she has forgotten the names of the theorems. Need-To-See finds that "besides the whole interest and money thing I find everything else useless." See-Whole-Problem shows the extreme importance of making math relevant:

I would say yes because the word problems don't just go with math, it could be with the dimension of a circle of a square or a rectangle, e.g. a basketball court is rectangle in shape so if you measure the side you would come up with the whole outer part of the rectangle. Like the width how long it is, 12, the other side would be the same, 12, because it's the sides of a rectangle [measuring off] so when you reading a word problem, from an athletic point of view, it relates to math.

### **The Role of Pedagogy**

The experiences that were shared in this study mirror the positive and negative effects of pedagogy. Though none of the participants experienced direct discouragement nor negative stereotypes, there were characteristics of the classes themselves that contributed to fear leading to lack of comfort and confidence. This fear was felt by Need-A-Voice with a professor who would not take the time to explain and by Need-To-See who acknowledged the professor simply did not have enough time to explain everything thus expected all learner types to teach themselves using technology in the lab. Although the lab time may be working for some, there are some whose performance may be suffering. Need-A-Teacher noted that professors need to specialize in math if they will be teaching algebra while Self-Teacher found her own answers.

### **Implications**

This study set out to find the answers to questions about self-identified capabilities and barriers stopping students from excelling in algebra. The answers, some surprising, are still disheartening in that with all the technological advances, the affective and even cognitive needs of the students are still not being met. Barriers centered around two main areas: (a) pedagogy or how the instructor structured the course format and classroom, including technology use; and (b) the need for real-world application of algebraic material. This is in keeping with the learning style of adults which do not seem to resonate with "authoritative teaching, examinations which preclude original thinking, [or] rigid pedagogical formulae" (Lindeman, 1961, p. 10). More research is also needed on how technology and learning styles interact. Not only should the average passing grade increase but students who did well should be maintaining their grades.

For my teaching, the key takeaway from this study is to provide a classroom that appeals to a variety of learners and does not assume that everyone likes a technocentric environment.

The need for talking through math anxiety and comfort issues has been reinforced as has the need to provide constant oral and visual support. Classroom materials must be consistent and, above all, relevant, to each degree program. As Orr (2004) called for the “redesign of education itself” (p. 3), so an intervention is needed for students, and the very pedagogy of algebra.

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<b>Attitude toward Math</b>	<b>Need-A-Voice</b>	<b>Need-A-Teacher</b>	<b>Self-Teacher</b>	<b>Need-to-See</b>	<b>See-Whole-Problem</b>
Overall feeling	Not favorite	Not always applicable	Easy	Comfortable but harder now	
Specific to class	Fear began, brain not wired	Remedial but helpful, interesting	Repeat from high school	Don't like that I have to teach myself	Had no problem doing hw
Comfort level	Never will be 100%	More comfortable with more relevance	No problem with it	Comfortable but lot of info	
Self-concept of ability	Doesn't come easy	Does not come naturally	Brain clicked	Loved it, would encourage myself	Something I can do
Hope for improvement	It is getting better	After started to apply			Have to ask questions
Longevity	Did not like math	Never liked math	Always in advanced math	Loved math back then (hs)	
Tutoring	Need live voice speaking thru	Really good professor – did not feel lost		Tutor review before test	
Mind / habit change	More confidence, comfort level went up, understanding increased	Relevance Increased interest			Studied more
Mind / habit change	Understanding leading to comfort Not try to make sense, just rules	Self-motivated, understanding its use	Understand logic behind math	Comfortable environment	Understand step-by-step nature

<b>Attitude toward Math</b>	<b>Need-A-Voice</b>	<b>Need-A-Teacher</b>	<b>Self-Teacher</b>	<b>Need-to-See</b>	<b>See-Whole-Problem</b>
Application	Relevance, Practical application	Apply what is taught, Relevance	Understand Why, real-world applications		Real-world application
Pedagogy	Care in teaching, more detail, reminders	Patient, good, specialize in math, supportive	Different explanations, Lectures only for tougher stuff	Visual learner, lecture-driven, open to questions, review time	Focus on whole problem not just numbers
Consistency	Alignment between lecture and homework			Better match bet practice and exam formats	
More time	More time to cover material	Start learning earlier	Self-paced	More lecture time, less lab	
Meeting times	Shorter, more often			Fewer topics, more time	
Support	Tutor, live voice			LAs, 1-1 with prof	Answer questions.
Retention Issues	Memorization not sufficient	A lot to retain	Be prepared to research	Lower as went thru this course	
Study habits	Lot of studying	Lot of studying	Self-teacher	Review with tutor	Study, study
Pedagogy – positive	Understanding	Patient	Self-taught	Repetition, Lots of examples, by hand	Open to questions, class size, lots of examples
Pedagogy – negative	Here are the formulas, Memorization			Environment not conducive to questions, More lecture needed	No access to online component
Support	Can't be self-taught, no office hours	Did not need to use office hours, but available	Full support, did not use.	Full support, but have to teach myself	Lots of support
Session length	Too long	6-hours, No credit		Too short	
Content	Too much	A lot		Too much	
Personal	Marooned	Self-motivated, but paid high price	Self-motivated	Visual learner	Need to ask questions

Figure 1. Summary of coding themes and sub-categories

## The Literary Experience of Young Adults with Narratives: Towards Becoming a Person

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**Abstract:** The literary experience allows for subjectivities of individuals to flourish, a characteristic which makes this experience essential to readers' self-concept development. This paper gives an overview of the empirical and theoretical literature that relates the literary experience (including both narrative literature and narratives of the self) to readers' personal growth.

The literary discourse, narratives, and storytelling are discussed in the literature as acts of personal emancipation because it allows subjectivities of individuals to flourish. For instance, Alsup (2010) highlighted effects of the literary discourse on personal growth stating that "how one communicates determines the person one becomes" (p. 2). In his work, "From 'Psychology *in* Literature' to 'Psychology *is* Literature'," Moghaddam (2004) underlined the often overlooked link between psychology and literature. "Both psychology and literature adopt as one of their goals the better understanding of overt behavior and the mental life of individuals, and how these are related" (p. 505). Although Moghaddam (2004) views this relationship as literature and narrative selves serving the field of psychology and psychoanalysis, the shared theme of psychology and literature has the potential to serve individuals in their everyday-journey of life. The effect of literary experience in the process of personal growth is rarely investigated by either literary researchers (Rosenblatt, 1968) or psychologists (Jones, 2010). The purpose of this paper is to shed light on the possible contributions of literary experiences, both narrative literature and narratives of the self, to the processes of personal growth and identity exploration.

Rosenblatt (1968) emphasizes that the context of the literary experience is formed by human nature, human experience, and social influences. This characteristic makes the literary experience essential to readers' self-concept development at both individual and societal levels. This understanding of the relationship between literacy and identity development suggests the need to broaden the scope of education, especially language arts, from focusing merely on academic development to nurturing personal growth and human psychological development.

Alsup (2010) discusses the emotional, psychological, and intellectual impacts of the literary experience on adolescents as it relates to *identity* development. Erikson (1968), the first developmental psychoanalyst that looked at individuals' wellness as opposed to their illnesses, considers identity development for individuals as being composed of making sense of the world and making sense of themselves and who they are. In line with Erikson (1968), Alsup (2010) uses identity development to refer to development of selfhood and becoming a person.

The current paper gives an overview of the literature that discussed and researched individuals' personal growth in the context of narrative discourse guided by reading and discussing novels and stories. The focus of the literature is on adolescents and young adults, identified as being in the period of self-definition and identity-exploration by both developmental psychologists (e.g., Erikson, 1968) and narrative theorists (e.g., McAdams, Josselson, & Lieblich, 2006). Review of the literature revealed that there has been a focus on female identity development in English literature research as a result of an effort to counter the male-centered

view of identity development in psychology. For example, Erikson's (1968) theory of identity development was based on generalizations made from male-dominant samples. Therefore, research studies presented in this paper are limited to studies that mainly explored identity-exploration of adolescent female readers in their responses to the texts.

### **Narratives of the Self, Narrative Literature, and Identity-Exploration**

The importance of narratives in identity-formation and identity-transformation is highlighted by several literary and narrative theorists (Alsup, 2010; Giddens, 1991; Jones, 2010; Mead, 1934). Philosophies which suggest that *talking brings one into being* (Mead, 1934) or *the way a person communicates defines the person* (Alsup, 2010) imply that "having a self requires belonging in a community of speakers" (Jones, 2010, p. 549). That is, for self-realization one needs to be a speaker, a narrator of his or her life—past, present, future—and for personal growth, he or she needs to keep these narratives alive (Giddens, 1991).

Bruner (2002) equalizes the narrative with *telling* by stating that "self is a product of our telling" (p. 86) and "it is through narrative that we create and re-create selfhood" (p. 85). That is, stories of personal experiences define the person. Alsup (2010) argues that constructing narratives of the self is essential for identity development of young adults because it provides them with the potential to transform and guide their beliefs, attitudes, and behavior towards becoming better individuals.

While some theorists emphasize telling personal stories for developing self-realization, some other scholars focus on the effect of reading and interacting with narrative literature (e.g., novels, fictions, or short stories) on the process of developing self-realization. For instance, Jones (2010) argues that "the 'meaningful' engagement with fiction opens up spaces for the reflexivity of selfhood in different ways than does autobiographical telling" (p. 552). It is noteworthy that she considers all literary works "fictive impositions" (p. 550), distanced from the reality of the individual self. She argues that feelings evoked by narrative fictions could be different from feelings evoked by autobiographical story. The narrative fictions may stimulate the feeling of sorrow while the autobiographical story may raise the feelings of pride, guilt, and shame which are never evoked by a narrative fiction.

On the other hand, Rosenblatt's (1968) transactional theory conceptualizes the literary experience embedded transactions with both kinds of narratives (i.e., narrative literature and narratives of the self). She, however, argues this in different terms. She discusses literary experience as involving *aesthetic* reading of a literary work and reflecting on it by creating personal responses (i.e., narratives of the self). Literature is considered "a medium of exploration" (p. x) for individual readers, through which the readers explore their own nature with its potentialities for intellects and emotions, modify their perspectives, and find their direction in life. Research supports this speculation (Cherland & Edelsky, 1993; Stutler, 2011)

For instance, from the ethnography of seven 11- and 12-year-old girls, Cherland and Edelsky (1993) interpreted that reading fiction is a cultural experience and a social practice for the readers as they relate it to their individual lives and try to understand their place in the world. In another study (Stutler, 2011), ethnographic field methods were used with eight verbally gifted preadolescent girls to uncover the essences of the reading experience in the contexts of daily lives. The primary question that guided the research was: What meanings does the reading of fiction hold for eight verbally gifted sixth-grade girls? There were several sources of data including the researcher's theoretical and observational field notes, the girls' taped book discussions, parent interviews, and the girls' reading journals. The study indicated that the girls actually built intellectual and emotional awareness as they became engaged in challenging and

critical readings. More importantly, as the girls read and made meaning, they were involved in constructing their lives' purpose, a process that Stutler (2011) considered self-actualizing.

### **How May the Literary Experience Help Personal Growth?**

An effective transaction between the individual and narratives of any kind is more probable when the individual is involved first in an aesthetic reading or aesthetic experience with a narrative literature (i.e., becoming a *reader*) and later in a reflective discussion of narratives of the self, others, and literature (i.e., becoming a *speaker*). Aesthetic reading, according to Rosenblatt (1968), is to serve the present status of mind as it evokes emotions, intellects, and sensations along the way in the literary experience. The reader's focus is on the present aesthetic experience with the text. The interactive and dynamic nature of the aesthetic reading may have long-lasting influences on the reader's perspective, and it may eventually manifest itself as a change or growth in the manner and character of the person.

Such a literary experience engages the readers in "the self-questionings and self-realizations" (Rosenblatt, 1968, p. 6), while navigating through different lives, feelings, and insights, in other words, different identities. A study (Smith, 2001) of six 6<sup>th</sup>-grade girls participating in a 17-session book club showed that in their reading discussion, the girls demonstrated "the enticing sense of discovering new possibilities and qualities about themselves" (p. 13). They also illustrated the girls' navigation of contradictory identities throughout their responses. The emergence of several recurring identities, when responding to a literary experience, is addressed by Gee (2000), a psycholinguistic researcher. Gee (2000) underlined the importance of exploring *multiple* identities and reflecting on one's narratives of such explorations to constitute a never-fully-formed and ever-changing, but unique core identity.

Another study (Kuiken, et al., 2004) investigated the emergence of self-modifying feelings during literary reading. The readers made a narrative of their experience of three haunting passages in a short story. Their level of engagement with the text was measured by the Tellegen Absorption Scale (Tellegen, 1982). The readers who were highly involved in reading experience expressed more emotional fluctuations during reading and reported more perceptual shifts compared to other readers. The level of absorption in the reading experience that was correspondent with self-perceptual shifts, as reported, was the signifier of the emergence of self-modifying feelings.

One explanation for these findings is that high emotional engagement with the text makes the vicarious learning possible. Vicarious learning and experiences are the main contributions of literature to the life of young adults. Literary theorists such as Nell (1988) and Rosenblatt (1968) argue that the reader adds to her or his experiences by living through the text with its characters and with developmental and personal challenges they are involved in. The reader feels like she or he is the character in the text, grows while living through the text, and experiences new thoughts and emotions. Therefore, in addition to deriving some meanings from the text and projecting meanings from within onto the text, the reader is altered by reception of what is being read (Jones, 2010). This alternation could be in a positive or negative direction in terms of growth (Alsup, 2010). The argument is that alteration, if it is brought to consciousness, can be directed towards positive growth. The next section of the paper discusses how transaction with the text becomes a conscious experience when the literary experience evokes identification with the text and critical reflection on the text and on personal responses to the text.

### **Identification and Critical Reflection**

Kuiken and colleagues (2004) found that the emergence of self-modifying feelings from the literary experience was affected by personal identification with the literary work. If identity

is assumed to be a mixture of narratives of the self (Bruner, 2002), perceptual shifts in identity can be captured by witnessing the change in narratives of the self. The literary experience would alter narratives of the self only when eliciting *personal* meanings from it (Jones, 2010), or in other words, when identifying with it.

Relying on the premise that a *relevant* literary experience provides an inspiration for personal growth, Alsup (2010) views reading young adult literature for adolescents and young adults as “an opportunity for self-actualization” (p. 9). Identity theorists such as Kroger (1996) introduced adolescence as an age one is confronted with “the task of self-definition” (p. 18). Narrative theorists such as McAdams and colleagues (2006) argue that the self-definition process takes place in adolescents and young adults as individuals who gradually perceive their life experiences as definitive of their personal self. By the adolescent period, “we are able and motivated to conceive of our lives as full-fledged, integrative narratives of the self” (p. 3). Adolescents are willing to improve their life experiences to enhance their identities. Thus, any experience, including the literary experience, is an opportunity for self-enhancement.

In explaining the concept of identification, Woodward (2003) considers it a conscious process in which the reader aligns the self with thoughts, ideas, emotions, and experiences of others. Identification, in Woodward’s (2003) view, is not only about similarities but also about differences. The reader who identifies with a character in a novel can find out or choose to be similar to or differ from the character in one aspect or the other. That is, he or she critically explores and reflects upon himself or herself as related to the character and to the situation with which the character is faced. The idea that identification is a conscious process and that it involves a realization of similarities and differences expands the process of identification to include the concept of reflection.

Similarly, Bogdan (1992) views “identification [with the literature] as a form of psychological projection” (p. 94) which is developed through emotional involvement with the literary work and is crucial to understand literature. Bogdan (1992), however, argues that besides attachment and identification with the text, there is another essential component to the literary experience that makes it a meaningful practice. It is “critical detachment” (p. 94) from the literary work. Critical detachment allows the reader to step back from the aesthetic personal experience with the text and to explore artistic structure and meaning of the text, as well as its history and the ideology it is conveying. Critical reflection, or reflective response to the literature, is what makes a literacy experience an opportunity for personal growth. An example of reflective responses to the literature is witnessed in a one-year ethnography of five female readers from sixth-grade to seventh-grade (Finder, 1997). The study showed that adolescent girls used literacy to estimate, to control, and to moderate their growth towards adulthood or what they perceived as being a mature person.

### **Curricular and Instructional Environment That Foster Self-Expression of Identity**

The *if* that Alsup (2010) raised in her debate about the constructive or destructive effect of fiction on changing readers’ behavior—“. . . if the reader is properly educated” (p. 6)—is an important *if* to be considered in literacy experiences in all genres in all settings. English education today, facing the pressure of standardization and high-stake testing, results in teaching of literature only to transfer its factual and technical knowledge. To transform the atmosphere of English education to *properly* educate our youth, Wissman (2011) suggests constructing a counter-pedagogy in the literacy curriculum. She defines counter-pedagogy as creating an *other space*, a space different from the dominant, official space in schools—a “space created without the constraints of a mandated curriculum or standardized test and . . . informed by an



understanding of the connections among literacies, lived-experiences, and identities” (p. 405). Although Wissman’s (2011) work focused on women’s identity exploration, and especially on African Americans’ urgent need for an *other space* to express their lives and their identities, creating other spaces has implications for all students, even in regular classrooms.

In order to fulfill the developmental needs of the adolescents and young adults, these other spaces that are not constrained by scripted standards should meet certain instructional requirements. One of the requirements is the freedom of students’ thoughts and feelings. This freedom can be fostered by providing a psychologically safe environment for students (Rogers, 1951; Rosenblatt, 1968), an environment that make them feel respected and accepted. Providing a safe environment encourages freedom of self-expression.

Self-expressiveness also requires freedom of choice in the ways students may express themselves. Rosenblatt (1968) argues that imposing any form of stereotyped routines (e.g., summarizing or rephrasing) for self-expressive responses inhibits the spontaneous reaction to the text. Forcing one single style of response over the others (whether it is a summary essay or creative painting) interferes with students’ self-exploration, because it constrains their thoughts and emotions in a pre-specified format, which is disruptive to an aesthetic and authentic experience with the text.

The first impression taken from the text is critical, but not sufficient, for a meaningful literary experience. It only prepares the ground to start a meaningful literary experience that leads to intellectual and emotional personal growth. The teacher should follow students’ personal expressions with a critical discussion that is reflective and enlightening. Critical reflection through group discussion allows students to listen to alternative views and analyze things from different perspectives. Students realize how their predispositions judge the text as well as the world. Through critical reflection, students eventually understand where their assumptions come from and how their presumptions affect their thinking and may hinder their ability to see other possibilities (Rosenblatt, 1968). The literary experience that has met all of these requirements is a process of self-realization and self-exploration and can lead to positive growth.

### **Group Discussions**

Research found that book discussion groups that allow for peer interaction (Raphael, Kehus & Damphousse, 2001), building relationship with teachers (Chandler, 1997), and readers’ physical movement by an artistic representation of what is read (Raphael, et al., 2001) are promising in meeting developmental needs of adolescents. Book discussion groups make reading a social experience that is being pursued through a meaningful discourse. With a consideration of these criteria, Atkins (2011) studied the identity exploration of five adolescent girls within the literacy experience. She used different sources of data, including semi-structured interviews prior to and after the 8-week literary experience, the readers’ weekly response journals, field notes and transcripts of the weekly book discussions, and the researcher’s reflective journal. The study involved participants in an experience of identity exploration through critical responses to literature while narrating their self-identities and exploring others’ identities.

Considering identity exploration as the core of reading discussions, Atkins (2011) characterized successful reading discussions as being rich in opportunities for engagement, for making connection with students, for eliciting personal meanings, and for exploring and expressing self-identities. Such successful discussions happen only if teachers manage the attitudinal environment of the discussions appropriately (Atkins, 2011)—including their own

attitude and that of their students—to be constructive, not destructive, for individuals’ self-expressions and self-reflections. That is, teachers need to be good listeners whom the student readers can trust. The student readers should feel secure that their self-expressions will not be received wrongly by their teachers and they will not be blamed or judged upon expressing themselves. In addition, teachers need to help students find a way to discuss their perspectives in an effective and conducive manner in which they respect others’ opinions and give room to everybody to express and explore their self-identities and identities. Defining and managing their environment gives student readers a sense of autonomy and control that is essential for a meaningful self-exploration of their identities.

### Conclusion

Personal identity is a collection of different narratives of the self (Bruner, 2002), created by the person but influenced by other people and the individual’s experiences, including the literary experience. The creation of narratives of the self can be evoked through the experience of aesthetic reading when we face new emotions, new insights, new worlds, and different identities. Both reading narrative literature and telling one’s own story have the potential to alter the narratives of the self. In fact, becoming a *reader* and a *speaker* are both important roles to play in completing the process of self-realization and self-transformation in a literary experience.

The more the reader identifies with the character in terms of age, race and ethnicity, and the more the reader resonates with the culture presented within the literature, the more she or he is able to make use of the literary experience to enhance her or his personal life. Young adult literature, literature which is written specifically for and about adolescents and young adults, provides a great opportunity for the positive vicarious learning for our youth. Yet, in order for learning to occur in the direction of growth, adults need to nurture and guide the readers’ personal responses to the text. Encouraging young readers of literature to respond personally and aesthetically to the text is the first step in the learning experience. The next step is guiding these responses appropriately for students to become critical rather than merely empathetic.

Our schools need to be transformed to be places for personal growth. One step towards this goal is to create *other spaces* by incorporating meaningful literary practices in the language arts curriculum, practices that meet the requirements of an *other* space. Good literary practices have the power to interrupt, appropriate, and transform the already existing, ineffective and non-conducive spaces (hooks, 1990) to spaces for personal flourishing for women, people of colors, and all human beings. The literacy experience that allows for discussion and reflection on both narrative literature and narratives of the self in a psychologically safe and professionally guided environment is a personally transformative experience.

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## The Use of Literature to Combat Bullying

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**Abstract:** Bullying is a pervasive phenomenon. This study examined what teachers think encourages bullying among young people, and what effects teachers believe reader response strategies would have on their students. The study found teachers implementing reader response strategies in discussing literature were able to influence behavior in students and reduce bullying.

Bullying is a pervasive phenomenon in our society that negatively affects today's youth. Research on the phenomena of bullying is relatively new and has left many holes for educators who seek assistance with dealing with these behaviors (Mishna, Scarcello, Pepler, & Wiener, 2005; Olweus, 2003). Teachers are providers of counseling, serve as surrogate parents and are role models for students (Cornell, 2006; Mishna et al., 2005). As a result, teachers are in a unique position to observe bullying and model how students should handle bullying (Jenson, Dieterich, Brisson, Bender, & Powell, 2010). It is because of this power of influence that teachers have in terms of molding students' thoughts and behaviors that it is imperative to be informed of the increasing prevalence and danger of bullying (Jenson et al., 2010; Mishna et al., 2005). Considering these circumstances, knowledge of the bullying phenomenon will equip teachers with effective interventions (Olweus, 2003). Literature is a powerful tool that teachers can utilize as a means to model positive behaviors to students and deter bullying (Hayakawa, 1939; Rosenblatt, 1968). Using effective reader response interventions will assist in stopping the bullying cycle whenever teachers are witnesses to such actions (Jenson et al., 2010; Olweus, 2003). Additionally, teachers will be able to educate other teachers on how to use reader response interventions to stop the bullying cycle (Mishna et al., 2005; Naylor, Helen, Cossin, de Bettencourt, & Lemme, 2006).

### Purpose of the Study

According to Moustakas (1994), "the first challenge of the researcher, in preparing to conduct a phenomenological investigation, is to arrive at a topic and question that have both social meaning and personal significance" (p. 104). We each desired to have a better understanding of this bullying phenomenon. With literature being at the core of our investigation, we decided to interview language arts teachers for our study. We probed for experiences the individual teachers have had with bullying, and what each teacher believed encouraged bullying behaviors. Additionally, we explored the teachers' experiences with teaching literature that included bullying themes. This study examined the following questions: (a) How do teachers define bullying? (b) What do teachers think encourages bullying among young people? (c) What effect do teachers believe that using reader response strategies would have on their students?

### Method

This study was driven by the theoretical perspective of phenomenology. As phenomenologists, we gathered data through "first-person reports of life experiences" (Moustakas, 1994, p. 84). Prominent in the field of phenomenology, Van Manen (1990) explains that a phenomenological interview is conducted in order to explore and gather "experiential narrative material that may serve as a resource for developing a richer and deeper understanding

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of a human phenomenon” (p. 66). It is this deeper and richer understanding that Bogdan and Biklen (2007) explain that phenomenologists “attempt to understand the meaning of events and interactions of ordinary people in particular situations” (p. 25). In this study, we interviewed teachers and asked them questions that pertained to their personal experiences with bullying in their classroom.

### **Description of the Researchers**

Annika, Ilisa and Olga are K-12 classroom teachers. They witness bullying in their classrooms. Annika is a social studies teacher. Ilisa is a language arts teacher who is interested in using literature to combat bullying. Olga is an elementary teacher. Kurt has two school-age children who are witnesses to bullying in their schools.

### **Description of Participants and Settings**

The researchers interviewed four language arts teachers. Pseudonyms were used for the identification of the participants. L.F. was a first year reading/language arts teacher at a charter middle school in South Florida. She primarily taught eighth grade. Amanda was a seventh grade language arts teacher at a middle school located in an urban area in South Florida. She has taught for eight years. Ana was a reading/language arts elementary school teacher in a suburban area of a large city in South Florida, who taught for four years. Kendra was an eighth grade language arts teacher at a charter school in South Florida, where she taught for eight years.

### **Data Collection**

According to Merriam (2002b), there are two essential components to the phenomenological methodology: (a) the research focuses on direct experiences and the meaning that the participant derives from that lived experience, and (b) the researchers must bracket, or put aside, their personal thoughts and feelings about the subject. As part of monitoring our subjectivity, as researchers, we each reflected on our definitions of bullying in order to bracket our thoughts prior to beginning the study. Moustakas (1994) refers to bracketing as *Epoche*: “In the *Epoche*, we set aside our prejudgments, biases, and preconceived ideas of things” (p. 85). In order to assist us with bracketing, we kept reflective journals (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

By writing and discussing our definitions and understandings of bullying, we thought reflectively about the phenomena. This allowed us to bracket our thoughts prior to conducting the interviews (Moustakas, 1994). Maintaining reflective journals allowed us to continuously be mindful of our personal connections with the bullying phenomena (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

An additional application of the reflection journal was to enhance the trustworthiness of our study (Merriam, 2002a). As part of our groups’ process for collecting data and maintaining reflection journals, we frequently engaged in peer review (Merriam, 2002a). The researchers used purposeful sampling at multiple sites (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

### **Interviews**

Bogdan and Biklen (2007) write, “Good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal the respondents’ perspectives” (p. 104). The additional component of the use of literature in the classroom led us to interview language arts teachers. We concluded that the language arts teachers’ knowledge base and familiarity with the literature in addition to hands-on experience with bullying would vastly improve our study’s credibility (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Annika, Ilisa and Olga each selected a language arts teacher personally known to them. Kurt was introduced to a language arts teacher to conduct the interview. In accordance with phenomenological methods, we used long interviews to collect data (Moustakas, 1994). In order to prepare for the interviews, we developed a series of questions aimed at inducing the participant to explain fully his/her experiences with bullying (Moustakas, 1994).

## Data Analysis

Merriam (2002a) asserts that a component of trustworthiness is conducting an ethical study. The participants in the study were given full disclosure as to the scope and sequence. All participants were offered confidentiality. All of the participants consented to these conditions. As part of the research process for interpreting data we frequently engaged in peer review. We discussed our findings and interpretations from the interviews and participant observation during bi-weekly meetings and through e-mail. Additionally, Annika and Olga used member checking to address trustworthiness.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The researchers coded the transcripts by identifying specific statements, and clustering similar statements. The clusters were collapsed under larger themes. The researchers used the constant comparative method to analyze the transcripts. Merriam (2002a) describes internal validity as the relationship that one's findings has with reality. We infused the research findings of other studies to evidence our own study's connection to the real world. To augment our trustworthiness, we have included "use of rich, thick description" and direct quotes from our interviews and observations (Merriam, 2002a, p. 30).

## Findings

Based on our constant comparative analysis the following themes emerged: (a) defining bullying; (b) what encourages bullying; and (c) the influence of reader response strategies on behavior.

### Defining Bullying

Kendra's definition of bullying was the most abstract. Kendra felt that bullying reminded her of a statement "freedom stops where someone else's begins" (personal communication, June 1, 2011). She explained that this meant once students felt that they were in a situation where they had to ask another student to stop their behavior, that this was bullying (personal communication, June 1, 2011). Mishna et al. (2005) found that one of the major issues concerning teachers and bullying was that they only had a general idea of what it was. Usually bullying definitions include a component where the victim was abused through either physical or verbal actions (Andreou & Bonoti, 2010; Jensen et al., 2010; Mishna et al., 2005).

The other participants described aspects of both physical and verbal abuses in bullying. L.F. stated bullying was "the act of one person tormenting, either physically or verbally another student or person" (personal communication, June 10, 2011). Amanda described several examples of bullying which included physical and verbal acts (personal communication, June 6, 2011). An example that Amanda gave for verbal bullying was for one student to tell another "Oh you live in the triangle" which is considered a bad area to live in (personal communication, June 6, 2011). Studies suggest that although verbal and physical assaults are harmful, an aspect of bullying that is seen as possibly the most psychologically damaging is isolation (Owens, Slee, & Shute, 2000).

Both Ana and Amanda included isolation in their definitions. Ana expressed isolation as a girl saying to another, "I'm not her friend" (personal communication, June 9, 2011). Amanda stated, "There have been cases where a student or two were not included in a group" (personal communication, June 6, 2011). Adler and Adler (1995) write of the dramatic effects that isolation has on students: "Being ejected from the clique thus represented the ultimate form of exclusion, carrying severe consequences for individuals' social lives, appearance, and identity" (p. 157). Owens et al. (2000) explain that isolation causes "loss of self-esteem, anxiety, loss of self-confidence and fear for future relationships" (p. 366). Kendra, L.F., and Amanda all

included in their definitions that bullying caused psychological harm. Isolation is an implementation of power imbalance (Naylor et al., 2006).

Both L.F. and Amanda brought up the discussion of power in bullying. L.F. explained it as “it’s like to put the other person in place, you know, like I’m stronger than you, so you know, stay in your place” (personal communication, June 10, 2011). Amanda explained this in terms of “taking advantage of other students, like always asking for a pencil and paper, materials from a student that they know is not going to say no ‘cause they are intimidated” (personal communication, June 6, 2011).

### **What Encourages Bullying**

Part of understanding how the teachers try to deter bullying required an understanding of what they believe encourages bullying or the reasons why individuals bully (Mishna et al., 2005; Naylor et al., 2006). Both Ana and Amanda believed that personal vulnerability is part of the reason why individuals bully. Ana states, “Bullies usually feel vulnerable by things that would make them different. They do not want anybody to find out about certain things because they, themselves are afraid to be bullied” (personal communication, June 9, 2011). Similarly, Amanda states, “They bully because they don’t want to seem weak so they bully others to seem like they’re stronger” (personal communication, June 6, 2011). Amanda believed the bully is trying to seem strong, while Ana described the individual as needing to be the bully instead of the victim. According to Ana, a bully’s vulnerability can manifest into indirect aggressive behaviors towards an individual. Kendra and L.F., on the other hand, focused on the social context as a component that encourages or deters bullying. For example, L.F. discussed the impact media has on encouraging bullying, while Kendra described how role models could deter bullying in the social context.

### **The Influence of Reader Response Strategies on Behavior**

Reader response emphasizes that students should be able to make personal connections with the text in such a way that they can describe how the literature has altered them in some fundamental way (Rosenblatt, 1968). The reader relates to the text on a personal level and is able to enter the text (Bakhtin, 2004; Fish, 1980; Hayakawa, 1939; Rosenblatt, 1968). The reader then becomes immersed in the story and everything in that individual’s life that has come before the text is brought to the forefront for understanding (Bakhtin, 2004; Rosenblatt, 1968; 1978). Simultaneously, all prior knowledge is applied to the unfamiliar text to formulate predictions and inferences based on the new knowledge (Bakhtin, 2004; Rosenblatt, 1968; 1978; Smith & Sharp, 1994).

When asked about how she felt literature can influence students, Kendra stated:  
It influences them especially if they can, um relate to the character. So I would say, stories like *Raymond’s Run* you know where the child is in middle school and also stories like um, *The Diary of Anne Frank*, where they can relate to it because once they find out that she died at their age, they relate to that. It can influence them a lot. *Flowers for Algernon*, even though the main character is 37 years old, they still relate to it because his intelligence was lower than theirs. So because of that they sympathize. (personal communication, June 1, 2011)

Kendra explained that when the students first started reading *Raymond’s Run*, they laughed and mocked the main character’s brother. As the students began to read how devastated the main character felt when others deride her brother, they stopped laughing. The students said that they began to understand the main character and the negative effects of bullying. The students

expressed a newfound realization about how to treat individuals and discussed how they would act in the future.

When L.F. was asked how she felt the literature can influence students, she stated, “they have to relate to it” (personal communication, June 10, 2011). She furthered her explanation by discussing a book *The Bully*, and how the content emphasizes that if someone is bigger than you, they are not necessarily overpowering or dominant. She went on to state that, “it was good because it gave them something to reflect [on], that even though you go down a path you can always change your mind and switch” (personal communication, June 10, 2011). Both of these educators described in action what Rosenblatt (1968, 1978) discusses in reader response theory.

Amanda also believed that there was a relationship between the reader and the text. The author can try to persuade the reader. Amanda stated:

It depends on the writer’s goal. The writer can use all kinds of things to influence you one way or another. Persuasive techniques, they use them to make you feel one way or another way, or to convince you to believe one thing over another. So yeah everything you read influences you. (personal communication, June 6, 2011)

Amanda used several novels that contain the theme of bullying, and the examples of bullying in the books were varied. She has used the novels *Touching Spirit Bear*, *Roll of Thunder Hear My Cry*, *The Devil’s Arithmetic*, and *The Witch of Blackbird Pond* in order to make an impact on students’ behavior. Amanda discussed the bullying in each book, and had her students identify positive and negative behaviors. Additionally, Amanda had the students reflect on how they could act in the future as a result of the lessons in the novels. Amanda states, “There is a slight change for a limited time. It’s not something permanent with them” (personal communication, June 6, 2011). However, Amanda explained that students would describe their behavior in terms of a class novel. Amanda expounds on their behavioral interactions as, “Something of what’s going on here that they’ll reference back to the book and make a connection between, you know something they learned, you know, as far as behavior” (personal communication, June 6, 2011). According to Smith and Sharp (1994), what Amanda explained is the students’ process of creating meaning from the story by internalizing the lessons they learned from the literature. Jenson et al. (2010) found that when interventions put into place to combat bullying were stopped, some aggressive bullying behaviors resurfaced. Assisting students with the development of morality is an ongoing process (Jenson et al., 2010).

When Ana was asked about using text to assist with bullying, she stated, “I do use books that have a problem solution theme, you know realistic fiction. We talk about how the people involved feel and how we would deal with it” (personal communication, June 9, 2011). In accordance with reader response, Ana seeks to use lessons within literature to alter students’ behavior. When asked how the students respond to these experiences, Ana noted similarly to Amanda’s idea that there is a slight change when the students finish a novel: “They easily find the problem and give good suggestions on what the person should do” (personal communication, June 6, 2011).

### **Implications**

Our study concurred with similar studies that showed teachers’ definitions vary depending upon their personal understanding of the phenomenon (Mishna et al., 2005; Naylor et al., 2006). Kendra defined bullying as when “your freedom stops [and] where someone else’s begins” (personal communication, June 1, 2011). Both L.F. and Ana discussed how bullying involved teasing; however, L.F. included the term tormenting. Amanda’s definition incorporated similar ideas of the previous teachers: “Bullying is using power to make someone else feel bad,



or scared, or I guess left out” (personal communication, June 6, 2011). Ana and L.F. experienced bullying as children and now incorporate role playing techniques into their classrooms in order to deter bullying.

The teachers perceived that bullying was present in their classroom. Since the teacher could be the bridge that moves conflict to resolution, it was important for the teacher to understand what constitutes bullying, the effects of bullying, and strategies for deterring bullying. The interviewees agreed with Ana’s statement that “the fact that there is not anything effective in place for dealing with bullying...essentially promotes bullying” (personal communication, June 9, 2011). An obvious connection between action and consequence can be attributed to this. In the absence of punishment, there is nothing to deter the bully from continuing the behavior. What Ana described was a feeling shared among teachers. In the Mishna et al. (2005) study, teachers reported feeling distressed after reporting bullying to administration and receiving assistance. Ana stated, “Until there is an effective method to deal with bullying, the victim of bullying is the one who has to figure out how to end their bullying” (personal communication, June 9, 2011). This finding is in agreement with Olweus’ (2003) Bullying Cycle, which depicts that if no intervention takes place, the bullying will continue.

Another result of this study indicated that the use of literature in addressing the topic of bullying needs to be at a level that students can understand and relate to. Smith and Sharp (1994) explain that literature can cause one to become aware of bullying and empathize with the victim. Through literature, there is a connection that can be made between the reader and the text which enables the composition to affect the reader’s thoughts, feelings and beliefs in a truly personal way (Barthes, 1975; Rosenblatt, 1968; 1978). It is believed that this connection enables the reader to open his/her mind to new ideas (Bahktin, 1994; Barthes, 1999; Fish, 1980; Hayakawa, 1939; 1990; Rosenblatt, 1968; 1978 ;). It is during this process of the fusion between the reader and the text when meaning is constructed (Bahktin, 1994; Barthes, 1999; Fish, 1980; Hayakawa, 1939; Rosenblatt, 1978). Bahktin (2004) and Rosenblatt (1968) expressed the text is only given life through its usage by a reader within a new text. It is the act of responding to a text that is the catalyst for understanding and attainment of information (Bahktin, 2004).

Most poignant to the pedagogy of language arts is that it imparts knowledge that is more precisely attained through reading rather than experiences (Hayakawa, 1939). Bakhtin (2004) drove this concept further by including a moral component. He asserted that there is a moral obligation to form these bonds between themselves and the experiences they share with the text (Bakhtin, 2004). As his later philosophical essays projected the novel as being the most significant form of literature, it is not difficult to make a connection between those assertions and the use of the novel as text in the classroom (Bakhtin, 2004). Additionally, Bakhtin (2004) expressed that there is a true intensity between the reader and the text such that an alteration in time and space occurs. Important in this is that students have the flexibility to discuss scenarios that are salient to them and have an outlet where they can identify options to resolve unique situations. Even though Ana believed she did not use literature to assist with bullying, she did note that she used realistic fiction that contains problems that her students can relate to and use as a learning tool. Kendra and L.F. also used the term “relate” when asked about the possible influences of literature. Amanda used the term “influences” when discussing the incorporation of literature. Kendra, L.F., and Amanda were able to provide specific titles of literature used that helps them deter bullying in the classroom.

### Conclusion

This study illustrates teachers' need to recognize their tremendous influence on students' cognitive developmental progress. They also should acknowledge that they are seen not just as a mere disseminator of information, but as confidants and persons of authority (Mishna et al., 2005). While they are in the classroom, students look to their teachers for guidance on how to act, think, feel, believe, and react to the world around them. They test boundaries and assess limitations based on what their teachers tell them and what their expectations are for them. When teachers ignore, or cannot identify bullying behaviors, the victimization of the student continues and heightens in intensity. It also becomes increasingly psychologically damaging to the student.

When teachers have a solid understanding of the phenomenon of bullying, they implement strategies within their classroom that create a safe environment for all students (Mishna et al., 2005; Olweus, 2003). They also understand that maintaining an environment that nurtures strong social values and community is an ongoing process. L.F., Ana, Amanda and Kendra's clearly defined behavior expectations for their classrooms provide environments that deter bullying and foster positive interpersonal relationships among students. They are also able to identify bullying when it happens and can stop it from continuing.

When teachers utilize literature with bullying themes in their classroom, students learn the social constructs of empathy and compassion for others through their relationship to the literature. The literature models positive behaviors in ways that students are able to relate to, internalize, and apply this new knowledge in their everyday lives. The same way that people learn behaviors in general is applied to teaching students how not to be bullies. This process needs to be continuous and repeated in order for the students to maintain the positive social behaviors. The student needs to be exposed to a multitude of texts. They have to constantly be engaged in conversations about literature that includes situations that explicitly model for them appropriate behaviors so they can adopt the behaviors for themselves and apply them to their lives. In essence, using literature that models appropriate behaviors as a vehicle to drive students' cognitive development will transform students into positive contributors to society.

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## **Creating a Culture of Thinking that Cultivates the Perspective-Taking Disposition**

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**Abstract:** Through action research, the researchers engaged a group of third grade children in a project that offered a variety of learning activities to develop the children's perspective-taking ability. As a result the teachers found a significant increase in the emotional connection of the students to the characters in the literature.

*I know what it means to feel what someone else is feeling. I just pop out my heart and pop in theirs. This is empathy and it connects me to the people in my life and to the characters in the stories I read.*

*Robert, Age 8*

Preparing our students to participate fully in today and tomorrow's world demands that we develop their global competence. In order to do this, we must cultivate within our students a disposition of understanding and compassion and nurture their ability to recognize multiple perspectives. Educating for global competence presents educators with important challenges, most importantly, helping students to break through their own cultural perspective and genuinely understand people from different contexts. In order for our students to understand their role as global citizens, they need to be able to perceive, know about, and care about the point of view of themselves and of other citizens.

Learning for global citizenship is a priority and responsibility that educators have to address. Consequently, it is imperative to keep in perspective the goals for children's social and moral development in order to nurture understandings that ensure lifelong learning experiences. Changes in students thinking will happen only when they understand the underlying causes and effects of good citizenship and social responsibility.

### **Theoretical Background**

Empathy and cultural sensitivity develop early in life when children are exposed to and afforded the opportunity to understand global issues that affect them and other people in their homes, schools, community, and world. Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1986) states that the child's environment on development and learning must be broadened to understand the environments where children live. His theory highlights a child's development within the context of the system of relationships that form this environment. It is also true that children learn best about the social world in meaningful contexts and, in this case, understanding self and family as well as understanding people and society. Immordino-Yang and Damasio's (2007) research into the physiological systems that support social interaction and emotion, points out the important role of culture (the culture of our classrooms) in shaping neural and behavioral responses such as admiration and awe. It has been confirmed that social and moral thought emerge as functions of the interactions between the body and the mind in social and cultural

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contexts. The implications of this mind brain research on education require that we address what it means to be a “good person” and a “good citizen” Gardner (2007). As educators we must listen to the advice of Howard Gardner (2011), and model these positive virtues ourselves, while cultivating them in our students. In order to accomplish this goal, we need to cultivate within our students a disposition of understanding and compassion. We need to nurture their ability to recognize multiple perspectives so that they can develop their own ethical compasses to navigate by as they engage the world.

Scholars (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008; Ritchhart et al., 2011) state that when teachers make thinking visible, they not only have access to students understanding, but also to how they understand concepts. A growing body of evidence supports the efficacy of deliberately nurturing children’s thinking abilities and encouraging their understanding of what thinking is (Perkins, 1992; Ritchhart et al., 2009; Salmon & Lucas, 2011).

For Perkins (1992) learning is a consequence of thinking, thus it is important to develop thinking dispositions in children in a way that helps them to be more flexible in the way they think about themselves and about others. Social mediation provides children with meaningful and appropriate cognitive and language experiences (Vygotsky, 1978). One way of implementing this theory is through the implementation of the Visible Thinking Routines (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008) within the social context of a classroom culture.

The ability to take perspectives and to see things from different angles is becoming increasingly important as our world becomes even more globalized. Standards of good citizenship and social awareness are developed when children are taught to understand the “why” and “how” to become effective change agents in society. Educating for global competence presents educators with important challenges, in particular helping students break through their own cultural perspective and genuinely understand the perspectives of people from different contexts. In order to do this, we must cultivate in our students a disposition of understanding and compassion and nurture their ability to recognize multiple perspectives, thus enabling them to become inquisitive and proactive (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). While global competence is best seen as an integrated outlook on the world and not a collection of skills, as we attempt to educate our students for global competence, it becomes necessary to start by addressing the second global competency: recognizing perspectives at the onset. The disposition to recognizing perspectives is a prerequisite to understanding and applying the other three global competencies (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011): (a) investigating the world beyond our immediate environment, (b) communicating ideas effectively with diverse audiences, and (c) taking actions to improve conditions. Therefore, it is essential that we start with cultivating the perspective taking disposition so that are students are capable of engaging effectively with the other three global competencies.

Immordino-Yang’s (2007) research supports integrating and respecting the power that emotion can yield toward greater understanding. By looking to our museum counterparts and weaving practices unique to the museum experience, we have been able to expose our students to additional tools that complement our use of Visible Thinking Routines (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008) and better assess our students’ progress and development toward thinking.

Knowing oneself, or being aware of one’s platform, is a necessary element toward developing the skill of perspective taking or the ability to discern a point of view which may be foreign/different from one’s personal viewpoint. This is an essential first step toward cultivating in our students a disposition of understanding and compassion that nurtures their ability to recognize multiple perspectives.

### **Ongoing Action Research Study**

This is an ongoing action research study that includes a pilot enrichment course as a follow-up to the initial action research project. Action research is a powerful tool to help teachers become more conscious of their practices and realize how their practice reveals who they are (Salmon, 2010b). As a natural extension and follow up to the initial study, the authors created an after-school enrichment class aptly titled *My World, Your World*. The purpose of the class was to pilot a more in-depth course of study independent of but supplementing the current curriculum.

Creating a laboratory classroom with the conditions necessary for pushing students' thinking forward is often a goal for teachers dedicated and committed toward the development of deeper understanding. However, this endeavor is not always feasible, given the multiple objectives, standards, and requirements that must be accomplished within specified time frames. After-school enrichment programs and classes provide viable alternatives for educators looking to establish environments in which they have greater autonomy to create ideal conditions for learning that meet specific understanding goals.

Through identity texts, literacy engagement, discussions, and concrete activities involving different types of perspective-taking, students were able to discern connections and association, become more aware of perspective (both literal and figurative), recognize the value of seeing another's point-of-view, and understand themselves just a little bit more.

A singular feature of this course offering was the utilization of strategies characteristic of museum-based learning. Museums are a unique learning environment in comparison to classrooms. With access to historic documents, images, and collection items, young visitors are not only exposed to primary resources as learning tools but also are surrounded by specific and intentional, guided connections to history. Much of the learning that takes place within museums involves the power of looking, the power of perspective, or that initial observation that draws a visitor to a work of fine art, a cultural artifact, or an unfamiliar object.

### **Thinking Routines**

Thinking Routines (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008), that are geared toward the use of visual images, such as Zoom In, were weaved into classroom instruction to enable the students to experience images in ways that build their perspective-taking ability. The authors incorporated images directly related to the literature to which they have previously been exposed. Imagery reinforces the learning that comes as a result of analysis of literary texts. However, the power of image, when used to provoke further thought, adds a layer to understanding by tapping into the affective experience of the learner.

The authors were being strategic in creating and optimizing the learning experience through instructional variables that sought to value, support, and emphasize the perspective-taking ability. This was achieved through a variety of mediums that allowed students to develop this disposition intellectually in ways that are developmentally appropriate. For those students who struggle with this ability, activities that are concrete and involve a perspective from a realistic and three-dimensional angle work well. We alternated from the conceptual to the real.

As learning outcomes the students became acquainted with Harvard's Project Zero Visible Thinking approach and the use of thinking routines (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008; Salmon, 2010a). Routines are a necessary and integral component of classroom settings. For young children, the repetition of routines contributes to creating a sense of comfort and understanding about the world and how it operates. Routines are particularly significant within early childhood

environments, providing the structures in which even the youngest students thrive and learn. Within any classroom culture, various routines are used to accomplish specific goals. Within this study Visible Thinking Routines specifically designed to cultivate the perspective-taking disposition were utilized.

Thinking Routines from Project Zero offer a defined sequence of actions that lead to making meaning and at the same time highlight the thinking process (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008; Salmon, 2010a). For example, the children were encouraged to share what they perceive, know, care about a character, event, problem, or object as they explore diverse perspectives and viewpoints. When modeled and used consistently, routines such as perceive, know, care about became a natural approach to thinking that students were able to apply independently.

Through these learning experiences and frequent exposure to and practice in Perspective Taking-Centered Routines students have cultivated their disposition to recognize multiple perspectives. They have developed a better understanding of themselves and others enabling them to better understand what it means to be a global citizen.

### **Methodology**

#### **Purpose**

The purpose of this case study was to explore the best possible practices of educating students in the four global competencies (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011) as well as how and to what extent frequent exposure to and practice in Perspective Taking-Centered Routines (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008) could cultivate in them the disposition to recognize multiple perspectives and to foster the development of empathy and deeper understanding of others. The authors' hope was to demonstrate that direct instruction in Perspective Taking Routines would cultivate in their students the perspective-taking disposition and increase their level of empathy and deeper understanding of others.

Teachers with the intention of cultivating the perspective-taking disposition in their students began by making their students thinking visible in an effort to uncover their understanding of the concept of peace, kindness, and global citizenship.

#### **Setting and Participants**

The setting was a 3rd grade classroom of 18 students in a suburban independent school. The participants included 18 students, 9 female and 9 male ranging in age from 8 to 10. The 18 students are of middle class socio-economic status. The two female teachers involved in this project are acquainted in Project Zero's Visible Thinking approach and the Teaching for Understanding Framework.

#### **Data Collection and Analysis Procedures**

Data from Student Pre- and Post- Perspective Taking Routine Questionnaires where students rated protagonists and antagonists in the story they were reading: "I believe Despereaux is a good mouse and a good citizen" was disaggregated by gender to dismiss the presumption that the female students might "feel sorry" for the characters and have a tendency to be "more emotional" in their responses. Methods of data collection utilized in this study include observations of students' dialogues and routine protocols by teachers. Observations were recorded over the research period (3 weeks). Teachers worked directly with students modeling perspective taking routines and the dispositional perspective taking they foster.

Each teacher and student completed a survey that documented his or her attitude, understanding, and development of the perspective-taking disposition. The survey was administered three times over the course of the study. Student and teacher reflective diaries were kept to document and evaluate participants' progress in perspective taking as well as their

inclination to engage in the disposition. Student and teacher self-assessment measures were given as pre and post documentation.

### Findings

One of the initial trends included that 13 of the 18 student post responses followed a pattern of changing from *I agree* or *I disagree* to *I strongly agree* or *I strongly disagree*. There was also a pattern of increased student written explanations of their choices and within these explanations 15 of the 18 students directly stated how the character made them *feel* and referred to a situation within their own life when they were made to feel the same way. A trend was noted in the post questionnaire of no student response *I am not sure*. The research findings were shared with the students themselves. Both the pre and post test questionnaires were returned to the students who were asked to share their interpretation first. After an audiotaped class discussion, the authors shared the formal interpretation of the study results with the group of children.

A significant increase was found in the emotional connection of the students to the characters in the literature they read as indicated by 15 out of 18 students stating *I felt like Despereaux when... Despereaux's mother makes me feel...* (Di Camillo, 2003). In the pre test questionnaire only four students used the word *feeling* or referred to how the character *feels* and none of them referred to how these characters *make them feel*. In the post questionnaire, 15 of the 18 students use the words *feeling* or referred to how the character *feels*.

Of the 15 post test questionnaire students utilizing the words *feel* and *feelings*, 13 students provided examples from their own lives of when they were made to feel the same way. The decision to disaggregate the group pointed out that emotional responses were not significantly related to gender. All nine of the male students referred to their *feelings* and how the characters make them *feel* while only six of the females referred to *feelings* at all.

### Discussion and Conclusion

Preliminary findings lead the authors to believe that frequent exposure to and practice in Perspective Taking Centered Routines (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008) does cultivate in students a disposition to recognize multiple perspectives and to foster the development of empathy and deeper understanding of others. Immordino-Yang and Damasio's (2007) research supports integrating and respecting the power that emotion can yield toward greater understanding. The data reveals that the teachers were able to cultivate the perspective-taking disposition in their students who began to verbally uncover their understanding of the concept of peace, kindness, and friendship.

By looking to museum counterparts and weaving practices unique to the museum experience, the authors were able to facilitate students' engagement and to enhance their progress and development. For Immordino-Yang and Damasio (2007), the physiological systems that support social interaction and emotion point out the important role of culture (the culture of the classrooms) in shaping neural and behavioral responses such as admiration and awe. It has been confirmed that social and moral thought emerge as functions of the interactions between the body and mind in the social and cultural contexts. The implications of this mind-brain research on education require that we address what it means to be a "good person" and a "good citizen". It requires that we cultivate within our students the perspective-taking disposition so that they are capable of listening with understanding and empathy to their fellow citizens.



As educators, we must listen to the advice of Howard Gardner (2011), and model these positive virtues ourselves, while cultivating them in our students, so that they can develop their own ethical compasses to navigate by as they engage the world. By enhancing our students' disposition to recognize the perspectives of others' as well as their own, we are educating them for global competence and preparing them to engage the world.

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## **Teaching Disruptive Students: An Indictment of Colorblind Teacher Education Programs**

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**Abstract:** Teacher education programs do not sufficiently prepare White teachers to work with Black and Latino students in disciplinary alternative schools. From a critical race theory in education perspective, prepared White teachers are aware of their own ethnocentrism and, subsequently, develop anti-racist pedagogy and curricula.

“We teach Black students to be disruptive in school!” a White female colleague explained across the dinner table to a White male. He was of the mindset that all Black students who were involved in suspension, expulsion, and the juvenile justice system deserved it. She expressed thoughts succinctly on how racism informs teachers’ decisions to use or not use exclusionary discipline with their Black students. Exclusionary school discipline is the act of removing students from mainstream classrooms and, ultimately, excluding them from mainstream education (Children’s Defense Fund, 1975). In the United States, exclusionary school discipline results in mostly Black students being removed from classrooms as a consequence of their disruptive behavior. This disparity is referred to as the discipline gap (Monroe, 2006). Yet, no evidence supports the claim that Black students are more disruptive than their peers (Fabelo et al., 2011; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2000). Exclusionary school discipline often leads to the suspension or expulsion of Black, and more recently Latino, students to disciplinary alternative schools (Van Acker, 2007). Due to the negative impact on students of color, exclusionary school discipline is considered an oppressive educational practice and condition (Weis & Fine, 2005). As a result of their disproportional involvement in the discipline gap, students of color are also overrepresented in the achievement gap (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010).

### **Literature Review**

Since Skiba and colleagues’ (2000) study, Vavrus and Cole (2002) examined the “sociocultural factors that influence a teacher’s decision to remove a student from the classroom” (p. 87). They studied how disciplinary moments, or “patterns of classroom interaction that often precede a suspension” (p. 89), are negotiated as social practice among teachers and students. Results indicated that disciplinary moments vary by the sociocultural context of particular classrooms. That is, disciplinary moments do not occur as a strict series of events presumably linked to violence. Instead, classroom discipline problems appear to originate from White privilege paradigms that support ethnocentric views of intelligence, behavior, and learning (Gutiérrez, 2006; McIntosh, 1997). Teachers’ decisions appear related to system constraints (i.e., district or state high-stakes testing mandates) and fear of the loss of control in the classroom (Noguera, 2008). Even though disciplinary moments are sociocultural negotiations between teachers and students, teachers ultimately have the power to decide whether to use exclusionary discipline or to create culturally responsive learning environments. White teachers’ particular ways of thinking about, acting, communicating, and presenting themselves to students of color

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appear to influence classroom and school discipline practices. Teachers' attitudes and beliefs about their own and their students' race impact classroom instruction and student achievement (Blanchett, 2006; Delpit, 1995). Disrespect, disobedience, disorderly conduct, and fighting are the most commonly reported reasons that teachers write referrals to the office (Skiba, 2001). However, studies comparing cultural interaction styles show Black behaviors viewed as misbehaviors were not intended as such by the students. Instead, Black cultural humor, play fighting, and overlapping speech are discourse styles that use repetition, dramatic flair, "creative use of word patterns, and an overall playfulness in language usage" (Irvine, 1990, p. 101).

Culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP) focuses on the teacher (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Teachers who use CRP recognize how racism and discrimination impact their students. They empower students holistically by building on cultural referents. They also help students make connections to their community, country, world, racial, and cultural identities. In a study investigating how White teachers and students of color negotiated classroom conflict during literacy classroom interactions, race interactively and influentially constructed social relationships, personal identity, and academic knowledge (Rex, 2006). In another study examining the influence of race and culture in "teachers' implicit theories about the causes of discipline problems" (Gregory & Mosely, 2004, p. 18), teachers blamed the school, student, and community for misbehavior. Most teachers' implicit theories were colorblind; they did not recognize culture or race as a confounding issue. Teacher education programs that encourage CRP influence teachers' mindsets and classroom outcomes positively (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Five essential elements of culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004) suggest: (a) recognition of one's own ethnocentrism; (b) knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds; (c) understanding of the broader social, economic, and political context; (d) ability and willingness to use culturally appropriate management strategies; and (e) commitment to building caring classrooms.

### **Problem**

The influence of CRP on teacher education programs encourages teachers to consider their own racial and cultural identity and how it shapes their approach to students and their teaching. However, the focus of CRP has been on lowering the achievement gap. CRP has rarely been considered extensive in light of disciplinary practices. CRCM focuses on managing classrooms with CRP but needs more attention. This study focuses on cultural misperceptions of teachers in light of disciplinary practices. The purpose of this study is to examine how race informs teachers' decisions to use or not use exclusionary discipline through the lens of critical race theory in education. Critical race theory (CRT), context, method, results, discussion, conclusion, and implications are provided next.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Critical race theory in education (Ladson-Billings, 1999; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995) provides tools for discussing how race, racism, and power are deeply ingrained in American schools and classroom micropractices. It addresses "race, power, language, gender, identity, class, and social structure in relation to the opportunities and legal rights of individuals and groups" (Nasir & Hand, 2006, p. 455). Five CRT tenets include: (a) counterstorytelling racial stereotypical discourse; (b) recognizing permanency of societal racism; (c) challenging Whiteness-related educational inequities; (d) questioning interests at stake; and (e) challenging colorblindness, neutrality of the law, and incremental change (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004).

### **Context**

A disciplinary alternative school in a large multicultural southeastern United States public school district was selected for the study because of the Black and Latino male student population who had been expelled from school for disruptive behavior. Dr. Jones, The School's White male principal, welcomed the prospects of the study because of a program, Positive Behavior Support (PBS), he had initiated two years earlier. PBS is a school-wide point system for teachers to assess students' behavior. Students who achieved sufficient points attended a weekly reward activity. A PBS poster hung on the front of the building, promoting The School's discipline philosophy. PBS charts were exhibited in each classroom to designate the location of the time-out bench (see Figure 1) and to document points earned by each student for good behavior (See Figure 2). Students had to follow 10 PBS rules in order to earn their points: be punctual, wear the school uniform, bring your own supplies, do not use electronic devices, keep your hands and feet to yourself, do not use profanity, participate fully in all class activities, do not create or cause disruptions through your language or behavior, give maximum effort in class, and do not leave your seat at the closure bell until dismissed by the teacher.

### **Method**

Critical microethnography merges ethnography, critical social research, and discourse analysis to study daily classroom life with attention to broader societal structures, learning processes, and social and academic identity reproduction (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2005). Critical goals involved studying what was being learned, for whose benefit. Micro- goals involved analyzing verbal and nonverbal language in the cultural, social, and political context. Ethnographic goals involved observing inside classrooms to gain an understanding of participants' cultural behaviors. The researcher selected 4 classrooms for the study—two teachers who frequently and two teachers who rarely used exclusionary discipline. Mr. Glass was a White male language arts teacher who most frequently used exclusionary discipline; 3 Black students and 1 Latino student participated. Ms. Gomez was a Latina language arts teacher who frequently used exclusionary discipline; 3 Black students and 1 Latino student participated. Mr. Frederek was a White science teacher who rarely if ever used exclusionary discipline; 4 Latino students participated. Mr. Jenkins was a White culinary arts teacher who never used exclusionary discipline; 2 Black and 2 Latino students participated. Data were collected in each classroom through 5 hours of video-recorded observations. A 20-minute segment of the most representative disciplinary moments in each classroom was burned onto a DVD. During the interviews, teachers explained what was happening and why as they watched the DVD from their classroom. Data analysis was performed using a multi-stage process from creating a primary record, locating possible objective validity claims, meaning reconstruction, and high- and low-level coding, to final reconstructive data analysis (for more information see Pane, 2009).

### **Results**

Teachers discussed how the option of using exclusionary discipline in the school-wide Positive Behavior Support (PBS) environment influenced their classroom management techniques and responses. They also discussed their lack of previous experience with Black and Latino students in disciplinary alternative education before being hired to teach at The School. Each teacher developed his or her own classroom management techniques based on perceptions of both PBS and students' abilities and behavior. Ultimately, each teacher predetermined whether he or she would write referrals to handle disruptive behavior. Representative data from

teachers who rarely and frequently used exclusionary school discipline (referrals to remove students from class) are provided in this section.

### **Teachers Who Rarely Used Exclusionary School Discipline**

Teachers who rarely used exclusionary school discipline had a greater understanding of (and blamed) the school and the system politics. For example, Mr. Jenkins said:

I think getting back to the whole thing about the referrals, since I've been out here, there can be a few problems with writing a kid a referral . . . first and foremost . . . we are here as his last . . . opportunity . . . . If we're kicking him out of our school, or even out of our class, which is almost the same thing, where are we kicking him to, what are we accomplishing really? Outdoor suspension . . . it's just any place but here.

Mr. Jenkins did not write referrals; he believed his role was to provide "clarification, for reference . . . as long as they're keeping themselves motivated on track, in a reasonable timeline, that's the goal really of vocational instruction, is to have them working as if it were a job."

Mr. Frederek voiced that "the administration and the teachers, it's like a hierarchy . . . it's not working together, everybody does the thinking for someone else . . . it's a bureaucracy." He elaborated how this division impacted the referral system:

[Referrals are] all political . . . [the administration does not] really like them to be given out, because that information goes downtown and if it's a lot of referrals it looks good or bad on a school if there's a lot of behavior problems.

He understood the "flaw in the system" that caused him to rarely write referrals:

When you send a student to detention here and then you . . . sit down to write your referral, there might be hundreds others of issues in the classroom . . . . and then you write them up and then you send the referrals over there too and then you're supposed to get a copy too, but whatever happened to that referrals you don't know if it actually, sometimes it might not even be executed so you don't know.

Ultimately, Mr. Frederek believed his students would benefit if they stayed in class. He decided whether the "issue was . . . big enough" to write a referral. He understood that just one person can change the whole dynamics in the classroom and the interactions . . .

To be in this school for a longer period of time is not good. You shouldn't be, the purpose is to be sent back to your normal school.

### **Teachers Who Frequently Used Exclusionary School Discipline**

Teachers who frequently used exclusionary school discipline blamed the student, family, and the school system. For example, Ms. Gomez said:

[Teaching here] is a battle, everyday is a battle. Everyday you know, I've got to come up with some way to trick these kids into learning something new that day because most of the time, they just fight me on it or they want to sleep or they want to talk or they just don't want to do it so but you know, I've gone through in the 3 years that I've been teaching, I've tried pretty much everything. I've tried bribing them, I've tried threatening them, I've tried babying them, anything that I can, sometimes with some kids certain tactics work, but with most of them, I still don't know how to get through to them.

She believed that her students "do what they do because they want attention. They don't care if it's positive or negative they just want that attention because they don't get it anywhere else." She wrote referrals when "they push[ed her] over the edge." She would go to the door and call for security, "because for those kids, they would rather be picking up trash or rather be sitting in an air conditioned room without anyone bothering them than sitting in the classroom having the

teacher riding them about doing their work.” Ms. Gomez believed, “I’d be pretty messed too if I dealt with half the things they’ve had to go through.” She elaborated:

And this school I think turned him [one of her prior students] in the opposite direction because now he is in prison. And I’m not sure how long he is going to be there for a while. And so you have these horror stories . . . we don’t know what they go through but you got to think about what they’re what they’re coming from. It’s like the school system just has the assumption that everyone has a perfect family that takes care of them and that nurtures them and that gives them all those basic needs and they are going to come here and do what they’re supposed to do but that’s just not the reality that most of these kids have.

Mr. Glass equated disciplinary issues with learning issues:

First of all, the students in this setting have been removed from, expelled from their regular school, so they obviously are coming here, not in a normal situation. They have had fights or they have been involved in drugs, or they’ve had problems with truancy, so they are students who have certain either emotional dysfunctionalities or learning differences, learning problems, and they are not motivated to come to school in general so they are restless in the classroom. They are students of to whatever degree of impulsivity.

He believed that his students did not “dream about going into higher education” like students in regular schools. He believed that “if they were able to develop more organized study habits and could understand normal behaviors in a classroom, they would . . . do fine in higher education, but they need practice in those types of behaviors.” He elaborated on why they come to school:

They come to socialize, they come to hang out, they do not come with a mindset to study, or to do conceptual academic work, they do not like it when [I] ask them to think. They love busywork or what I would call handouts that do not require them to do much more than fill in the blanks, copy material from the board that they consider, I did my work I should get an A or I should get a B.

Mr. Glass believed that his students were “not equipped because they won’t go to the library and get a personal copy of whatever we are reading in class, they won’t do homework.” He thought that their short attention spans was because “their mind wanders off and they may be thinking about sex or about drugs or why whatever they’re thinking about but it’s away from concentrating on the task at hand in the classroom.” He discussed the negative influences of many students’ family backgrounds. For example,

[he’s] got a lot of issues that make him the kind of clown type student that he projects . . . His overall demeanor is one of being a jokester, acting like a fool, and he’s earned very poor grades because he doesn’t care . . . I believe that his situation at home has caused a lot of his attitude problems, he is not a good student because he does not have the support that he could have or might have from a more stable home situation which is demonstrated here in his desire not to stay.

### **Discussion**

Teachers in this study did not conduct CRP and did not possess all five essential elements of culturally responsive classroom management. None of the teachers recognized their own ethnocentrism as a factor in classroom decision making. The two teachers who frequently used referrals viewed students’ cultural backgrounds as deficient. The two teachers who rarely or never used referrals had some understanding of their broader social, economic, and political context. None of the teachers were familiar with culturally appropriate management strategies.

The two teachers who rarely or never used referrals appeared committed to building a caring classroom. In this study, the two teachers who frequently used referrals blamed the student, family, community, school, administration, PBS, or school system for students' suspension. Black and Latino student backgrounds were not considered when the teachers discussed students' (mis)behaviors, even in the classrooms characterized by rare or no exclusionary school discipline. All teachers omitted students' racial and cultural backgrounds in their explanations. A color-blind mentality existed in all classroom disciplinary decisions; race was invisible. Depending on how strictly teachers adhered to their (mis)perceptions about students' (mis)behaviors and who or what was to blame in their minds, exclusionary discipline outcomes differed. Mr. Glass's strict adherence to his preconceptions resulted in extremely passive and disengaged students during academic lectures; teacher-student relationships in this type of environment were so poor that students often skipped or competitively disrupted in order to get removed from class. Ms. Gomez's inconsistent threats and reactions to classroom problems resulted in extremely disruptive and competitive students who were unconcerned about what was being learned academically or socially. Teacher-student relationships were haphazardly based on the severity of the most recent reprimand or threat of referral. Mr. Frederek's classroom discipline was balanced with student input, discussion, and enjoyment about what was being learned; positive teacher-student relationships developed and more time was spent on academic learning. Mr. Jenkins's understanding of the political nature of suspension combined with classroom discussion, personality, and humor resulted in positive teacher-student relationships and regularly completed academic products and social learning.

### **Conclusion**

*Oppressive educational conditions are practiced racism. Racism is systemic in our society. Yes, we do teach Black students to be disruptive in school.* The school-wide PBS sustained an oppressive educational atmosphere. As a result, the five tenets of critical race theory were missing. Counterstorytelling of racial stereotypical discourse did not occur. The permanency of societal racism was not mentioned. Whiteness-related educational inequities were not challenged. Whose interest is at stake was not questioned. Colorblindness, neutrality of the law, and incremental change were not challenged. Per CRT, teachers in this study gave color-blind, neutral reasons for how often, why, and how strictly they did or did not follow system rules and regulations about controlling students. They expected incremental, if any, behavioral or academic changes that are taken-for-granted by dominant members of our society and school systems. Although none of the teachers explicitly followed PBS as intended, classroom interactions were implicitly bound by the school-wide discipline philosophy. Two teachers who rarely or never used referrals questioned inequities but not in relation to racism. Teachers were primarily concerned about maintaining control of their classrooms; two teachers who rarely or never used referrals considered how suspension impacted their students negatively but not in relation to racism. As time spent on maneuvering exclusionary discipline consequences increased, academic substance decreased; no evidence of counterstorytelling was evident through the use of anti-racist materials and/or pedagogy. Teachers responded to classroom discipline problems or potential problems by doing what was familiar and comfortable for them. The teacher most familiar with his students' cultural and racial backgrounds (as a result of personal experiences) never used exclusionary school discipline. None of the teachers had been exposed professionally to disciplinary alternative schools or the Black and Latino students who populated them before being hired. Overall, teachers made classroom decisions as

they had been taught (or not taught) by the system, which did not address CRT or CRCM in disciplinary alternative schools.

### **Implications**

The main implication of this study is that racism is legalized in the official rules of exclusionary school discipline and concretizes negative societal thinking about Black and Latino students. Teachers, who are mostly White and middle class, need to be specifically prepared to work with Black and Latino students in disciplinary alternative schools. This practice would increase equitability in education for all students. Both teachers and students suffer from the lack of purposeful anti-racist teacher preparation for disciplinary alternative schools. Anti-racist pedagogy rids the curriculum of the conviction of the superiority of White cultural or social norms. From this unjust and discriminatory omission, misinformed teachers get involved in power struggles in the classroom unnecessarily. The second implication is for disciplinary alternative schools teachers to rethink their implicit theories of Black and Latino students, their communities, and their cultural and racial practices. One-size-fits-all curricula produce failure labels that are continually adhered to disciplinary alternative schools and students who attend them. Teachers and their students would benefit from anti-racist discourse and pedagogy that questions persistent colorblind inequities in educational practices and conditions. Teachers and their students would benefit with race-conscious, equity-oriented humanist approaches that interrogate the sociohistorical, political and intellectual context of disciplinary alternative schools. Black and Latino students would benefit if their White teachers understood how to build on students' racial and cultural backgrounds to increase literacy learning opportunities in the classroom. Less time would be spent controlling behavior, fewer referrals would be issued, and fewer suspensions would result. Addressing the permanence of societal racism would benefit Black and Latino students who are impacted disproportionately by exclusionary discipline and low literacy levels. These suggestions may begin to reduce the extreme focus and exorbitant amount of time spent on controlling perceived disruptive behavior in all schools, but particularly disciplinary alternative schools and classrooms. Instead of being constrained by rules and regulations about controlling students' behavior, White teachers can be empowered to learn how to spend time on positive academic classroom interactions, increase all students' opportunities for literacy learning, and collaborate together for social justice. Subsequently, their Black and Latino students will learn to spend time in class differently too.

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## Appendices



Figure 1. PBS chart to locate time-out bench.



Figure 2. PBS charts to document behavior points.

## Queering Human Resource Development

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**Abstract:** Societal norms for gender and sexual identity and practices tend to be heteronormative or homonormative, often privileging individuals belonging to the normative population. Viewing human resource development through a queer lens can suggest ways to support work environments that welcome all identities.

Heteronormativity, or “the institutions, structures of understanding, and practical orientations that make heterosexuality seem not only coherent—that is, organized as a sexuality—but also privileged” (Berlant & Warner, 1998, p. 548) is embedded in laws, regulations, space, and theories. Heterosexual privilege “requires strict boundary maintenance to determine who is normal and who is deviant” and allows the sanctioned discrimination of people who deviate from those boundaries (Rocco & Gallagher, 2006). Some identities outside of heteronormativity are lesbians (L), gay men (G), bisexuals (B), transgender men and women (T) and queers (Q). For the purpose of this paper, the term queer is used in two ways. First, queer refers to an individual who chooses to identify as non-heteronormative but does not choose a label of L, G, B, or T; this might be someone who is attracted to multiple genders or someone who is not sure of their sexual orientation or gender. Queer also refers to a philosophical statement or theory that advocates against binary thinking in terms of sexuality and gender.

Having roots in Rubin’s (1984) concept of the sex/gender system and the practice of compulsory heterosexuality, heteronormativity supports the idea that heterosexuality is normal, natural, and something to protect. The nation-state, or the political and social institutions in the U.S., is heterosexist and works in implicit, discursive, and subtle ways to protect heterosexual and reproductive sexual practices and to marginalize other sexual practices; it oppresses and stigmatizes individuals who perform deviant forms of sexuality and gender (Bell & Binnie, 2000; Berlant & Freeman, 1993; Duggan, 1994; Foucault, 1990). Critiques of heterosexism explore the reproduction of social relations and capitalism.

Homonormativity, on the other hand, is “a politics that does not contest dominant heteronormative assumptions and institutions but upholds and sustains them while promising the possibility of a demobilized gay constituency and a privatized gay culture anchored in domesticity and consumption” (Duggan, 2002, p. 179). Homonormativity includes a hierarchy of worthiness in terms of gender identity and sexual performance where deviants closest to heteronormative standards are deemed most worthy of receiving rights, while deviants furthest away only stand in the way of those rights. Neoliberalism is a recent political platform that works to remap public/private boundaries by shrinking gay public spheres and the role of the state in passing legislation regarding matters deemed “private.” Through neoliberalism, equality becomes a narrow, formal access to a few conservatizing institutions; freedom becomes impunity for bigotry and inequalities in commercial life and civil society; the right to privacy becomes domestic confinement; and democratic politics becomes something to escape (Duggan, 2002).

Queer theory works to denaturalize fixed categories of sexual identity and critique political practices related to identity politics. Three such critiques are that: (a) the existing homosexual/heterosexual polarity is historically recent and culturally specific; (b) the production of a politics from a fixed identity position privileges those who are marked by that position; and

(d) identity politics replaces closets with ghettos, where the “ghetto-closet is another bounded, fixed space of humiliation and another kind of social isolation” (Duggan, 1994, p. 5).

Organizations are neither neutral nor apolitical; “structures and systems have developed over time in specific historical and social situations” (Schied, Carter, & Howell, 2001, p. 52). Organizations and human resource development (HRD) professionals should foster respect for the fundamental rights, dignity, and worth of all employees and encourage workers’ professional and personal development. Recognizing that individuals have diverse identities, needs, and levels of comfort in sharing their experiences with colleagues and supervisors is essential in understanding how HRD professionals can contribute to workers’ development. HRD must recognize where it, and its organizations, privilege some employees to the detriment of others.

Although theory has been largely ignored by HRD (Grace & Hill, 2001) viewing HRD through a queer lens can help organizations, HRD professionals, and workers create more inclusive environments. The purpose of this paper is to review research on various aspects of employment and HRD from a queer lens and to suggest ways that HRD professionals can support work environments beyond heteronormative and homonormative boundaries.

### **Queer Theory**

Foucault (1990) argued that a discourse on sex had been imposed, which categorized sex into legitimate and illegitimate acts and which institutionalized sex beyond simple economic reasoning. This created categories of people based on assumed sexualities; “this new persecution of the peripheral sexualities entailed an incorporation of perversions and a new specification of individuals” (Foucault, 1990, pp. 42-43). Rubin (1984) argued that “Virtually all erotic behavior is considered bad unless a specific reason to exempt it has been established. The most acceptable excuses are marriage, reproduction, and love” (p. 278). A sexual hierarchy exists which draws a metaphorical line between “good” sex and “bad” sex. On the “good” side is normal, natural and blessed sexuality: heterosexual, married, monogamous, procreative, non-commercial, in pairs, in a relationship, same generation, in private, no pornography, bodies only, and vanilla (Rubin, 1984). On the “bad” side is abnormal, unnatural, and damned sexuality: homosexual, unmarried, promiscuous, non-procreative, commercial, alone or in groups, casual, cross-generational, in public, pornography, with manufactured objects, and sadomasochistic (Rubin, 1984).

Sex is not an innate or essential drive or a self-evident universal impulse; rather, sex and sexuality are culturally constructed and shaped by the culture of the day (Rubin, 1984). However, gender performances are involuntary, and often imperfect (Butler, 1993), as individuals might try to perform as they feel is expected. Queer is also performed, as an enactment of a prohibition, a reclamation and resignification of a violent and pejorative term so that it can no longer be used to insult or control (Butler, 1993). Sedgwick (1990) argued that twentieth-century Western culture is structured by a “chronic, now endemic crisis of homo/heterosexual definition, indicatively male” (p. 1) and that most aspects of modern Western culture lack a critical analysis of definitions of homosexual and heterosexual.

Sexuality is public and political (Jakobsen, 2005). Sex is used as a political agent and as a means to repress and dominate society, particularly persons whose sexual orientation or inclinations deviate from societal norms (Rubin, 1984). Legislation, moral expectations, and social norms are enacted to establish how sexuality should be performed, experienced, and monitored. An inside/outside, or dichotomous, binary sets the structure for language, repression, subjectivity, exclusion, oppression, and repudiation of subjects (Fuss, 1991).

The concept of sexual citizenship, linking citizenship to sexuality, involves a compromise between the rights that one receives and the responsibilities acquired as a citizen (Bell & Binnie,

2000). Sex matters a great deal in American public life and sexual regulation has played a crucial role in U.S. politics over the last several decades, including the Defense of Marriage Act, welfare reform, and immigration reform (Jakobsen, 2005). An alliance is forming between fiscal conservatives and social conservatives, based on mutual conservatism about gender, sexuality, and race. Neoliberalism has become a platform benefiting certain privileged lesbians and gays, particularly those who are affluent and overwhelming White, while gays in non-privileged positions might not benefit at all.

Edelman (1998) argued that the idea of the child has been enshrined as “the figure for whom that order must be held in perpetual trust” (p. 21) and that this trope of the child – who happens to be heterosexual – as the inheritor of our future traps us in a (re)production of an imagined past. This cult of the child forebears anyone who does not work toward creating or sustaining a welcoming future for that child. Jakobsen (2005) argued that although capitalism and “the ‘freedom’ of wage labor allows people to make a living outside the structure of the family” (p. 290), “the value of that freedom is defined by regulation, including sexual regulation, that makes the individual open to both exploitation and domination” (pp. 298-299). The rise of capitalism has allowed new forms of kinship but does not always provide psychic support (Eng, 2003). For example, two lesbians in the U.S. might adopt a transnational child who will gain rights, recognition, and some sort of protection. However, that child’s same-sex parents will not have equal access to rights and privileges; they might not even be considered a nuclear family. Queer diaspora allows new methods of family and kinship structures and reorganization of national and transnational communities, not based on origin, filiation, and genetics, but on destination, affiliation, and a common set of social practices or political commitments.

Urban governance and sexual citizenship agendas combine to create sexual spaces which exclude “other” kinds (Bell & Binnie, 2004). Although some boundaries are clearly marked, many can be crossed. For example, Berlant and Warner (1998) crossed a border from private to public when a young heterosexual couple said that Berlant and Warner were the only people they could talk to about using vibrators as sex toys; talking to their straight friends would make the couple “perverts” (p. 654). Ahmed (2004) used a vocabulary of comfort related to space. Spaces of normativity are comfortable for those whose bodies fit in the norms and uncomfortable for those whose bodies do not. Comfort can also be invisible; unrecognized until it is missing.

### **Human Resource Development**

The mission of HRD is to provide individual development focused on performance improvement related to a current job, career development focused on performance improvement related to future assignments, and organizational development focused on optimal utilization of human potential and improved human performance (Gilley & Egglund, 1989). Goals of HRD, which support its mission, include (a) increasing the performance of organizations through development of workers so that they can contribute to the goals of the organization (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998); (b) encouraging personal development without using organizational performance as the primary motivation (Dirkx, 1996); and (c) fostering learning and learning how to learn (Knowles et al., 1998). Resistance often occurs when HRD professionals seek to address equality in the workplace and encourage respect for all identities. Hill (2009) provided some reasons why: (a) the perceived threat of entitlement by majority groups, or resentment for what is seen as “special rights”; (b) fear by majority groups that LGBTQ people will claim the majority groups’ rights; (c) religious intolerance; (d) negative stereotypes and heteronormativity; and (e) government and politician-sponsored antigay speech.

Rocco, Landorf, and Delgado (2009) laid out a table of “Human Resource Development Missions with Organizational Perspectives” (pp. 16-17). The mission of HRD provides a framework of the table, which illustrates the intersection of the mission and five perspectives toward diversity practice and policy: (a) hostility; (b) compliance; (c) inquiry; (d) inclusion; and (e) advocacy. Within each perspective, the authors suggested things that might occur in relation to individual development, which includes new employee orientation and diversity/sexual harassment training, to career development/ progression, and to organizational development, which includes strategic planning and work/life balance.

A perspective of hostility might include language and actions that exclude sexual minorities, termination upon disclosure or discovery, discriminatory hiring and employee policies, job insecurity and intimidation, policies that prevent infiltration, and work/life balance decisions that cause the employee to stay closeted at social events. A perspective of advocacy might include inclusive language, benefits created for the needs of sexual minorities, discussion of issues relevant to sexual minorities, the ability to choose to disclose, proactive recruitment of and policies written to include sexual minorities, and sexual minorities at all levels of the organization. Organizations with an advocacy perspective may also include inclusive and proactive policy and procedure documents, identifying as an ally, sponsoring and marketing to sexual minorities, not engaging in activities that might undermine goals of equal rights; and encouraging other organizations to be proactive. Work/life balance might allow for open social interactions, support of GLBT employee resource groups, and gender-neutral facilities.

Diversity initiatives often focus on minority groups that are protected by the law. However, not all LGBTQ identities have legal protection and not all topics about diversity are commonly addressed in the workplace, such as racism, patriarchy, class, sexual identity, religion, physical ability, etc. (Cheng, 1997).

Super (1990) outlined a series of processes related to career development: (a) choosing employment (identifying the type of work and organization); (b) establishment (entering and adjusting to the workplace, including orientation and training, setting up one’s work space, and building relationships); (c) advancement (increases in status, salary, scope of responsibility, performance, networking, mentoring, etc.); (d) management (dealing with changes in the workplace or in one’s career); and (e) work/life issues (those affected by career activity but not occurring in the workplace).

LGBTQ identified workers are often attracted to gay-friendly occupations and organizations (Friskopp & Silverstein, 1995) and avoid occupations in which it is relatively difficult to pass as heterosexual or where the penalties for disclosure of a gay identity are high due to institutional policies or coworker attitudes (Badgett & King, 1997). Heterosexism limits the career advancement of LG workers (Friskopp & Silverstein, 1995; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) and both corporations and gay executives prefer that LGBTQ workers stay in the closet (Miller, 1995). In managing their career, individuals must constantly decide whether to disclose their identity. Additionally, in terms of work/life balance, LGBTQ persons might have little or no family support (Ragins & Wiethoff, 2005), which might contribute to stress on the job.

Workspaces are filled with heterosexual expectations and assumptions and repress nonheterosexual behavior (Boatwright, Gilbert, Forrest, & Ketzenberger, 1996; Allen, 1995). They require constant monitoring, indirect conversation and isolation by LGBTQ workers, who might keep their workspaces free of personal memorabilia that indicate, or disclose, their identities and which might prompt questions by coworkers.

Stigma can create a sense of differentness that is projected and sustained by society and often internalized by individuals within the stigmatized population (Goffman, 1963). The social and political reality of belonging to certain stigmatized groups means that the individual often must disclose some level of personal information to others. Self-disclosure involves verbally sharing information with another person about the nature or cause of personal experiences, dispositions, past events, and future plans (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979). Relationships develop through sharing personal information. To participate in such relationship development, individuals with stigmatized identities might often have to explain or educate—or choose to conceal, mislead, or lie to—people from the dominant cultural group about their experiences.

How more powerful others might receive and act on disclosure can make a difference in how stigmatized individuals approach new learning opportunities or work situations, such as establishing relationships or seeking mentorship (Chelune, 1979). The disclosure may, in fact, result in adverse effects in the workplace related to missed opportunities and promotions or poor treatment. The choice to disclose can be a scary decision, particularly when there is a perceived power difference and when there is a potential negative result of the disclosure. Furthermore, not all LGBTQ persons experience the same situations, desires or challenges; not everyone wants to “come out” or would in the same way or for the same reasons (Manalansan, 1995).

### **Queering HRD**

HRD has “conformed to conventional management philosophy by devising methods of ‘unleashing human expertise’ in ways that benefit the enterprise” and provides “unequal access to learning and development for marginalized workers” (Bierema, 2009, pp. 72-73). Fortunately, queer theory can question assumptions and enhance the conversation regarding critical HRD within the Academy of Human Resource Development, which is a global organization of HRD scholars and practitioners that encourages the systematic study of HRD theories, processes, and practices (Gedro, 2010). HRD professionals need to be prepared for resistance when addressing equality in the workplace. If supported by the organization, HRD could prompt discussions about equal rights and address how granting the same right, such as marriage, to LGBTQ persons will not take away that right from others, or that prohibiting discrimination against LGBTQ persons will not allow discrimination against others. These are not “special” rights or protections for LGBTQ persons. HRD professionals also need to persist in long-term campaigns advocating against negative stereotypes and norms which negatively impact employees.

HRD professionals should seek to create and sustain spaces that are comfortable for all individuals, where sexual morality is not embedded in the work environment, and where fluid, as well as traditional, family structures are valued. This might include providing physical spaces such as gender-neutral bathrooms or office cubicles where individuals share aspects of their lives and inviting family or significant others to work functions can invite individuals to be open. Organizations should recognize that not all employees plan to marry, yet even “single” individuals might have a significant other—partner, friend, parent, sibling—who is crucial to their support network. If employee benefits exist to support the employee, then perhaps the benefits typically granted to a partner or dependent can also be granted to a more generic significant other(s). Discussions about health and wellness might include a perspective that individuals might have solo sex, sex with multiple partners, or sex with no intent to reproduce. Other topics incorporated into HRD initiatives might be self-defense, how to talk to children about stranger danger, how to care for aging parents, dealing with anger or depression, etc.

In the workplace, “men and women may avoid associations with the ‘opposite’ gender traits, actions, or even employment for fear of being branded homosexual” (Carr, 2005, p. 120)

and leaders in corporate America experience implicit pressure to behave according to traditional gender roles (Gedro, 2009, p. 559). Perhaps initiatives can provide mentoring, job shadowing, or information interviews across genders and levels in organizations, with the intent to establish positive working relationships across boundaries. When LGBTQ persons feel discriminated against, they are likely to decrease participation, causing their knowledge and abilities to become wasted resources (Rocco & Gallagher, 2006). The same can be said of homonormative privilege, and the ways that it (negatively) impacts others. Heterosexuals and LGBTQ persons must reflect on heterosexist (and homosexist) privilege and recognize its negative effects in the workplace. Training about topics such as diversity, respect, and civility might help people to understand the impact that actions and decisions can have.

There is a potential in organizations for queer bonds that are not reduced to identity, and which can reach beyond sexual self-recognition (Weiner & Young, 2011). Cohen (1997) argued that queer activism has not created a truly radical or transformative politics; to do so, it might be more effective to focus on integrating or utilizing multiple tactics of the tactics of civil rights movements. Such thinking can lead to broad coalitions, even beyond self-selected employee groups, where groups work together to seek equality and fair conditions for everyone.

Chapman and Gedro (2009) recommended that individuals who teach courses on HRD provide a safe space for teacher and student disclosure, as coming out can help students learn how discrimination functions and how to correct assumptions that everyone is heterosexual. However, as not everyone wants to or feels a need to disclose their experiences and identities (i.e. “come out”); the choice to not disclose should also be included in such curricula. By discussing difficult issues such as sexual orientation and discrimination, and by valuing inclusion and equity, the field of HRD can mature (Gedro, 2007).

Some popular and scholarly literature pay lip service to cultural diversity while deploying “monolithic constructions of gayness and gay liberation” (Manalansa, 1995, p. 429). Warner (1993) suggested that queer critiques need to dig deeper into what is happening in society and politics. Instead of asking what gives a queer person the right to be queer/non heterosexual, instead, ask what gives a person the right to be heterosexual. When did they come out as heterosexual? Loo and Rocco (2009) argued that “A dynamic perspective on the effects of being a sexual minority should focus on both contemporaneous effects in work settings and dynamic impacts in terms of career profiles and human capital development in a life course perspectives” (p. 90). Jakobsen (2005) encouraged a more broad coalitional politics, joined with shared interests, to expand social spaces for lives lived outside of the bounds of the heterosexual and nuclear family. Duggan (2002) challenged queer scholars to actively develop strategies for “queering the state” and bridging the language gap that exists between scholarly work and public discourse. HRD researchers and practitioners can address these concerns by conducting research on and implementing strategies related to diversity and intersectionality.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

Scholars and practitioners of Human Resource Development should engage in critical discourses and activities of HRD. We should look beyond normative definitions of identity in our research and practices. One example of this would be to examine the experiences of workers who identify as neither heteronormative nor homonormative. Another example would be to include reflective questions such as “when did you come out as heterosexual?” or “how many times have you defended your sexual orientation to a family member” to a diversity workshop. Research regarding career development or succession planning should take into consideration that workers who identify outside of normative expectations might have different experiences



than workers who identify within. Data from studies of such workers might indicate ways of supporting work environments that are more inclusive of non-normative workers. Research on how employee benefits such as medical insurance and tuition waiver affect workers' performance and organizational success can look beyond traditional options for acceptable beneficiaries. For example, if employee benefits are meant to support employees and impact performance in positive ways, then perhaps an employee might be better served if allowed to choose a beneficiary who is not a partner, child, or other dependent. Opening up the possibilities beyond the nuclear family might have a positive impact on employees and their performance. In going beyond normative discourses and research, HRD can be "queered" and experiences of non-normative workers might be better understood.

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## Sexiles in the Classroom: Understanding Intersectionalities of Sexuality, Immigration, and Education<sup>1</sup>

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**Abstract:** This paper presents an overview of literature on adult educators who are both queer and immigrant. Although very little scholarly writing exists, several scholars describe the experiences of queer immigrants as being anchored to systemic heteronormativity. Additionally, the experiences of immigrant adult educators suggest difficult encounters with racism and sexism.

Using Paulo Freire's life experience as an exile in Switzerland as a reference point, Freire, in his interview with Faundez (2001), explains how living in exile means coming to terms with being uprooted from *home* and planting new roots in a foreign location. This is not an easy and uncomplicated task. Pointedly, Freire states,

If you put down roots too deeply in your new environment, then you run the risk of denying your origins. But, if you put down no roots at all in your new environment, then you run the risk of being annihilated in a nostalgia which it will be difficult to free yourself from. (Freire & Faundez, 2001, p. 190)

The process of re-location is mixed with tensions as a person shifts between two environments. One tension originates from the environment that exiles consider to be their homeland, which has shaped their behaviors in the new setting. Sometimes these behaviors are incongruent with the cultural norms of the new environment. Second, exiles cannot ignore their involvement within a new life context. Within the new environment, exiles try to make sense of and negotiate day-to-day encounters in their personal and professional lives (Freire & Faundez, 2001). These two tensions can provoke negative experiences with oppression and social exclusion if there are no resources or supports put into place to assist exiles with their transition.

In response to this negative tension, Freire and Faundez (2001) recommend that, "we need to set a conversation going between these two environments" (p. 200). Following Freire & Faundez (2001), through this paper I initiate a conversation that reflects on some of the struggles suggested in the literature concerning the movement of people between their "home" and "foreign" locations. Although there are many people crossing borders for a variety of reasons, I approach this particular topic through the lens of queer, immigrant, adult educators. I chose queer, immigrant, adult educators because they occupy a multiply-marginalized position of being both immigrant and queer, and yet hold a position of power in the classroom as being an educator. In light of this binary of queer, immigrant educators possessing dominant and unstable positionalities, following Guzmán (1997), I refer to them as "sexiles."

Guzmán (1997) defines sexiles as being "the exile of those who have had to leave their nation of origin on account of their sexual orientation" (p. 227). He uses this term to characterize the experiences of middle and upper-class gay male migrants to the United States mainland from Puerto Rico. These participants considered themselves as being a type of "bourgeois sexiles" who were superior and more successful than working-class queer immigrants

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to the United States (Guzmán, 1997). My borrowed use of the term highlights the purposes of why immigrant, queer adult educators may leave their home countries and further characterizes the dual positionalities of power that constitute and complicate their lives. In short, queer, immigrant educators are socially *excluded* by reason of their sexual and ethnic differences, but socially *included* through their role as adult educators. As an intellectual form of self-exile, queer, immigrant adult educators could decidedly suppress particular knowledges that counter “legitimate” knowledge in their new environments. This consequence also deprives adult learners of learning diverse ways to think about and place value on knowledge and of how to challenge structural and cultural processes that qualify and privilege only certain aspects of knowledge. In response, the question that focuses my literary inquiry here is as follows: What does the literature describe as being some of the challenges and recommendations when considering the lives of queer, immigrant, adult educators? I expect that this question will show how a change in work context, inclusive of the political, sociocultural, economic, and religious dynamics, shapes the behaviors of this particular group of educators.

Bridging the two life perspectives of being a queer immigrant and being an immigrant educator through this paper brings attention to how non-normative identities experience greater difficulty when crossing borders. Chiefly, these intercultural encounters are meant to exchange understandings, practices, and ideas on various subject matters including hotly contested issues in certain contexts, such as HIV/AIDS and/or gender equality. To better facilitate this exchange, adult educators need to develop inclusive learning relationships based on trust, respect, hope, and cultural sensitivity in order to meaningfully teach in a foreign culture (Chang, 2007; Grace, 1996). Developing an equitable and respectful relationship is no simple feat and any exchange between educator and learners requires a great deal of dialogue given differences in identity, culture, and context (Freire, 1970/2008, 1985). For some educators, developing a productive relationship with learners in a foreign context becomes an especially arduous task because knowledge is shaped by social, historical, and political contexts (Mojab, 2006) and, as a result, long-standing prejudices existing towards certain social identities target the adult educator in the classroom.

Queer adult educators, in particular, are certainly not strangers to exclusion practices, given the pervasiveness of homophobia in society. And yet, many of these educators still risk crossing borders to teach adult learners in contexts very different than their own. For educators who travel from economically “developed” nations (for example, Canada or the United States) to “developing” (for example, Argentina or Thailand) nations, their citizenship helps them, in some part, navigate through deeply-rooted sexual prejudice. However, for educators who travel from “developing” nations to “developed” nations, their transition is not usually as promising or as positive. In fact, these educators could face additional challenges, given that they originate from nations often regarded as being *backward* and *uneducated* (Willinsky, 1998).

The literature is largely silent on the topic of queer, immigrant educators. Having said this, there are useful insights to gain when examining the experiences of “immigrant adult educators” and “queer immigrants” separately. After I review both of these perspectives, I provide a literary analysis based on my work. I then complete this literature review with a conclusion.

### **Method**

For this literature review, an integrative search method was conducted in October, 2011. This search was operationalized primarily through four literary search engines that were relevant to transnational sexuality studies, immigration studies, and education. Data bases included:

ERIC, Web of Science, and Worldcat. I began by creating three categories of search terms: (a) sexuality-themed terms: “queer”, “gay”, “lesbian”, “bisexual”, or “sexual minorities”, (b) immigrant-themed terms: “immigrant”, “newcomers”, or “refugees”, and (c) adult educator-themed terms: “adult educators”, “community educators”, “visiting professors”, or “faculty members”. I combed through and selected any relevant qualitative and quantitative texts.

After relevant articles or books were located, each text was grouped into a chart according to thematic subheadings of *immigrant adult educators* and *queer immigrants*. I selected these subheadings because they tended to describe the general ideas discussed in the literature. Reference information as well as an annotated description were a part of each chart entry. Once this chart was completed, I was in a better position to provide an overview of what was represented in the literature based on this study topic. The following results section represented what I uncovered in the literature.

### Results

In this section I identify three areas of concern that are based on the literature and form my analysis: (a) difficult encounters of queer immigrants, (b) difficult encounters of immigrant educators and (c) a literary analysis in light of sexiles in the classroom. I explain each in turn.

#### Difficult Encounters of Queer Immigrants

Understanding the experiences of queer immigrants has recently garnered much attention in social science literature, but mainly from a North American perspective. In addition to an analysis of the life experiences of queer immigrants, a queer perspective on immigration informs how sexuality impacts and becomes implicated in the migratory processes (Naples & Vidal-Ortez, 2009). Largely viewed through feminist and poststructuralist perspectives, the experiences of queer immigrants as described in the literature highlight heteronormative systems that exclude queer realities in both *home* environments and new environments. Writing within the United States context, Luibhéid (2004), who writes extensively on the experiences of queer immigrants, explains:

Heteronormative policies and practices – which subordinate immigrants not just on grounds of sexual orientation but also on grounds of gender, racial, class, and cultural identities that may result in ‘undesirable’ sexual acts or outcomes (such as ‘too many’ poor children) – are deployed by the state to select who may legally enter the United States and to incorporate immigrants into hegemonic nationalist identities and projects.

Sexuality more generally also structures every aspect of immigrant experiences. (p. 227)  
Part of the problem, as Luibhéid views it, is that immigration officials mislead the public by stating that sexuality as “private” and not an issue in cross-border situations.

Yet, sexuality scholars like Luibhéid (2004) have pointed out otherwise. They argue that the State has very much made an intervention by structuring sexuality along heteronormative lines. For example, housing and shelter providers should consider sexuality and gender identity as the *cause* of homelessness among young people. In addition, transgendered individuals are challenged when sponsoring partners even after sex reassignment surgery and legal marriage in other countries (Chavez, 2011). Visible cues can betray queer applicants. Such cues could include the time of arrival to the port of entry (for example, just before pride parades), their belongings, third party informants, organizational affiliations and obtaining medical certificates that ask for a description of lifestyle practices (Luibhéid, 1998). In the case of obtaining such certificates, this procedure implies that medical practices provide a venue for homophobia to be “mobilized, channeled and legitimated” (Luibhéid, 1998, p. 489) in official medical discourse. Given the historical and controversial practice of medical professionals classifying and

diagnosing homosexuality in the United States, the presence once again of screening out homosexuality is indeed troubling and eerily reflective of a dark past that traumatized queer people. In response, just as Freire and Faundez (2001) warn about “denying your origins” (p. 190), queer asylum seekers engage with this structure to denounce their home countries as being *backwards* and *unproductive* in exchange for American “beneficence” (Cantu, Luibhéid & Stern, 2005; Solomon, 2005).

There have been additional responses to structural violence described in the literature. Pointedly, resistance movements against hetero-privilege emerge as a way to assert agency (Mizzi, 2010). Performative tactics such as ambiguity, trickery, wordplay, and small non-truths all characterize the lives of queer immigrants (Fisher, 2003; Randazzo, 2005). As Randazzo (2005) points out, these strategies are similarly found in home countries as survival skills gained from living in homophobic communities. For example, introducing same-sex lovers as “best friends” at weddings blur the boundaries of sexual categories (Fisher, 2003). Having said this, I observe here that there is a popular misconception that the new environment will be respectful to sexual-difference. Queer immigrants looking for a more “free” society towards homosexuality are sometimes disappointed at the amount of violence that persists towards queer people in the new environment (Kuntsman, 2009). In one research project on Russian-speaking queer people who immigrated to Israel, the study participants shared how they became homesick when they uncovered similar forms of homophobic violence in Israel that they thought they had escaped by leaving Russia. In this specific case, the act of being excluded from enjoying privileges afforded to heterosexual people terrified these immigrants, considering that they also faced ethnocentric violence based on their foreign identity (Kuntsman, 2009).

In short, the literature clearly outlines many of the challenges facing queer immigrants. From social exclusion to structural violence, queer immigrants have endured a long struggle in their adjustment to their new environment. I now discuss some of difficulties facing immigrant adult educators.

### **Difficult Encounters of Immigrant Adult Educators**

The literature on immigrant adult educators describes a struggle in the classroom between (a) students adjusting to their foreign educator, and (b) the educator trying to navigate through classroom practices while adhering to immigration-related policy directives (Amobi, 2004; Collins, 2008). More specifically, in several related studies on immigrant adult educators, most students stated that they were challenged by their educators’ foreign accents and limited vocabulary, while a minority of students made adjusting to accents a part of the learning process (Alberts, 2008; Liang, 2006; Marvasti, 2005). As Marvasti (2005) writes, “Language, even accent, may be used as a proxy for an individual’s level of skills and lead to prejudice and discriminatory behavior in the work environment” (p. 154). Although Marvasti’s (2005) point here is an important consideration that speaks to a narrative of student resistance in the classroom, there were other types of marginalization described in similar studies. In particular, Schmidt (2010) found in her study on the experiences of immigrant teacher candidates at a College of Education in the United States that there was evidence of discrimination, contradictory hiring and salary standards, intolerance of dress, hostility toward certain pronunciation patterns of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers, and anti-immigrant discourses in College of Education classes (see also Ezer, 2006; Manrique & Manrique, 1993).

Educators’ responses to being “othered” in their own classrooms remain mixed. On one hand, adult educators seek institutional support, such as the provision of workshops and other forms of training, to help acculturate them to their classroom (Manrique & Manrique, 1993). On

the other hand, some immigrant educators marginalize students in order to re-affirm their dominant power in the classroom (Li, 2006). In her study on immigrant, female scholars in higher education, Li (2006) found that her study participants influence power relationships that “perpetuate the positioning” (p. 119) of immigrant, female educators by their minority students who poorly treated their educators. Perhaps this continued distancing takes place as a result of difficult immigration processes that have caused immigrants to feel undervalued, marginalized, and unwelcomed in their new environment (Collins, 2008).

Collins (2008) indicated that some of the problems faculty members immigrating to the United States include obtaining Green Cards, handling cultural differences, and coping with loneliness. In addition to this specific study, Elbaz-Luwisch (2004) noted in her study of Russian teachers immigrating to Israel that the experience of crossing borders has led to an increased institutional dependency, feeling like an imposter in the classroom, and self-regulating behaviors in accordance with the new sociocultural environment. I observe here that there is little institutional response to the immigrant instructors. In both of these cases, immigrant educators have had to deal with adjustment difficulties, which places strain on the relationships with their students.

Turning a disadvantage to an advantage is an important step here. In one autoethnography, Li (2006) describes her adaptation to the new environment as an opportunity to develop a new sense of self and gender identity. Li also reaffirms a social responsibility to educate and equip students on understanding the various deployments of power and mutuality, so that students and faculty share an increased connection and are able to support each other. From this point, I bridge the two discussion points of being queer immigrants and immigrant educators and assert some recommendations to address some of the challenges that may arise when crossing borders to work in a new environment.

### **Literary Analysis**

Learning about sexiles in the classroom means critically understanding and interrogating the fundamental differences that implicate queer immigrants teaching in new environments. Although specific situations of these sexiles is absent in the literature, some observations can be extrapolated. One observation is how difficult the immigration process may be for queer people. Queer immigrant educators may not weather this transition so well and could require assistance that is highly specific to their needs. Providing support outside the classroom (for example, peer support or mentoring schemes) and inviting the unique perspectives that these educators possess could be positive steps. However, it may take more than just placing rainbow stickers on doors and windows to invite safe and respectful discussions on sexual-difference. These queer-positive public statements may have little meaning for immigrants who do not understand or connect to Western-oriented forms of inclusion and rights of queerness.

Analyzing the experiences of immigrant educators in the literature reveals a theme of resilience. By reflecting and engaging in her experiences and deliberately reaching out to others, Amobi (2008) turned her “otherness and difference into uniqueness and self-affirmation” (p. 177). She eventually learns and gains acceptance as an instructor in pre-service teacher education. In response to the pressure to conform to the new sociocultural environment, Amobi comments that playing safe does not serve any good to an immigrant educator and, in fact, limits one’s growth.

One course of action would be for institutions to promote multi-cultural awareness and sensitivity as an effort to reduce tensions and to support queer, immigrant educators in their transition processes (Manrique & Manrique, 1993; Schmidt, 2010). Situated in a College of

Education context, Schmidt (2010) writes, “To combat the resulting employment discrimination, teacher education faculties have a crucial role to play in emphasizing—through teaching, fieldwork, and research—the numerous contributions immigrant teachers offer schools and wider communities” (p. 250). I observe here that institutions need to be comprehensive and inclusive when it comes to considering the lives of immigrant educators. To be inclusive not only considers the racialized experiences of immigrants, but views their lives through gender, sexuality and other identity markers.

Other recommendations in the literature include mentorship and facilitation from junior and senior faculty to assist with transitions and adjustments. In addition, adult learning institutions should put forth actions for leadership personnel to: (a) become more aware of the related challenges, and (b) implement programs that assist foreign faculty transition to their new work context (Collins, 2008; Liang, 2006; Marvasti, 2005). In relation, Marvasti (2005) writes, “Steps should be taken [at the institutional level] to improve faculty teaching effectiveness, to change stereotypic perceptions, to support fair and equal treatment of foreign-born faculty, and to promote cooperation among faculty, students and administration with foreign-born faculty” (p. 169). Cooperation could mean incorporating immigrant voices in all aspects of teaching and learning. It could also mean that both non-immigrant and immigrant educators create awareness of language-differences in their classrooms, gain further insight about their professional attitudes, and learn how to create a more just and inclusive society through welcoming positive aspects of different cultural backgrounds and experiences (Ezer, 2006).

### Conclusion

An analysis of experiences of both queer immigrants and immigrant adult educators in the literature has suggested that certain knowledges (for example, life in their homelands) become suppressed during the migratory processes. For educators, these encounters with crossing borders affect their teaching practices. In part, this is due to the power-filled and powerful discourses that occupy educational situations. Yet, the literature also suggests that some structural barriers act as another form of marginalization. Although the literature on queer immigrants is indeed descriptive and informative, to view their experiences through professional lenses as being educators adds another layer. Equity discourses create very little change if they do not consider the sociocultural realities that make up individual lives. Consequences could result in a reduction of quality teaching and learning experiences for students and lower expectations for job satisfaction among immigrant educators. The experiences of sexiles in the classroom provide one avenue to re-consider how equity discourses shape individual lives and how they can be better able to provide support.

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## **Job-Embedded Graduate Education for Teachers: Working Intensively in High Needs Schools**

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**Abstract:** The researchers in this study analyzed the self-identified leadership skills and key indicators of leadership as revealed by the written narratives of a group of teacher leaders. These teachers are graduates of a job-embedded, on-site degree program that uniquely combines collaborative professional development and school reform.

Within the continuum of teacher development, graduate degrees offer teachers the opportunity to study pedagogy, deepen content knowledge, and/or explore new certification areas. Traditionally, coursework is a solitary endeavor; teachers pursue this education alone on their own time. Courses and assignments are designed to deepen individual understanding, and, at best, are useful to each student in his or her context. In these programs, instructors design courses for an imaginary, typical student without specific knowledge of the professional context of the student. Teachers in these courses must make connections between their graduate coursework and their professional lives independently. Additionally, instructors rarely know if new knowledge and strategies are applied in the classroom, or if students merely complete assignments as academic exercises (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

This session describes a graduate program that is directly embedded in the daily lives of teachers. The associated university faculty connect to the schools where their graduate students teach. The graduate students are in cohorts with other teachers in their district; they collaborate and support each other in making connections between their coursework and their practice. Course assignments are explicitly tailored to the contexts of teachers who apply what they are learning in their classrooms and at their schools. In addition, assignments are connected to current school reform initiatives and those assignments embed teacher learning research into strategies and initiatives at the school and in the district.

A college of education in a major southeastern university has pioneered this program as a component of school reform strategies in partner schools around the state. Begun in 2006, this endeavor is one of the first of its type in the nation with an initial set of graduates from two school districts completing the eight semester degree program in 2008. The degree program is organized around three major goals: to develop teachers as leaders, researchers, and pedagogical experts. In this study, a research team analyzed portfolios and teacher and principal interviews to discover the perceived impact of the program on student (child) learning, teacher knowledge and practice, and school improvement.

In this paper, university faculty who provide this “job embedded” graduate program describe the program and the operational definition of “job-embedded.” Further they discuss the impact of this program on teacher knowledge, student learning, and school improvement. Because there is little available research on the impact of job-embedded graduate programs on practice and student learning and because this graduate program is viewed as a school reform strategy in the college’s partner schools, the study is situated within the literature on school reform and professional learning communities, constructs that provide the philosophical and

theoretical foundation of this program. The purpose of this qualitative study was to investigate the impact of the TLSI graduate program on the development of teachers as leaders within their schools.

### **Theoretical Perspective**

A major flaw of current school reform strategies is that they are often based on individualized assumptions rather than systems approach (Fullan, 2003). While professional development might be necessary to increase the knowledge and skills of individual teachers, reform efforts fall short if they neglect to focus efforts on improving the context in which teachers and students learn. Professional learning communities (PLCs) are increasingly viewed as an essential way to organize schools in an attempt to both maximize professional development and foster school reform (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Louis & Marks, 1998). In support of this, Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) have argued that the professional development potential of PLCs can move teachers beyond the acquisition of new knowledge and skills toward helping them to rethink and reinvent their teaching practices. This prospective benefit of a PLC is rooted in the notion that its essential characteristics – shared values and norms, a clear and consistent focus on student learning, reflective dialogue, deprivatizing teaching practices, and a focus on collaboration – create a fundamental paradigm shift in the existing institutional structures of schools (DuFour, 2004; Louis & Marks, 1998; Newman and Associates, 1996).

When professional learning communities are embedded within what teachers are already doing and they become the structure for professional development, teachers can customize their learning to reflect the context and the curriculum of the given school environment in which they operate daily (Sparks, 1997; Sparks & Hirsh, 1997; St. John, Ward, & Laine, 1999; Supovitz & Christman, 2003). Ultimately, this has the potential not only to change teaching practices but to influence student learning positively (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Louis & Marks, 1998).

Teachers in the program learn and practice the leadership skills necessary to facilitate effective PLCs (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Early in their graduate education, they lead their school colleagues in teacher inquiry, lesson study, and analysis of student data. Further, in assignments they continuously reflect on the performance and effectiveness both of their facilitation and of the PLCs they coach.

### **Context**

This study was done in a large Research I university. The program was designed in partnership with an endowed center (hereafter referred to as the Center) in the College of Education. The mission of the Center is to work in under-resourced schools and communities serving linguistically and culturally diverse children. Since 2005, the Center has worked in elementary schools in multiple districts. For this session, researchers have studied the performance of their graduates in two communities: one a rural, migrant farming community and the other a major city. This job-embedded graduate program was implemented as one of multiple reform strategies in nine struggling schools with the ultimate goal of improved student and teacher learning. All partner schools are Title I with 90% language minority students, high teacher turnover, and a history of low achievement.

Teachers in the Center partner schools are eligible to earn a master's or educational specialist degree in Teacher Leadership for School Improvement (TLSI). Research-based and grounded in the context and practice of teaching, the program is organized around leadership, teacher research, and pedagogical expertise. Teachers become leaders as they learn to facilitate PLCs, advocate for students, and conduct inquiry into their own practice. Additionally, teachers

apply and demonstrate mastery of the core elements of powerful instruction as evidenced by measurable improvements in student achievement.

A unique feature of the TLSI program is the professor in residence. Each district has one or more designated university faculty members who work in partner schools with teachers and with the school leadership teams. Teachers enroll in online courses developed by university faculty and they meet bimonthly with their professor in residence to work intensively on course content.

The TLSI program differs from a traditional graduate program in its structure, environment, and success measures. While a traditional graduate program is usually campus-based with field experiences separate from coursework, the TLSI program utilizes blended delivery and is job-embedded to link coursework to classrooms. Unlike traditional programs that often foster individual competition, the TLSI program encourages a collaborative learning environment (Schmoker, 2004) with extensive peer coaching, modeling, and examination of student work. Lastly, the measure of success and intended outcomes of a typical graduate program is earning a degree and/or state certification. This program increases student achievement, builds faculty effectiveness, retains teachers, develops professional learning communities and improves school culture in service of the goal of school reform (Fullan, 2006).

### **Method**

The sample consisted of 25 participants from 9 schools who completed the requirements for their master's or educational specialist degree in 2008. The data collected consisted of: self-reported reflections, portfolios, and interviews. Teachers throughout the duration of the course work were prompted through guided questions to reflect on the job-embedded program's impact on their pedagogical practices. These self-reported reflections also served to heighten the awareness of the teacher's professional growth.

As part of the program requirements, participants produce an extensive portfolio focused on the synthesis of their classroom and educational experiences documenting their emerging expertise in the areas of teaching, research, and teacher leadership. The materials included in the portfolio provide a reflective look at the change process experienced by each participating teacher as they completed the graduate program.

The researchers also interviewed 16 of the graduates to provide clarification and further data regarding experiences and perceptions of changes in pedagogical practices. In order to yield diverse stories that are typical of the teachers who enter the program and to provide the researchers with a range of experiences we purposely selected individuals who would provide "information-rich cases" (Glesne, 1999, p. 29). To triangulate teacher perceptions with external data, researchers interviewed three principals in schools with large cohorts of TLSI graduates. The purpose of these interviews was to determine perception of school administrators related to impact of the TLSI graduate program on teachers and school culture.

Inductive analysis was used to search for patterns and or trends. In addition researchers examine the larger impact of the TLSI graduate program on the schools where these teachers work.

### **Results**

Preliminary analysis found evidence of substantial growth in the following areas:

- **Leadership:** Teachers in the TLSI program developed as leaders in school reform efforts. Principals and teachers report increased teacher leadership as a direct result of teacher participation in this program, as well as from trainings and support from the Center

related to school reform efforts. The professor-in-residence was critical in identifying emerging teacher leaders and finding opportunities to exercise that leadership.

- Educational Research/Inquiry: As a result of this program, teachers have adopted an inquiry stance in their professional lives. Portfolios highlight multiple examples of teacher research; principals report the increased use of inquiry to examine individual teacher practice as a form of teacher professional development; and teachers report migration of inquiry use to peers not in the program.
- Pedagogical Expertise: Teachers report educating peers about content areas they have studied. They provide extensive evidence of PD sessions on differentiated instruction, cross-cultural communication, backward design of units, and educational technology. Principals recognize this expertise, and increasingly call on graduates for assistance with school-wide PD.

Furthermore, graduates of this job-embedded program report that the following programmatic structures were essential in furthering their learning:

- Regular face-to-face meetings to complement online learning,
- Professor in residence to connect graduate learning to school-wide initiatives and reform strategies,
- Course sequence beginning with teacher inquiry and ending with teacher leadership,
- Expectation for collaboration among teachers in the graduate program,
- Assignments purposefully linked to ongoing school-based initiatives and programs,
- Portfolio development courses to encourage reflection and connection,
- In-class analysis of school data collected by the Center as part of overall reform initiatives that formed part of course assignments.

#### **Educational Significance**

Graduate program designers and faculty members hope that the knowledge and skills taught in their programs have impact beyond the creation of a well-designed course project. This study provides evidence not only of the application of knowledge and skills learned in a job-embedded program, but also in the development of leadership capacity in the schools with a cohort of graduate students. The TLSI graduate program is a catalyst for school change that goes beyond individual gain to a shared focus on the learning of all children and improving the practice of all teachers in a school. Although the focus is on teacher quality, student achievement is the ultimate goal of any high quality graduate program. As outlined here, teachers and principals clearly see the benefits of this job-embedded program for themselves, their peers, their students, and their schools as a whole.

As a caveat, the program studied is expensive: job-embedded structures have high costs especially when situated within larger school reform strategies. However, every PD experience carries costs, and if positive outcomes can be defined clearly in terms of improvements in student learning and teacher practice, the costs can be weighed in terms of benefits. In this study we examine the program benefits. Future studies should examine the costs of such programs as well as long term impact on student achievement on high stakes tests and other measures of student performance. Districts around the country are searching for systemic approaches to comprehensive reform. Job-embedded graduate programs are one way that universities can respond; by designing programs integrally connected to the contexts of teachers, the application of theory into practice can be realized simultaneously with a focus on whole school improvement.

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## **Digital Literacy: Definition, Theoretical Framework, and Competencies**

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**Abstract:** This paper offers an overview of existing definitions and theoretical frameworks for digital literacy. The researcher makes recommendations for an agreed upon definition and theoretical framework and discusses implications for a relationship between digital and visual literacy skills.

For some time now, new perspectives on literacy, and the learning processes through which literacy is acquired, has been emerging (Herbert, 1991). While there is agreement that a new set of 21st-century skills involving technologies are needed for literacy, there is little consensus about precisely what knowledge and abilities are necessary for people to be digitally literate (Ba, Tally, & Tsikalas, 2002). To obtain a consensus, there must be an agreed upon definition for digital literacy and an identification of its particular competencies. For this to happen, two initial steps must be taken: (a) Begin the development of an instrument designed to identify the major dimensions of digital literacy, and (b) conduct an initial validation study of this instrument. This paper offers an overview of existing digital literacy definitions, frameworks, and competencies; makes recommendations for the refinement of a digital literacy model that includes visual literacy as a core skill; and discusses implications for a relationship between digital and visual literacy skills.

### **Purpose**

As technology pervades every aspect of our lives, the ability to navigate and successfully accomplish tasks through technology grows. Whether you are in primary, secondary, or post-secondary school, and whether you are employed or entering retirement, it is now necessary to have some technology skills both to communicate with the outside world and to perform administrative, creative, and educative tasks. The continued increase and use of online media content for information gathering also challenges the learner to organize and compose information in a nonlinear fashion while often integrating visual media to synthesize that information. This skill set is commonly called digital literacy. Digital literacy refers to the assortment of cognitive-thinking strategies that consumers of digital information utilize (Eshet, 2004). Other terms used alongside or sometimes synonymously with digital literacy include: 21<sup>st</sup>-century literacies, Internet literacies, multiliteracies, information literacy, information communication technologies (ICT) literacies, computer literacy, and online reading comprehension (ORC). Each term has particular definitions, but common assumptions bring them together under the same theoretical umbrella of new literacies.

Leu, Zawilinski, Castek, Banerjee, Housand, Liu, and O'Neil (2007) conclude that most new literacies, including digital literacy, share four assumptions: (a) new literacies include the new skills, strategies, dispositions, and social practices that are required by new technologies for information and communication; (b) new literacies are central to full participation in a global community; (c) new literacies regularly change as their defining technologies change; and (d) new literacies are multifaceted and our understanding of them benefits from multiple points of view. Leu, O'Byrne, Zawilinski, McVerry, and Everett-Cacopardo (2009) describe how new



literacies theory can function on two levels—upper case (New Literacies) and lower case (new literacies). Digital literacy acts as a lower case dimension to the broader more inclusive concept of upper case New Literacies. Research conducted in the various lower case fields such as digital literacy, information literacy, or online reading comprehension inform the larger field of New Literacies.

Ba and colleagues (2002) offer a broad definition of digital literacy. They describe digital literacy as a “set of habits through which youngsters use information technologies for learning, work, and fun” (p. 5). This definition is general, but sheds light on a key paradox in contemporary education; that is, the skills demanded for an increasingly technological and changing work-place are not being learned in school, but rather outside the sphere of the school environment (Beavis, Apperley, Bradford, O'Mara, & Walsh, 2009). As the Internet has become this generation’s defining technology for literacy and learning, classrooms have yet to take up Internet integration into the classroom or begin instruction in the new literacy skills the Internet requires (Leu et al., 2007). Currently, according to the International Association for K-12 Online Learning, Idaho, Alabama, Florida, and Michigan require students to take online education courses to graduate.

In light of this, policymakers must begin to recognize the pervasive growth of the Internet in education, work, and home settings as a reading comprehension (cognitive) issue, not just a techno-procedural one. Currently, no state in the United States measures students’ ability to read search engine results during state reading assessments, to critically evaluate information that is found online to determine its reliability, to compose clear and effective email messages, or to permit all students to use a word processor on the state writing assessment (Leu, Ataya, & Coiro, 2002). In 2009 the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), known as our nation's report card, excluded online reading comprehension from the 2009 NAEP reading framework. The *digital divide* between school, home, and the workplace is highly problematic, creating a discord between the learning experiences in each environment. Educators need to correlate students’ digital literacy habits from their personal lives with instructional practices in school (Leu et al., 2011). This correlation will begin to address the disconnect that exists between home and school technology use and make curriculum more relevant to student’s lives.

The purpose of this paper is to illustrate the need for researchers and educators to agree upon a digital literacy theoretical framework and its accompanying competencies. This will permit educators to design curriculum that is effective at teaching digital literacy skills.

### **Literature Review Methodology**

The author queried numerous databases including ERIC, ProQuest, EBSCOhost, FirstSearch, and Google Scholar using the terms: 21st century literacies, Internet literacies, digital literacies, new media literacies, information literacy, ICT literacies, computer literacy, and ORC (online reading comprehension). Bibliographies of relevant articles served as a source of content for the review as well. The author highlighted material available in English and published within the last 8 years. The author expanded his search to include information literacy mission statements for colleges and universities across the nation. Digital literacy theoretical frameworks and information literacy mission statements and/or frameworks were analyzed for commonalities and differences. The author synthesized these various approaches and made suggestions for the development of a digital literacy framework and its competencies and suggests implications for a relationship between digital and visual literacy skills.

### Definitions and Frameworks

Primary, secondary, and post-secondary schools have arrived at definitions of information literacy through their library systems. Presently, most institutions use a definition of information literacy that focuses on research skills such as posing a question, identifying appropriate sources, finding, evaluating, or synthesizing information, or using it in a product (American Association of School Librarians, 1998). Information literacy has a history of focusing on such research skills, but as a result of changing and evolving technology use, this research model needs to be expanded to a more holistic definition that includes more competencies and be re-defined as digital literacy.

The Florida Department of Education (Florida Dept. of Education, 2005) developed the FINDS research process model as a framework for its information literacy curriculum standards for media specialists. The FDOE has broken the research process model up into five overarching themes: focus, investigate, note, develop, and score. All of the indicators in this framework are important skills, but are limited to the finding, retrieval, and synthesis of information in a research context. Following in this vein, the 2011 Florida International University Library Instruction Program Information Literacy Vision Statement asserts that “the libraries seek to promote information literacy by educating students to understand the organization of knowledge, gather data of all kinds using both print and information technology resources, and evaluate the relevance and authority of information in all its forms” (para. 4). The 2011 Hunter College of New York Information Literacy Mission Statement asserts:

Information literacy enhances the pursuit of knowledge by preparing students to think critically and use information for their academic, professional and personal lives. The information literate individual can recognize the need for information, can locate it using a variety of media and technologies, and can evaluate information in order to use it effectively. Information literate students have the flexibility to take these skills from their formal education and use them throughout life as citizens and professionals and as a means toward continued learning. (para. 4)

This is another example of a research-based focus, though Hunter College does address the bridge between technology use in school, work, and the home.

Libraries have been leaders in defining information literacy at schools because their environments have been in the forefront of the transition from printed text to digital text. Unfortunately, a focus on research competencies as a core framework does not encompass the full set of skills that can make a student fully successful in a digital environment. Following are definitions for digital literacy that not only encompass the important capacity for research skills but also include concepts of visual and media literacy, non-linear thinking, and collaborative/socio-emotional skills. The 2011 Association of Colleges and Research Libraries, American Library Association states that

Information literacy is a set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information. Information literacy also is increasingly important in the contemporary environment of rapid technological change and proliferating information resources. In addition, information is available through multiple media, including graphical, aural, and textual, and these pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding it. (para. 3)

The inclusion of graphical, aural, and textual elements that pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding addresses the issue of new additional skills that are necessary for consideration when defining information literacy.

The University Library at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign uses a broad definition of digital literacy stating that digital literacy is (a) the ability to use digital technology, communication tools or networks to locate, evaluate, use and create information; (b) the ability to understand and use information in multiple formats from a wide range of sources when it is presented via computers; and (c) a person's ability to perform tasks effectively in a digital environment. Literacy includes the ability to read and interpret media, to reproduce data and images through digital manipulation, and to evaluate and apply new knowledge gained from digital environments (University of Illinois, 2011, para.1).

The University of Illinois' definition also goes beyond the finding, retrieval, and synthesis of information. The third bullet from the above definition mentions concepts of images, reproduction, and digital manipulation as parts of digital literacy. This broader view takes into account that a computer is a graphic interface that often gives information, directives, and cues not just with text but also with images and symbols that need to be deciphered. One can make the argument that to be digitally literate one must also be visually literate (Jones & Flannigan, 2006). It is important to begin to acknowledge the fact that digital media represents cultural forms that are inextricably connected with other visual and audio-visual media (Buckingham, 2007). The continued use of computers and other digital media places a strong emphasis on not only visual literacy, but media literacy skills as well when considering the skills needed to become digitally literate. Current media literacy frameworks can serve as a good foundation for the development of a digital literacy framework.

The United Kingdom Office of Communications (Ofcom, 2006) defines media literacy as "the ability to access, understand and create communications in a variety of contexts" (p. 7). Media literacy as defined by Ofcom (2006) and broadened by Buckingham (2007) indicates some of the issues that might be addressed in applying this framework to the World Wide Web to create a digital literacy framework. For Buckingham (2007),

approaching digital media through media education is about much more than simply 'accessing' these media, or using them as tools for learning: on the contrary, it means developing a much broader critical understanding, which addresses the textual characteristics of media alongside their social, economic and cultural implications. (p. 49)

In response to these trends in research, Eshet-Alkalai (2004) created a five-skill holistic conceptual model for digital literacy. This framework, expanded in 2009 to include six skills, offers a useful way to begin creating assessment tools that can be used to increase research and better understand what core skills are representative of effective digital literacy. Eshet-Alkalai and Chajut's (2009) framework consists of the following skill sets:

- Photovisual literacy is the ability to work effectively with digital environments, such as user interfaces, that employ graphical communication.
- Reproduction literacy is the ability to create authentic, meaningful written and artwork by reproducing and manipulating preexisting digital text, visuals, and audio pieces.
- Branching literacy is the ability to construct knowledge by a nonlinear navigation through knowledge domains, such as in the Internet and other hypermedia environments.
- Information literacy is the ability to consume information critically and sort out false and biased information.

- Socioemotional literacy is the ability to communicate effectively in online communication platforms such as discussion groups and chatrooms.
- Real-time thinking skill is the ability to process and evaluate large volumes of information in real time, such as in computer games and chatrooms.

The definition for photo-visual literacy created by Eshet-Alkalai (2004) is limited and should be expanded to include a set of abilities that enables an individual to effectively find, interpret, evaluate, use, and create images and visual media. This broadened definition addresses the role images play in the conveyance of information in the digital age and the need to synthesize that information visually as stated in the reproduction literacy definition above.

Eshet-Alkalai (2004) concludes that digital literacy is more than the ability to use software or operate a digital device; it includes a large variety of complex cognitive, motor, sociological, and emotional skills. This shapes his framework into a holistic tool that includes three strands: technical-procedural, cognitive, and emotional-social skills (Aviram & Eshet-Alkalai, 2006). Eshet-Alkalai (2004) states that the

technical-procedural refers to basic computing skills necessary to operate technology using modern graphic interfaces; surfing the Web in non-linear ways, cognitive deals with pedagogy issues when considering digital literacy such as comprehension, critical reflection, and creativity while emotional-social skills is concerned with the social media aspect of computing in contemporary society. (p. 94)

This holistic view of digital literacy recognizes that the use of technology, specifically the Internet, is a reading comprehension issue, not just a techno-procedural one. Eshet-Alkalai (2004) proposes to use this theoretical framework as a diagnostic and evaluative tool for use in creating precise, user-directed products.

Eshet-Alkalai arrived at this theoretical model from a study in 2002. In order to investigate various aspects of digital literacy, three groups of participants were selected that included ten high school students, ten college students, and ten adults. All participants were given assignments that required performing the ability to use different kinds of digital literacy skills. For example, to measure branching literacy, participants were asked to plan a trip to a foreign country by using information from the Internet. The tasks were assessed through observation and the completion of rubrics by observers. Because of the small sample used in this group and the qualitative methods used for analysis, it is difficult to infer results to a larger population. These limitations can be addressed through further research attempts using this theoretical model.

### **Implications**

Recent work by Leu et al. (2008) suggests that online reading comprehension is not isomorphic with offline reading comprehension. The technology that exists today has brought about a number of important shifts of emphasis in terms of literacy (Merchant, 2007). One of the most critical and obvious is a move from fixed to fluid texts where reading and writing paths have become non-linear in contrast to linear historical texts. Furthermore, the increase in leaner use of online media content for information gathering challenges the learner to organize and compose information in a nonlinear fashion while often integrating visual media to synthesize that information. These shifts pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding information and necessitate additional skills for effective literacy.

Eshet-Alkalai's (2004) definition of digital literacy and a hybrid of the five-skill holistic conceptual model can be used gain consensus creating assessment tools that can be used to increase research and better understand what core skills are truly representative of effective

digital literacy. Only through continued research can we come to a consensus on what those demands and skills are and begin to develop assessments of digital literacy skills that are reliable, valid, and easy to score. Researchers must then consider how an understanding of the range of skills that comprise digital literacy might be useful to the learning of literacies in educational settings. Educators, curriculum writers, and policymakers can then begin making the necessary adjustments to literacy curricula taught within schools.

### Conclusion

Technology growth and evolution has brought about a number of important shifts of emphasis in terms of literacy over the past two decades. One of the most critical and obvious is a move from fixed to fluid texts where reading and writing paths have become non-linear in contrast to linear historical texts (Merchant, 2007). Other shifts include the development of interwoven texts through the use of such devices as textual hyperlink, reading and writing paths that are becoming non-linear, and text that has become more densely multimodal (Merchant, 2007). These shifts pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding information and necessitate additional skills for effective literacy. These shifts also offer evidence that online reading must be considered a new form of literacy with its own set of demands and skills that are both techno-procedural and cognitive in nature.

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## **Implementing Writing Support Circles with a Cohort of Graduate Students: A Pilot**

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**Abstract:** Writing Support Circles are a series of workshops intended to create a community of learners who work together on improving their academic writing with guidance of a facilitator. The purpose of this paper is to share the results of a pilot study of implementing Writing Support Circles with a cohort of graduate students.

“Writing can be a miserable chore, a difficult undertaking, and a challenge that produces growth and satisfaction – all at the same time” (Rocco, 2011, p. 3). This is true for all adult writers, including experienced scholars, novice researchers, and graduate students. The latter group of adult learners, graduate students, is in a difficult predicament in terms of their academic writing. Academic writing refers to works “written for a specific audience and attempts to put forward a well balanced view about the topic under investigation. It constantly refers to published work (with appropriate referencing), theory and results” (White, 2000, p. 133). Often faculty expect students to come to their graduate programs with academic writing skills sufficient to excel in their studies. Unfortunately, this expectation is incorrect. In their national survey, Baer, Cook, and Baldi (2006) found that only 40% of students graduating from 4-year colleges are proficient in knowledge and skills required to search, understand, and use information from magazine articles, newspapers, and instructional materials and only 38% are proficient to use information from maps, tables, and product labels. Whether students go to graduate school immediately after completing their undergraduate degrees or after a few years of work, they bring this lack of research and academic writing skills proficiency to their graduate studies and struggle with producing quality academic writing. For example, Switzer and Perdue (2011) in their writing center at Oakland University observe that two-thirds of graduate students lack the skills needed to conduct a comprehensive literature review and to identify significance in their own research.

This lack of academic writing skills among graduate students has been a problem in a college of education at a large southeastern public research university where the project described in this paper was implemented. To address this lack of academic writing skills, a new service, Writing Support Circles (WSCs), was designed and implemented for a small group of Latina students supported by a grant as a pilot program. WSCs are a series of workshops intended to create a community of learners who work together on improving their academic writing with guidance of a facilitator. The purpose of this paper is to share the results of a pilot study of implementing WSCs with a cohort of graduate students.

### **Our Inspiration**

We drew our inspiration for WSCs from several projects around writing, including the Bay Area project, the National Writing Project, and *Writing without Teachers* by Peter Elbow (1973). The Bay Area Project was founded in 1974 as a collaboration between the Graduate School of Education at the University of California, Berkley, and the Bay Area schools. The

Project is grounded on the idea that “teachers are the best teachers of teachers” (Bay Area Writing Project, n.d., para 1). Therefore, the project aims at training teachers to facilitate mastery of writing skills of other teachers, the mastery that they take into their schools to facilitate writing skills of their students.

The National Writing Project (n.d.) “is a network of sites anchored at colleges and universities and serving teachers across disciplines and at all levels, early childhood through university, is the only federally sponsored project that targets teaching writing” (para. 4). The National Writing Project aims at teaching teachers how to write. One of the core principles of the project is that writing is a skill that needs to be taught, not just expected of teachers to have, and that teachers should receive support in understanding how to teach writing in their classrooms in different grades and all subjects.

Elbow (1973) popularized two ideas. First, writing includes letting go of precise planning and controlling of what to put on the paper and instead simply starting writing with free writing. Such free writing allows for “chaos and bad writing” (p. xvii) and also helps the writer to generate ideas and think about the topic. After free writing is complete, the writer examines free writing, sorts through and organizes the ideas. Second, students can improve their writing on their own by working with peers and without instruction or supervision of a teacher. Students should share their writing with peers in a friendly atmosphere where peers try to understand the writing and provide feedback to make writing better.

#### **Description of WSCs**

We designed our program for the WSCs based on Vopat’s (2009) writing circles for children. Vopat’s writing circles intend to help children learn how to write, edit, and publish their writings on different topics in groups. This process involves collaboration and discussion among group members, guidance of an adult facilitator, and delegation of responsibilities among the group members for carrying out different aspects of the process. The process is intended to have the participants become “engaged in the joy of sharing and responding to writing” (p. 4).

The idea of the writing circles for children has been adapted by many groups of adult writers and for many purposes. Some examples include poetry (Philadelphia writing circles, n.d.), emotional healing (e.g., Writing circles for healing, n.d.), and faculty collaboration on publications (e.g., Borden & Tessman, 2008), to name a few. Some of these writing circles are created on a volunteer basis and some require a financial commitment (e.g., Write Well University, n.d.). Regardless of the purpose, “what connects them all is the sharing/response dynamic, the positive paradox of the solitary writer as collaborative participant” (Vopat, 2009, p. 5).

We adapted Vopat’s (2009) idea of the writing circles to provide graduate students support with academic writing. The WSCs consist of a group of 3-4 students who meet bi-weekly for a 1.5 hour session to discuss issues related to English grammar and academic writing. How writers “plan, draft, revise, review, and edit their work are generally hidden from” others (Richards & Miller, 2005, p. 3). WSCs are designed to demystify these processes. WSCs are designed in a way where graduate students could learn with each other and from each other how to craft their papers with the guidance of a facilitator. WSCs do not focus on helping students with homework but rather on equipping them with transferrable skills related to writing that they can use when working on projects for different classes or beyond the required coursework.



## **The Pilot**

### **Participants**

The participants were 11 female master's students, a cohort of a federally funded grant at a large southeastern public research university, which is a Hispanic-Serving Institution. The participants represented different age and marital status groups. They were all Hispanic/Latino. As members of the same cohort, the participants were enrolled in 2 education courses during the pilot study. All participants were required to attend WSCs as a part of their obligation to the grant.

### **Preparation**

Because WSCs are offered as an academic support service for graduate students who also have full-time jobs and family responsibilities, determining times and days and the frequency of the meetings was done in collaboration with the students. At a preliminary meeting, the WSC participants were asked to complete a form to indicate what days and times were best for them and, if possible, form groups of 3-4 students. Some groups were formed at the meeting; others were formed by the WSC facilitator in accordance to the days and times indicated in the form.

### **Design**

During the first WSC session, the facilitator explained the purpose and the structure of WSCs and asked students to sign an agreement to the ground rules. The ground rules included such issues as attending all meetings of the WSC, staying with one WSC and not coming to meetings of other WSCs, coming to the meetings on time and staying till the end of the session, completing all tasks assigned to do at home by the agreed deadlines, reading his/her peers' work and providing feedback by the agreed deadline, responding to his/her peers' and facilitator's emails in a timely manner, and participating in the WSC evaluation process/providing feedback to the WSC facilitator. Also, each group was asked to choose a name to help the participants create a sense of group identity. The names included "hot mamas", "azucar", and "warriors." The names were used by the facilitator in email communication with the students.

Each WSC session started with a 5 minute mini lesson to discuss certain aspects of English grammar and academic writing. The topics of the mini lessons could be around any issue related to writing, for example, paragraph structure, cutting the clutter, parallel construction, writing purpose statements, understanding different types of literature, documenting sources, and following the guidelines of the American Psychological Association (2010). For each mini lesson, a 2 page handout was provided to the students. The handout usually included the purpose of the mini lesson, definitions of terms, explanation of issue(s), examples, and an exercise. After the mini lesson, each group discussed their writing samples. A few days before the sessions, each group was sent an email reminder to send the facilitator drafts of their writing assignments. During the sessions, these writing assignments were put on the screen. The students read each other's writing assignments and critiqued them with the guidance of the facilitator. Revisions were made in track changes, and the revised documents were sent back to the groups after each session.

## **Results**

During the first and last sessions, the participants completed a writing self-efficacy survey. After the last session, the students again completed the writing self-efficacy survey and the WSC evaluation survey.

### **Writing Self-Efficacy Survey**

During the first and last sessions, the students completed a writing self-efficacy survey, which is based on Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) and aims to evaluate student perceptions of

their writing skills. We acquired permission from the first author of the survey to use the instrument. The original instrument included 25 statements related to one's perception about writing abilities. These statements needed to be ranked on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). We added seven qualitative questions to the original quantitative survey. Examples of the questions include, "How do your instructors view your writing skills?" and "What are your short-term goals for improving your writing?" The survey went through 3 rounds of review by doctoral students who did not participate in the WSC program. The WSC participants were asked to complete the survey in the paper and pencil format.

Out of 11 pilot participants, only 7 completed the instrument during the first and last sessions. The results show that writing self-efficacy of these 7 students as a group increased by 3%. The largest increase in student self-efficacy occurred around question 21 ("When I have written a long or complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors") by 8 points and question 23 ("When I edit a complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors") by 6 points. Both of these questions relate to the student ability to edit their papers, which is one of the main goals of the WSCs. Student self-efficacy also grew some other questions:

- Question 5 ("I can write a brief but informative overview that will prepare readers well for the main thesis of my paper") by 5 points and 15 ("I can write very effective transitional sentences from one idea to another") by 4 points. Both questions relate to the student ability to write effective paragraphs, which was the goal of the first mini lesson of the pilot.
- Question 18 ("When I want to persuade a skeptical reader about a point, I can come up with a convincing quote from an authority"), which relates to the student ability to cite sources, by 4 points. This topic was discussed in the WSCs sessions when the students were critiquing each other's papers throughout the pilot.
- Question 10 ("I can meet the writing standards of an evaluator who is very demanding"), which relates to the student ability to understand an instructor's expectations and was an integral part of the design of the WSCs, by 4 points.
- Question 6 ("I can use my first attempts at writing to refine my ideas on a topic"), which also relates to the student ability to organize and focus their papers, by 3 points.
- Question 12 ("I can rewrite my wordy or confusing sentences clearly"), which relates to the student ability to eliminate redundancy and wordiness and was discussed in the second mini lesson of the pilot, by 3 points.
- Question 13 (When I need to make a subtle or an abstract idea more imaginable, I can use words to create a vivid picture"), which relates to student ability to wordsmith their works and was an integral part of the design of the WSCs, by 3 points.
- Question 2 ("I can start writing with no difficulty"), which relates to the student overall comfort with writing, by 3 points.

## WSC Evaluation Survey

After the last session, the students were also asked to complete the WSC evaluation survey, which aims to evaluate student experiences with the WSC. The survey was put into the qualtrics survey software, and the link to the survey was emailed to the participants. Out of 11 pilot participants, only 8 completed the instrument.

The survey consisted of 3 parts. The first part included 5 questions related to participant satisfaction with the structure, pace, and usefulness of the workshops, the knowledge gained, and the effectiveness of the facilitator. To answer the questions, the students rated their satisfaction on the scale 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The results of the first part of the instrument are provided in Table 1.

Table 1  
*Results of the first part of the WSC evaluation survey*

#	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I am satisfied with the structure of the workshops.	1	1	4	2	0
2	I am satisfied with the pace of the workshops.	1	3	2	2	0
3	I am satisfied with the usefulness of the workshops for my writing needs.	2	1	2	3	0
4	I am satisfied with the knowledge I gained from the workshops.	2	2	1	3	0
5	I am satisfied with the effectiveness of the facilitator.	4	1	2	1	0

The second part of the survey consisted of only one question asking the students to rank their overall satisfaction with the WSCs on the scale of 0 (very dissatisfied) to 10 (extremely satisfied). The lowest ranking was 2 and the highest was 9. The mean was 5.63.

The final section was open-ended and asked students to write their comments and suggestions. Only 5 participants provided their responses in this section. The responses were mixed. Most were very positive, “The Writing Support Circle was very interesting and useful for improving my writing” and “The writing Support Circles was a very useful and positive experience. I would like to request that during fall we can keep having them on Saturdays.” Negative comments related to the students’ dissatisfaction with not receiving credit for their participation in the WSCs and with WSCs not directly related to their course assignments.

### Discussion

The students struggled with understanding that their writing quality was not good. For example, one group member responded to the following question in one of the course assignments, “Do you agree or disagree with Ball’s method of instruction for even and odd numbers?” by writing: “I think that when you proceed to questioning along with the students in order for them to get to their own conclusion, it can make everything that is supposed to be

concrete very vague.” This participant and other group members felt so convinced that the response was clear and that the facilitator did not know good writing that they stayed an additional 30 minutes to debate the point. The debate lasted for 45 minutes. One of the main arguments was that the facilitator did not see the video with Ball’s method of instruction and that is why the facilitator could not understand the response. Therefore, the students do not understand that writing should be able to stand on its own, that sufficient information should be provided for any reader to understand the writer’s message, regardless of the purpose of the written product. Another frustration came from the fact the student got an “A” for this assignment from the course instructor prior to bringing the writing sample to the WSC, so the facilitator’s critique was perceived as unfair. The students did not get enough feedback from their instructors about the quality of their writing assignments as evidenced by this example.

Because WSCs are offered as an academic support service and included critique of student class assignments, some participants misunderstood the purpose and expected the WSCs to help with their course assignments. Although student course assignments were used in the WSCs, proofreading and editing of each participant’s work was considered beyond the scope of the WSC. Even though the facilitator provided a clear explanation that the purpose of the WSCs is to equip the participants with transferrable skills related to writing, the participants struggled to see the value of WSCs if disconnected from the homework. The facilitator discussed the importance of good writing for them as teachers in their every day practice; however, the facilitator did not feel the students made the connection.

The facilitator attempted to link the WSCs to the two courses that the participants were taking at the time but not as successfully as hoped for. The facilitator received the course syllabus and samples of student work from one instructor and had two phone discussions with the instructor. Based on the discussions, the facilitator and the instructor decided that the WSCs should focus on paragraph structure to help students with their course assignments. The other instructor never responded to the facilitator’s inquiries for his course syllabus and expectations for student academic writing.

The students had difficulty understanding the final assignment given by the instructor who never got in touch with the facilitator. The final consisted of two parts and 7 questions that asked students to respond in a short essay or 2-3 paragraphs format. The students felt the assignment description was confusing. They could not see the difference between the two parts and some questions seemed repetitive. Therefore, the facilitator had to spend one of the WSCs sessions with two groups discussing this final. During these discussions, the facilitator also observed the students’ poor ability to read and understand the assignment. For example, the instructor explicitly asked students, “Support your ideas with reference to the textbook and other resources as needed.” However, the students did not notice this requirement and the two drafts that were critiqued during the WSCs sessions did not contain any references. The students, actually, seemed to be caught by surprise that they needed to cite sources in their final. Another observation was the students’ poor ability to understand what each question asked them to do. For example, one of the questions asked, “What science content, skills, and science attitudes (habits of mind) should be taught in your assigned grade?” The students failed to see that the question asked about three specific components: content, skills, and attitudes. Therefore, the responses in the two drafts critiqued provided vague responses that did not clearly address the three components.

The initial response of the WSCs participants to somebody critiquing their writing was usually negative. Often the students would defend each other against the facilitator’s critique.

Therefore, at times the facilitator felt that the atmosphere was “me vs. them”, as if the participants and the facilitator were in opposition. It takes time to learn to receive feedback in a constructive and non-defensive way. The WSC’s aim to create a spirit of collaboration among the participants and the facilitator failed because the groups met only three times during the term; the participants did not see the facilitator as an authority figure with valuable information and insights like a teacher, and these two elements combined to undermine the development of trust. Obviously, for those unfamiliar with a peer-review process or extensive feedback, creating such a spirit of collaboration and trust requires much time.

The students did not like to be required to participate in the WSCs without receiving any academic credit. The WSCs and the participants’ tuition were funded by a grant, which required the students to participate in the WSCs. Since the WSCs are an academic support service, the participants did not receive any credit or extra points in their course work for their participation. The involuntary nature of their participation probably contributed to the participants’ reluctance to receive feedback, and see the value of the WSCs and good writing beyond their course work.

### Lessons Learned

We learned several lessons from this experience. First, the agreement the students signed did not expressly state the purpose of the WSCs, so as time went on and the facilitator did not remind them at each session of the purpose, the students lost track of it. The students wanted direct assistance with the class assignments. However, while we tried to connect the WSC mini lessons and activities to the class assignments, we had difficulty securing the assignments ahead of time. We learned several lessons from this (a) the purpose needs to be written on the agreement, (b) some process needs to be in place in the college where instructors get feedback on their assignments to increase readability and understandability of the assignment, (c) the WSCs should deal more directly with improving the participant’s responses to their homework; (d) the administration needs to require instructors to communicate with the facilitators to improve the outcomes of the WSCs, (e) the administration needs to implement a program that teaches faculty how to grade written assignments, and (e) uniform expectations should be created around good academic writing across the college.

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## **The Use of Foucault in the Creation of Educational History: A Review of Literature**

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**Abstract:** This research creates a literature review. It investigates the viability of a using Foucauldian critical analysis in creating an educational history. It examines historical methods in education and Foucauldian theory looking for commonalities and offers suggestions on the usage of Foucault in creating history in education.

Michel Foucault is often used in education as a theoretical lens through which to view education. His philosophical theory is the basis of numerous far reaching books and articles. There is also another side of Foucault's work. Foucault was also a historian. History grounded Foucault's theory and is an integral part of the lens through which Foucault examined the institutions within France.

Research in the field of education tends to focus upon the present. Yet, it is necessary to examine the past to better understand the current happenings in education. A strong and vibrant historical analysis of a field is necessary to keep a field of research integrated within the society in which it exists. Additionally, historical analysis in a field that is directly influenced by political and social influences, such as education, discerns and critiques the "rational" and "unified" cultural understating of the field as presented by the media and political institutions. History takes a myriad of forms; not all of which are appropriate for the creation of this history for education. One of those forms is the critical theory of Michel Foucault, especially his methodology of archaeology.

### **Purpose of Review of Literature**

This literature review examines history as a method of educational inquiry. It traces a path through critical theory, a tool often used in education, and how it through the work of Michel Foucault can create an educational history. This literature review answers the following question: Is Foucauldian archeology an appropriate method for the creation of educational history?

### **Historiography**

Edward Augustus Freeman stated, "History is past politics, and politics are present history" (Cunningham, 1976, p. 245). Freeman's definition of history represented the view of history held for much of mankind's existence. Today the primary focus of historians has changed. James Harvey Robinson argued that Freeman's definition of history as the history of politics robs us of much of Man's past. Instead, in *New History*, Robinson (1958) explored how history comes to bear on the present. Howell and Prevenier (2001) agreed that history analyzes the past in order to better understand today adding that history cannot exist until it is written down. History ages. Stepping back from a work of history, one can have seen the characteristics of the timeframe in which that history was written (Bentley, 1999). Becker (1938) noted that Freeman's view of history is indicative of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, a time in which "the major problems of society were political and constitutional, a time when revolutions were primarily concerned with the form of government and the construction of the right kind of constitution" (p. 23). The

author's intent and theoretical framework became important in understanding the role of history within a timeframe.

Lovejoy (1938) described history as a study of ideas and their role in human affairs. Because of the focus on the idea, Lovejoy was able to break history down into 12 subcategories with one of those being the history of education. By categorizing history researchers have isolated the subject from the complexity of the totality of history in order to facilitate analysis. Lovejoy's delineation of appropriate topic of historical analysis validated the creation of educational history as a necessary field of inquiry.

Elton (2002) distinguished between three categories of historical inquiry: description, analysis, and narrative. Description accounts for the past without factoring in the dimension of time. No story is told; instead description gives a detailed account of a particular place or group of peoples (Elton, 2002). The second category, analysis, sets historical events into the wider context of "causal connections and motivations" (Elton, 2002, p. 109). Analysis arranges material into a topical structure, with the possibility of repeating events of a time frame based upon the events to individual topics. Analysis is free of the constraints of the timeline and therefore unsuitable to analysis of evolutionary forces.

Narrative writing uses time and is particularly suited to the analysis of evolution. Narration is accused of not reaching the depth of understand necessary for modern historical analysis (Burstyn, 1990). Eliot (2002) argued that through the usage of a compelling framework narration can be turned into a higher form of historical writing giving meaningful description to events of the past. This argument is consistent with Foucault's insistence on usage of the narrative form

White (1984) argued history necessitates a narrative. Narration is natural to man. This is not enough for narrative to be a scientific means of study. It must also be accompanied by analysis. "Historical narratives without analysis are empty, while historical analyses without narrative are blind" (White, 1980, p. 10). The narrative in conjunction with analysis makes history into a critical study. Although it does not have the testability or rigor of science, it gives insight into the nature of humanity.

White (1981) argued for a connection between narrative and discourse with the association having taken place through the interaction between author and reader. White contended events are only understandable through the context of the story. The story endowed the events with meaning. Thus the narrative becomes part of the discourse. The narrative having become something to be analyzed gives insight into the reality, descriptions, and analysis allows evaluative claims to be made (Stern, 1990). The story elements of the narrative have permitted holistic understanding of a subject under study.

Viewing history as a narrative necessitates a framework from which to view the narrative taking shape. These frameworks draw together the story elements of the narrative with the necessary analytical elements to transform the story into a historical discourse. These views of history reinforce a Foucauldian analytical framework to analyze educational history. The remainder of this work examines narrative frameworks relevant to said analysis of educational history and how history arrived at Foucauldian analysis.

### **Structuralism**

Structuralism has analyzed the underlying structure of a system, answering questions concerning the structure of what constitutes society (Runciman, 1969). Society as a system can be broken down into separate structures. These structures have an isomorphic connection (Runciman, 1969). Structuralism has focused on the bonds between the structures of society



(Rosman, 1970). History then has analyzed these isomorphic relationships that define a systemized society that can be recognized as a universally understandable whole (Runciman, 1969). Barthes (1975) argued that narrative conventions are revealed through language in the form of discourse. Through formal analysis of discourse, independent of subject matter, the narrative structure has been revealed (Kellner, 1987). Structuralism began Foucault's first major principle of emphasizing language and thus discourse.

### **Post Structuralism**

Post-structuralism used structuralist conventions to create social criticism. Post structuralism has taken on multifaceted interpretations of text, whereby subjective interpretations help researchers create an argument based upon the structural elements of the text that reproduce culture (Grenfell, 1996). The post-structuralist disentangled the rhetoric in order to access the underlying content deconstructing the written works to access the underlying truths.

Post structuralism has necessitated a narrative. It has assumed life takes a narrative form. Narratives are made of language. Language can be deconstructed; therefore, life, or reality, has the same possibility for deconstruction (Patterson, 1989). Discourse becomes a tangible element of life to be deconstructed. Discourse and its relationship to culture, its creation, and its changes represent reality, as these written forms of culture give voice to human consciousness and the conditions in which it exists (Patterson, 1989). It is this that the post-structuralist deconstructs.

Post- structuralism has given import to the interaction between author and reader. All texts can be read allegorically (Jones, 2000). The reader interprets the allegorical nature of the text, pulling meaning in support of his or her argument from the author's original intent relativizing discourse (Jones, 2000). O'Brien (1989) criticized this relativity claiming danger in relativizing all texts as we then surrenders all claim to explanations of how the present came to be. Post-structuralism is representative of Foucault's second major principle that the critique of a society can occur through analysis of its discourse

### **Discourse Analysis**

Harris (1952a) defined Discourse Analysis (DA) as "method for the analysis of connected speech (or writing)" (p.1). The concept of discourse is difficult due to the variety of conflicting and overlapping definitions used in academia (Fairclough, 1993). Discourse is generally defined as relating to written or spoken communication. To Fairclough, discourse was language to be analyzed. Linguistic analysis became a method to study social change. Social change transforms the discourse and thus allows for analysis (Fairclough, 1995). The discourse becomes a part of the social change, shaping the change.

Analyzable language has been divided into two distinguishable forms of discourse. Spoken discourse analyzed the relationship between the speaker's authority and the addressee. "According to Link, a discourse can be defined as 'an institutionalized way of talking that regulates and reinforces action and thereby exerts power'" (Jäger & Maier, 2009). Spoken discourse has used the sentence as the fundamental analytical unit. A dialogue is composed of more than a sentence, and thus a linguistic analysis of the relation of those units take place. Textual discourse involved reading. The interaction of the author and the individual reading is mediated by the text (Widdowson, 1979). The text creates a gulf that does not allow the speaker to further elucidate ideas. The addressee interprets and extrapolates their own meaning. This becomes the basis for social theories of discourse analysis used by Foucault.

The method of analysis goes beyond descriptive linguistics, as it continues the description beyond the realm of the sentence. When discourse is analyzed in chunk the size of a paragraph or larger the discourse begins to reveal the culture in which the discourse was

produced. Additionally, the analysis correlates the writing to both the overall language and culture (Harris, 1952a). DA analyses morphemes connecting sequences. Morphemic sequences allow for the creation of classes of equivalence and secondary equivalence. These classes are then broadened out to the text to examine consistency and create a structural picture of the text (Harris, 1952b). From this structural picture the text can connected cultural elements within the writing. Fairclough (1995) noted the linguistic analysis of Harris is in depth, yet the social theory was lacking and what existed gave little explanation.

DA can determine whether reality is objective or subjective in a written work or utterance or, as he puts it, “do the qualities of language... tell it like it is” (Bramer, 1970, p. 347). Since this early work in DA, a wide variety of methods and analyses of discourse have taken place (Rogers, et.al, 2005). In education, DA has been used to make meaning of educational context. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) created a framework that coded the linguistic patterns in the classroom of both students and teachers. Labov and Fanshel (1977) used DA with psychotherapy to create a therapeutic model of discourse. Grimshaw (1982) employed Labov and Fanshel’s model of DA to conversational peer interactions in education.

### **Critical Discourse Analysis**

Within DA lay Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in which texts are interpreted to understand societies power relations and the inequalities (Peräkylä, 2003). Bloome and Carter (2001) asserted a society’s power is embedded throughout texts. Careful and systematic analysis reveals the power and control mechanisms of society. Fairclough (2001) described CDA as having given

accounts – and more precise accounts than one tends to find in social research on change - of the ways in which and extent to which social changes are changes in discourse, and the relations between changes in discourse and changes in other, non-discoursal, elements or ‘moments’ of social life (including therefore the question of the senses and ways in which discourse ‘(re)constructs’ social life in processes of social change). (p. 1)

The subject of study in CDA relates to any social sciences because it analyzes a wide variety of power relationships and because it connects to a poststructuralist reading of texts. Ailwood and Lingard (2001) studied policy documents and use CDA to look at gender equality in Australian schools. Tainio (1999) used CDA to delve into personal power relationships between married couples.

Social theorists such as Habermas and Foucault analyzed discourse with the understanding that texts say more than the manifestation surface content holding a deeper latent bond between what is written and the social conditions surrounding those ideas. This bond needed to be examined and analyzed in order to find emancipation from binds of society. To Habermas, the emancipation of discourse improved the human condition of the *other* creating a better overall system (Brocklesby & Cummings, 1996). Foucault used discourse for the individual to emancipate himself or herself from subjugation. His analysis of discourse provided examples for individuals to self emancipate (Brocklesby & Cummings, 1996). Works of CDA become part of the discourse and are thus political acts that “destabilize authoritative discourse and foreground relations of inequality, domination, and subordination” (Luke, 1995/1996, p. 12). This links CDA to the ideas of post structuralism and Foucauldian analysis (Comber, 1997; Kumaravadivelu, 1999).

### **Foucault**

Michel Foucault’s style of inquiry played a driving role in the linguistic turn giving rise to post modernism, post structuralism, critical theory, feminist theory, and a host of other

alternative ways of looking at knowledge. The linguistic turn spread through philosophy, history, and the human sciences. Its progeny in these fields spread through out academia and by the mid-80s individuals like Apple and Gireaux introduced Foucault into education.

Numerous versions of what individuals consider Foucauldian, or Foucault inspired, have emerged due to the variety of subject matter and the duality and comingling of methodologies. Scheurich and McKenzie (2008) stated that no representation of Foucault exists or is possible. Numerous possible readings of Foucault exist and therefore numerous possibilities for a methodology based upon Foucault exist. Butin (2006) reviewed three books dealing with Foucault and education. His article demonstrated each author's divorce of Foucauldian theory from practice and thus reworking of Foucault for his/her own purpose. Thus there is no true Foucauldian theory besides its usage by Foucault himself.

Foucault argued meaning is encoded through the language used by the author. Anything with language can be deconstructed. The deconstruction of discourse surrounding a topic takes place in order to better understand the truth behind the discourse. These truths take the shape of new insight into power, knowledge, resistance, and subjectification of elements of the populace (Scheurich & McKenzie, 2008).

Foucault utilized three analytical phases he terms archeology, genealogy, and care of the self. Two of those, archaeology and genealogy, he also described as methodologies. To understand these methodologies certain terminology must be understood. Foucault wrote in French where the verb "to know" has two differing forms. Foucault took advantage of subtle differentiation of knowledge to make a large distinction. Foucault called these two interrelated types of knowledge, *savoir* and *connaissance*. In *The Archeology of Knowledge*, Foucault (1972) defined *savoir* as "different bodies of learning, philosophical ideas, everyday opinions, but also institutions, commercial practice and police activities, mores" (p. 261). Gutting (1989) described *savoir* as the "discursive conditions that are necessary for the development of *connaissance*" (p. 251). This is why Foucault studied *savoir* in his archaeologies. *Savoir* is "what makes possible at a given moment the appearance of a theory, an opinion, a practice" (Foucault, 1975, p. 261).

*Connaissance* is the formal body of knowledge. It exists within the *savoir*. It can be found in "scientific books, philosophical theories, and religious justifications" (Foucault, 1975, p. 261). *Connaissance* are as Gutting described them "particular bodies of knowledge" (Gutting, 1989). The *savoir* precedes the existence of *connaissance*. Once the *connaissance*, exists it is encompassed in *the savoir* from which it emerges.

Archeology traces a body of knowledge, *connaissance*, from its origins through to the modern representation of such an event. It is necessary to study the broader body of knowledge that allows the *connaissance* to exist (Foucault, 1975). In *Madness and Civilization*, Foucault traced the psychological distinction between madness and reason. He began at what he considered the origins of madness in the classical age and traces the subject through to the medical version held as the standard today. The progression was not linear, but "a complex series of transformations where the evolution of structures of social control gave rise to new forms of consciousness which in turn produce new forms of social control" (Khafila, 1972). Foucault placed madness within the greater framework of society and its workings. Thus the work took a narrative form.

Foucault termed his second methodology genealogy. Genealogy attempted to identify the truth inherent in the knowledge base of a subject matter. The mining for truth resulted in the recognition of dissenting views placed in the power structure of society (Shiner, 1982). Foucault

examined changes to the power structure that attempt to subvert dissenting views. He did this by comparing periods of time and examining the mechanisms of social control. In *Discipline and Punish*, Foucault described the differences between penal styles from one period to another. With the reduction of severity of physical punishment emerged new sets of controls with similar oppressive functions as the previous system of physical abuse. These new systems included the medical field, religion, psychology/psychiatry, and education (Foucault, 1975).

### **Foucault and Educational History**

Educational researchers tend to use Foucauldian ideas of genealogy as their lens through which to create social criticism. I suggest that in the specific instance of educational history researchers must instead look to the archaeology as the Foucauldian methodology of choice. Archaeology fits within the boundaries of the historical process as demonstrated earlier, while meeting the needs of educational researchers concerned with modernity.

Foucault's methodology of historical analysis has additional benefits specifically suited to education. Too often, educational research remains within interdiscursive relationships, interrelating only with the educational field (Olsen, 2004). Through archeology the impact of the research, especially historical research, is broadened into extradiscursive relationships, relating to the cultural complex of society (Olsen, 2004). Foucault argues that the *connaissance* is subsumed within and cannot be understood without the understanding of the larger *savoir*.

Archaeology inherently interlocks the exploration of an educational topic with the economic social and political practices of society, which is made evident through the discourse. The breaking of knowledge into discrete subjects is an administrative convenience that limits the researcher from full understanding (Hatlin, 1988). Lovejoy (1938), even in his creation of different historical subcategories warned of this limiting potential. He stated that his analytic categories are artificial and that the synthetic nature of categories while facilitates certain types of analysis also severs interrelatedness and limits analysis.

Massive changes in the educational system are taking place in America today. Political influences reshape the educational landscape through new systems of funding and evaluation as high stakes testing reshapes the curricula of the nation. Foucauldian archeology serves as a viable lens through which to create history in the field of education examining these changes. His work gives educational historians a way to examine the forces inherent in the underlying power structures of society to examine the effects of educational policy and reform upon the culture of the nation. Foucault's methodology gives liberty for the historian to place education within the larger framework of the society in which it is embedded. The archaeology allows that inquiry to look at all facets of effect while refraining from making judgment of truth inherent in genealogy. This usage goes beyond using Foucault simply as a framework for examination such as is usually seen in education. Instead it suggests that taking the totality of Foucault into account and using him to create histories of education stay truer to Foucault and better serve the field of education.

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## **Development of Knowledge Domains and an Instrument to Assess Probation Officers' Knowledge of Offenders with Intellectual Disabilities**

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**Abstract:** The purpose of this study was to develop knowledge domains and an instrument to assess probation officers' knowledge levels of offenders with intellectual disabilities by utilizing a synthesis of subject matter analysis technique and a comprehensive review of literature. Results can be used to develop effective training for probation officers.

The prevalence rates of Intellectual Disability (ID) in the United States are estimated to be approximately 1% to 3% (Scott, Lewis, & McDermott, 2006). However, rates of incarcerated populations with IDs in the United States criminal justice systems are between 1% and 30%, with the majority of the estimates being between 4% and 10% (Scheyett, Vaughn, Taylor, & Parish, 2008). Even though offenders with IDs estimated rates comprise a small portion of offenders among incarcerated populations, the numbers far exceed the 1% to 3% prevalence of individuals with ID found in the general population. Although there is minimal research exploring IDs within the offender population, the question of how to deal with offenders with IDs has been the focus of research investigations in recent decades (Lindsay, 2002; Sondenaar, Rasmussen, & Nottestad, 2008).

In addition, due to the national inconsistencies in standardized training, the role of probation officers in monitoring and supervising offenders with IDs has also gained the interest of many researchers (Sondenaar, Rasmussen, & Nottestad, 2008). Leggett, Goodman, and Dinni (as cited in Sondenaar et al., 2008) examined the act of being interviewed by the probation officer, from the viewpoint of offenders with IDs. This perspective was investigated through an interview of 15 offenders with IDs. Having the support and presence of an appropriate adult during the interview was identified as an important factor. In 28 interviews with court representatives, Cant and Standen (as cited in Sondenaar et al., 2008) studied how professionals perceive offenders with IDs. According to the results of the study, many professionals are fearful that an individual's IDs would go undiscovered unless that person was arrested. Because of professionals' identified concerns, improvements in the probation officers training and ability to properly assess these individuals were suggested.

As reflected in previous literature, there is a disproportionate amount of individuals with IDs on community supervision (Lindsay, 2002; Scheyett et al., 2008). Further, studies have highlighted the critical issues facing offenders with ID, the significant role probation officers play in supervising these offenders, and the national inconsistencies in probation officers' standardized training (Brodsky & Bennett, 2005; Sondenaar et al., 2008). However, a review of literature revealed no instruments or studies that assessed probation officers' understanding or knowledge of offenders with IDs. Due to the lack of clarity about the extent of adequate training probation officers receive on offenders with IDs, their level of knowledge and ability to identify subtle signs of IDs in offenders establishes the need for substantial further research and changes.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to develop knowledge domains and an instrument to assess probation officers' knowledge levels of offenders with IDs by utilizing a synthesis of subject matter analysis technique and a comprehensive review of literature. The results of the study can be used to add information to the body of literature to support a need to incorporate effective training material on offenders with IDs within training of probation officers. The following research question was addressed: How do you develop knowledge domains and an instrument that assesses probation officers' knowledge level of offenders with IDs?

### **Theoretical Framework**

#### **Establishing Knowledge Domains**

Subject matter analysis (SMA) is a technique for establishing and representing knowledge domains and skill. There are two components of subject matter analysis: the quest for agreement on the details of the knowledge of the master performer, referred to as the subject matter expert (SME), and the representation of it so that elements, structures and relationships are clearly depicted. SMA is concerned with what ought to be happening, with what performers must know to do the job optimally (Rossett, 1987). SMA is the dominant front end technique when one is charged with preparing new courses or modules for new products, technologies, and systems. Although SMA is one of the primary sources for training directions and developing knowledge domains, the phrase subject matter analysis is often unfamiliar and purposes are unclear. However, a recent body of literature supports the use of it.

**Education and SMA.** In recent literature, subject-matter knowledge of teachers has been approached more qualitatively. A greater emphasis has been placed on understanding of facts, concepts, principles, and the connection and organization of them. Even and Tirosh (1995) further averred that "effective" instructional behaviors tended to be connected with the level of subject-matter knowledge. In current studies, authors have found similar results in an examination of teachers' subject -matter knowledge development and its impact on teaching practices (e.g., Kind, 2009; Rollnick, Bennett, Rhemtula, Dharsey, & Ndlovu, 2008). Therefore, the use of SME knowledge in different aspects of education offers insight into real world contexts, a factor critical for learners to engage in the learning process.

**Rehabilitation Counseling and SMA.** Rubin, McMahon, Chan, and Kamnetz (1998) investigated priorities for rehabilitation credentialing and certification research in an era of health-care and disability policy reform. The experts on the panel were individuals in leadership positions in a rehabilitation counseling credentialing agency. Based on results of the study, high-priority areas highlighted were credentialing, role differentiation, outcome research, and practice trends.

A Delphi study was conducted by Currier, Chan, Berven, Habeck, and Taylor (2001) to gain expert opinions on how to define disability management practice functions at each level. Two groups of experts in disability management participated, a project advisory committee and an expert panel. Utilizing input from the advisory committee, a questionnaire was developed in phase I of the study. Results of the study proposed that many functions and knowledge domains were important to disability management practice.

The third study was conducted in the area of clinical supervision by Thielsen and Leahy (2001). The study's purpose was to identify the supervisory knowledge and skill areas needed to conduct effective field-based clinical supervision of rehabilitation counselors. The instrument in the study was developed by using a review of the literature and the Delphi method (Thielsen & Leahy, 2001). Eligible professionals included (a) experts chosen for their active contribution to



the rehabilitation counseling literature in the area of clinical supervision for at least 15 years, (b) members of the CRCC Supervision Committee, and (c) practitioners with extensive experience in field-based clinical supervision of novice rehabilitation counselors. Responses of the study were analyzed by using more than 400 content analysis responses. The results indicated that Certified Rehabilitation Counselors perceive that a substantial amount of knowledge and skills are necessary for effective field-based supervision of rehabilitation counselors (Thielsen & Leahy, 2001). According to the authors, the Delphi method has advanced the body of knowledge of the rehabilitation counseling practice.

### **Special Needs Assessments**

Special needs assessments are significant to success in the nationwide goal of overall improved individual achievement. Although there are no results of previous literature that focused on special needs assessments for probation officers in the criminal justice field, other professional literature such as special education and health care management have several instances in which their professions have used special needs assessments in order to help develop educators and administrators skills, improve classroom effectiveness, or for professional development.

**Special education and special needs assessments.** Praxis series provides online basic information about various areas in special education that is significant to all special education teachers. This information is covered in Education of Exceptional Students core content knowledge examinations (ETS, 2008). Topics covered on the exams are (a) history of the profession, (b) characteristics of individuals with disabilities or special needs, and (c) effective service delivery. Further, the Praxis series provides sample multiple choice and scenario questions to assist educators increase their level of proficiency in their profession (ETS, 2008).

**Health social care and special needs assessment.** McKenzie, Murray, Metheson, Higgon, and Sinclair (1999) developed a series of questionnaires to assess staff level of knowledge and understanding of learning disabilities. Overall results identified a low level of knowledge from staff on the characteristics of learning disability. Further, results suggested that this area needs to be addressed in more detail to ensure that health and social care professionals have knowledge and skill base which is up to date (McKenzie, McIntyre, Metheson & Murray, 1999).

### **Training Needs Assessments**

Kvarfordt, Purcell, and Shannon (2005) investigated juvenile justice staff training needs. A statewide survey of staff was conducted using a stratified cluster sampling technique. The purpose of the study was to assess juvenile justice staff levels of knowledge on youth with learning disabilities in the juvenile justice system. Based on results of the study, 96% of staff believed it was important that staff have knowledge about learning disabilities. Also, 81% of staff agreed that appropriate use of communication strategies will help increase success for youth with learning disabilities in behavior programs. However, fewer than half of the staff reported that they had not received any training about youth who have learning disabilities. Due to the over-representation of youth with learning disabilities and the inadequate training of the staff that directly work with these youth daily, staff training events was strongly suggested.

In more recent literature, training needs for substance abuse treatment and assessment among rehabilitation counselors have been investigated. Ong, Lee, Cha, and Arokiasamy (2008) reviewed rehabilitation counselors training needs and current practices in substance abuse treatment and assessment. Results yielded a statistically significant positive correlation between adequacy of graduate training programs perceived as poor and practitioners belief that they were

not competent in service provisions with clients. Change in training programs curriculum content and opportunities for continuing education were recommended.

Therefore, building on the fundamental basis of theoretical frameworks and previous researchers' questionnaire(s) and scoring criterion, knowledge domains were established and an instrument to assess knowledge of probation officers on offenders with IDs was developed.

### **Methodology**

#### **Sampling**

This non-probability sample consisted of five subject matter experts who were contacted and agreed to participate in the study. The participants consisted of three white males and two white females. Each of the subject matter experts had over 20 years of professional experience in the field of rehabilitation, IDs, or criminal justice. Two out of five subject matter experts had multiple years of experience in both the field of IDs and criminal justice. Further, three out of five experts had at least 10 peer-reviewed publications and two subject matter experts were licensed in psychology.

#### **Measurement**

In order to develop an instrument to assess knowledge that probation officers have about offenders with IDs, an establishment of knowledge domains through face-to-face interviews with SMEs were completed. SMEs were contacted via email, invited to be participants in the study, and provided an informed consent. Subsequent to agreeing to participate, the five subject matter experts were contacted via email to set up a time and comfortable setting to conduct individual face to face interviews (if possible) or via email depending on SMEs location. The interviews took place in the SMEs office or an alternate location recommended by the SME. The interview protocol questions were used as a guideline. In addition to the interview protocol question content, the target population's reading levels, use of professional jargon on instrument, and test-taking temperament were discussed during the interview.

#### **Procedure**

**SME analysis.** SME responses to interview protocol questions were recorded verbatim. The transcriptions were analyzed by using content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004). In the initial stage of analysis I obtained general concepts from each individual SME interview. These concepts were then put together to develop categories from each SME interview. The next stage consisted of analyzing categories across the SME interviews. This systematic analysis of text allowed for terms and the context of how the term should be utilized to be discovered during interviews. After the initial draft of categories and themes was developed, appropriateness of content analysis was approved and validated by three of the five subject matter experts.

**Comprehensive review of literature.** In addition to the subject matter analysis technique, an initial review of literature on knowledge levels of criminal justice staff on offenders ID in the fields of criminal justice, and rehabilitation counseling was conducted. The search yielded minimal to no results of previous literature that focused on assessing the knowledge levels of probation officers on offenders with IDs. Due to the gap in literature on this subject in the above stated disciplines, consultation and direction was sought from SMEs who had specialized knowledge in criminal justice field and IDs. Based on suggestions provided by SMEs, a supplemental review of literature in alternative fields that have conducted research on their staff levels of knowledge of patients or clients with IDs was performed through the following database search engines: (a) EBSCO host; (b) PSYCH info; (c) Education Psychology; (d) Health Care Management; (e) Special Education; (f) Praxis, standardized examinations for special educators; and (g) Psychology. The outcomes of the literature review suggested that

effective assessment of staff knowledge levels of IDs should include ability to (a) identify a clinical definition of ID, (b) recognize signs and symptoms of IDs, (c) respond appropriately to outburst and challenging behaviors, (d) identify prevalence rates of intellectual, and (e) exemplify practical knowledge of effective interactions. The assessment of probation officers' knowledge levels of IDs was developed in part with these knowledge domains in consideration.

**Instrument development.** According to DeVillis (2003) instrument developers should be clear about what is being measured and write items that reflect the instrument's purpose. Additional guidelines identified when developing items are (a) avoid unnecessary wordiness, (b) aim for items to be written at a reading level between fifth and seventh grade, (c) stay away from items that convey two or more ideas, and (d) avoid the use of multiple negatives (DeVillis, 2003). These guidelines were also taken into consideration as the first draft of the instrument items was written.

After initial draft of items was developed, appropriate content of items for the instrument was validated by subject matter experts. The SMEs were asked their opinions on whether items on instrument should be retained, modified, or deleted. An item was deleted from the instrument if a majority of the experts recommended deletion. As a result of SME opinions, four questions were deleted and five questions were modified. A revised copy of the *Probation Officer Knowledge of Intellectual Disabilities Assessment* included the suggested changes.

The *Probation Officer Knowledge of Intellectual Disabilities Assessment* is a 20-item multiple-choice instrument with seven demographic questions. The majority of the items are intended to reflect probation officers' knowledge of offenders with IDs. Item format is a mixture: some are queries about facts related to IDs, and other items are scenario-based and require participants to identify the most appropriate response to a situation based on their knowledge and experience. Additional items derived from categories that emerged from SME interviews' were also included in the assessment. These items were designed to assess officers' attitudes on interventions with offenders and views on the criminal justice organizational structure. Although there are varying levels of difficulty in items, the 6<sup>th</sup> grade average reading level of instrument was determined by subject matter experts' recommendations during the interview process and supported by a review of scale development literature.

### **Data Analysis**

Based on Rossett's (1987) subject matter analysis technique concept, structured protocol questions were developed to use as a guide for information to gather from SME interviews. This process is designed to help develop bodies of knowledge content. During interviews and discussions with SMEs, I recorded responses verbatim from each individual SME. After the completion of individual interviews, content analysis was used to make comparisons of each SME text were made and similar responses were grouped. The emerged content themes were recorded. To ensure accuracy of coding, the proposed themes and categories that were identified were sent to SMEs for review and agreement. Once SMEs concurred with the identified content, the themes and categories coding was applied to the data. In addition to the content analysis from SME interviews, a synthesis of results from SME interviews' content analysis and knowledge domains established from a review of health care, educational and psychiatric field literature on IDs was used to develop and validate items for instrument.

### **Results**

As a result of SME interviews, four central categories emerged (a) identifying behavioral characteristics, (b) appropriate responses to behavioral characteristics, (c) attitudes of probation officers, and (d) organizational structure.

Supplemental themes that emerged from SME's responses were that the developed instrument should (a) be free of jargon, (b) be written in simple language not above 6<sup>th</sup> grade reading level, (c) include 10-20 questions with scenarios, and (d) take officers no more than 20 minutes to complete.

In addition to the content analysis from SME interviews, a comprehensive review of literature was conducted. The outcomes of the literature review suggested that effective assessment of staff knowledge levels of IDs should include: (a) identification of a clinical definition of ID, (b) recognition of signs and symptoms of ID, (c) appropriate response to outburst and challenging behaviors, (d) identification of prevalence rates IDs, and (e) exemplify practical knowledge of effective interactions.

From the synthesis of these outcomes, the following three subsequent categories emerged on the instrument: (a) knowledge domains, (b) organizational structure, and (c) attitudes of probation officers.

### **Conclusion and Future Research Implications**

In an attempt to evaluate the research question addressed in this study, "How do you develop knowledge domains and an instrument that assesses probation officers' knowledge level of offenders with IDs?" The following conclusions were noted.

The successful development of three categories established content validity of the newly developed instrument. This was accomplished by using a group of subject matter experts and a review of literature. The synthesis of results from SME interviews' content analysis and knowledge domains established from literature review were used to construct items. The three subsequent categories emerged on the instrument.

#### **Knowledge Domains**

Based on a consensus from subject matter experts, knowledge of a single domain can be assessed in 10 to 20 items. After review of items by SMEs, subsequent deletions and revisions, this category consisted of 13 multiple choice items. The majority of content for items was developed from literature review of the following areas (a) identification of a clinical definition of ID, (b) recognition of signs and symptoms of IDs, (c) identification of prevalence rates of IDs and, (d) exemplifying practical knowledge of effective interactions. In addition, content analysis from SMEs was used to confirm information gathered from literature review.

#### **Organizational Structure**

During content analysis interviews, SMEs unanimously reported that it was important to discover what or who a probation officer believes significantly controls effective interactions with offenders who have an ID. Therefore, under this category, three items were added that focused on probation officers' general perception of control. Due to the gap in literature in the criminal justice field in this area, SME's recommendations of content were used to develop the items under this category. Because there was no literature to support an accurate response to items, only frequencies of probation officers' response were collected.

#### **Attitudes of Probation Officers**

Based on SMEs interviews content analysis results, it is important to determine probation officer's willingness to change. This level of motivation is often based on their attitude about (a) their knowledge level of offenders with IDs, (b) training in IDs, and (c) effective interactions with offenders with IDs. According to DeVillis (2003) likert scaling is used most often when measuring opinions, beliefs and attitudes. In order to avoid response bias, many scale developers decide to construct items that are written "both positively and negatively within the same scale"

(DeVillis, 2003, p. 69). With these guidelines in mind, items in this category were both positively and negatively worded. Frequencies of probation officers' response were recorded.

The development of this instrument provides professionals in the field a starting point for conversation about specific staff training needs regarding offenders with IDs. Prior to this research, no studies or assessments were identified that offered any support for training needs assessments on probation officers. Supervisors and supervisees in the criminal justice system can use content domains developed from subject matter experts' interviews to evaluate specific concepts and effective interactive approaches.

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## **Mentoring Experiences of Indo-Caribbean Immigrants in the United States**

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**Abstract:** This research explored perceptions of Indo-Caribbean protégés in cross-cultural mentoring experiences with White, Black, Black Cherokee, Indian and Hispanic mentors. Environmental forces, mentor influences, and knowledge sharing shaped these relationships. This research implies that mentors' and protégés' understanding of each others' values, beliefs, and attitudes enhance outcomes of the relationship.

The increase in cultural diversity from high rates of migration to the U. S. (Camarota, 2007) has resulted in mentoring relationships where either or both participants, that is, mentor and protégé, are from different ethnic cultures. Mentoring is defined as an “intense caring relationship in which persons with more experience work with less experienced persons to promote both professional and personal development” (Caffarella, 1992, p. 38).

In cross-cultural mentoring, mentors and protégés from different racial or ethnic cultures confront social and cultural identities, goals, expectations, values, and beliefs (Cross & Lincoln, 2005) in an effort to “achieve a higher level of potency in education and society” (Mullen, 2005, p. 6). Good cross-cultural mentoring relationships require participants' willingness to acknowledge and understand the experiences of those from diverse racial or ethnic backgrounds (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001).

Understanding diverse backgrounds leads to improved intercultural communication, enhanced flexibility, adaptability, unity and acceptance, awareness of differences, broader perspectives, emotional satisfaction, and increased creativity and productivity (Brinson & Kottler, 1993). Cross-cultural mentoring relationships encompass participants' “values, beliefs, and behaviors...defined by nationality, ethnicity, gender, age, physical characteristics, sexual orientation, economic status, education, profession, religion, organizational affiliation, and any other grouping that generates identifiable patterns” (Bennett & Bennett, 2003, p. 150). As a result, mentors and protégés confront a range of thinking styles, social and cultural identities, expertise and aspirations (Cross & Lincoln, 2005) which influence deference to authority, conflict management, assertiveness, self-concept and relationships (Marquardt & Loan, 2006).

### **Problem Statement**

Although demographics and migration patterns in the U. S. have changed, mentoring studies still focus on European Americans (Blake-Beard, 1999) and African Americans (Dickey, 1996; Jackson & Harris, 2007). Fewer studies explore mentoring of Latin Americans (Cavazos & Cavazos, 2010; Roland, 2008), Asian Americans (Henderson & Chan, 2005; Lew, Chang & Wang, 2005), and Native Americans (Portman & Garrett, 2005). Within these studies, protégés reported experiencing acceptance, visibility, increased achievement, socialization, trust and relationship building that enhanced their learning (Jeria, 2002; White, 2006).

Caribbean immigrants in the U. S. include descendants of Europeans, Africans, East Indians, Hispanics, Indonesians, Javanese, Chinese and native or Aboriginal Indians (Premdas, 1995). Indo-Caribbeans, descendants of East Indians who were taken to the Caribbean as

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indentured laborers, are now among the Caribbean immigrants who come to the U.S. each year in search of education, work and an improved life (Henke, 2001). No studies were located that explore the cross-cultural mentoring experiences of Indo-Caribbeans in the United States. As a result, there is a gap in the literature regarding the experiences of Indo-Caribbeans.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to examine Indo-Caribbean protégés' perceptions regarding their cross-cultural mentoring experiences in the United States to understand the nature of their mentoring relationships in the work force and in various learning environments.

### **Research Questions**

The primary research question is: How do Indo-Caribbean protégés in the U. S. perceive their cross-cultural mentoring experiences? Secondary research questions are (a) What factors do Indo-Caribbean protégés report that facilitate their successful cross-cultural mentoring relationships; (b) What challenges do Indo-Caribbean protégés encounter within their cross-cultural mentoring relationships; and (c) What mentoring strategies and practices do Indo-Caribbean protégés believe will help to enhance their professional development.

### **Conceptual Framework**

Mentoring relationships build intrinsic value for both mentor and protégé (Newby & Corner, 1997) in the form of development, relationship and understanding that occurs through constructivist, socio-cultural and psychological frameworks.

The constructivist framework develops as mentors provide opportunities for protégés to internalize new processes and construct their own knowledge and understanding to try out ideas, skills, and roles with minimal risk (Kaye & Jacobson, 1996). Mentors and protégés learn from each other through networking, counseling, guiding, instructing and modeling in the sense that they construct, create, invent and develop their own knowledge (Beyene, Anglin, Sanchez, & Ballou, 1996). Protégés' experiences serve as a lens for observations of the mentors' actions and allow protégés to form their own interpretation of situations from a more subjective stance, offering more meaningful, dependable, memorable beliefs and perspectives (Mezirow, 1991).

The socio-cultural framework of mentoring is grounded in collaborative learning which emphasizes that "the world about us defines who and what we ought to be as adults" (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 118). The protégé's world includes social supports, assistance, guidance and interactions with peers, experts, and teachers, i.e., physical contexts (Shi, Mishra, & Bonk, 2004), as well as classroom and institutional culture. Sociocultural factors that are embedded within minority groups may form barriers that lead to mistrust, caution, power relations, oppression, discrimination, judgment, and reduced opportunities (Brinson & Kottler, 1993).

The psychosocial framework is the internal value which develops through ongoing interpersonal dialogue, collaborative critical thinking, planning, reflection, and feedback (Galbraith & Cohen, 1995) between mentor and protégé. By serving as a role-model, encouraging and supporting new behaviors, providing safe and trustworthy counsel, and through shared or informal interaction, mentors enhance protégés' sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness (Kaye & Jacobson, 1996).

### **Research Method**

Phenomenology is used to explore the lived experiences of participants, regarding a specific concept or phenomenon (Creswell, 1998). It is "the systematic attempt to uncover and describe...the internal meaning structures, of lived experience [by studying the] particulars or instances as they are encountered" (Van Manen, 1990, p. 10). Using phenomenology was ideal



for this study as it supported in-depth data collection, using multiple sources, about the phenomenon of cross-cultural mentoring, to explore “the structures of consciousness in [protégés’] human experiences” (Creswell, 1998, p. 51).

Criterion and snowball sampling was used to recruit 15 participants for this study. A semi-structured interview guide that consisted of open-ended questions related to their cross-cultural mentoring relationships was used to conduct the interviews. The individuals in this study are Indo-Caribbeans from the English-speaking Caribbean, who at the time of these mentoring relationships were graduate students or working professionals. Pseudonyms have been used in all instances in order to protect participants. Creswell’s (2007) simplified version of Moustakas’s (1994) Modification of the Stevick-Colaizzi-Keen Method of Analysis of Phenomenological Data was used to analyze the data using an inductive and contextual approach.

### **Thematic Analysis**

The 15 participants reported on their perceptions as protégés in dyadic cross-cultural mentoring relationships with mentors who were European Americans, African Americans, and East Indian directly from India, Black Cherokee, and Hispanic. Protégés’ perceptions were shaped by East Indian traditional practices that influenced their approach to learning and education. Mentor influences were primarily shaped by ethno-cultural factors developed within the U.S., or in their native homelands. Three themes emerged from analysis of the data: (a) environmental forces, (b) mentor influence, and (c) knowledge sharing. The themes and sub-themes are presented below together with quotes from participants’ interview transcripts to support the findings.

#### **Environmental Forces**

Environmental forces refer to individuals within participants’ personal or professional spaces, as well as aspects of their environments that influence them in various ways. Environmental forces may empower protégés “intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (Ladson-Billings, 1994, p. 18). Participants’ immediate and extended families formed a huge segment of their environments which helped to shape the adults they became. Environmental forces that emerged from this study include (a) family influences, (b) cultural influences, and (c) external influences.

**Family influences.** Family influences refer to the learning, guidance and examples that participants observed among their relatives, both immediate and extended. Since learning and guidance begins within one’s immediate internal environment, one’s family, whether immediate, or extended, can serve as a person’s first learning environment. Protégés in this study spoke to how the support and actions of their families shaped who they became as individuals. They discussed the value their families placed on education, making sacrifices, and discipline; compassion, charity and giving; respect; and religion and spirituality. Participants shared that their upbringing taught them useful life lessons that they continue to practice even today in their own lives. They spoke to the discipline, respect, traditions and religious practices that were instilled in their parents’ homes.

**Cultural influences.** Cultural influences refer to the cultural beliefs, practices and patterns that participants were exposed to, or developed while growing up. At times, cultural influences were static or unchanged, and at other times they seemed to encourage flexibility and adaptation. Sita was very candid about her connection with her Indo-Caribbean culture: “You’re born into the culture; you can’t really shake it off. It’s like all the way around you, everywhere.

I feel like it's my every being" (lines 27-30). She attributes growing up in Trinidad to teaching her to be "tolerant of each other's differences, religions and colors" (lines 46-48).

**External influences.** External influences refer to assistance, guidance and interactions with peers, experts, and teachers and other individuals via classroom, organizational and institutional interactions. Mentors formed a part of participants' external environments. For some participants, having a mentor was a new and unexpected experience; for others, it was quite positive. Anu explained that she had not experienced having a mentor before. She shared: "I've never had that experience with someone who actually just took it on themselves...I didn't know what it meant to have a mentor. I didn't realize the importance of having one either...to just have someone take on that role" (lines 106-110). Anu's mentor was an Indian woman who migrated directly from India, and true to her culture, she assumed that as the more knowledgeable person, she should fill role of a guide for Anu.

### **Mentor Influence**

Mentor influence refers to the variety of ways that mentors affected the lives of their protégés. Mentors are typically more experienced and are able to influence their protégés within any given environment or scenario. Mentors provide guidance related to work, skill acquisition, and social or emotional support (Daloz, 1999; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Mentors who were White males or females focused on professional competence and visibility of protégés, whereas mentors who were Black, Hispanic, Black Cherokee, or Indian were far more empathetic and focused on relational bonds, empathy and expressing care and nurturance toward protégés. Mentor cross-cultural influences are reflected in the subthemes of (a) mentor qualities, (b) mentor advocacy and challenge, and (c) relationship.

**Mentor qualities.** Mentor qualities refer to the traits and behaviors that mentors exhibited toward protégés during their interactions in fields of medicine, science, technology, academic and social service. Mentors were described as supportive and nurturing, displayed good medical ethics, were interested, involved, generous, motherly, comforting, recognized, intelligent, dependable, knowledgeable and compassionate. Adversely, mentors were also hostile and unpleasant, displayed high tempers, and were sarcastic.

Arti's mentor displayed strong ambition as she focused on cutting edge trends and technologies, professional prominence in the field, and gender equality, and practiced good medical ethics, which helped Arti "cement what [she] believed in, in the first place" (line 328).

**Mentor advocacy and challenge.** Mentor advocacy refers to the encouraging and supportive roles or influences that protégés experienced with their mentors. Protégés reported how their mentors influenced, supported, and advocated for them in various ways during their tenure as undergraduate, graduate and doctoral students, and also professionally in the fields of social services, science and technology. As professionals, Kavi, Prema, Prad, Bina, Kara, and Maya found that their mentors engendered a sense of safety, understanding, support and growth through their interactions and daily involvement. Mentors served as coaches, were empathetic, taught them to prioritize, commended and recognized protégés for their successes, and empowered them to take risks and grow in their fields. Mentors' positive and encouraging actions instilled resilience and built confidence and pride in protégés.

Prema described how her mentor helped her overcome challenges that stemmed from her Caribbean background. She explained: "Growing up in Trinidad, it was like you're seen and not heard...you're not encouraged to express your feelings...you're not encouraged to do critical thinking" (lines 203-205). As a result, Prema took a long time to overcome her shyness, and this

affected her teaching, public speaking and other engagements. Eventually, with the support and encouragement of her mentor, Prema was finally able to engage as a speaker and facilitator.

Challenge refers to the adversarial attitudes that protégés perceived regarding their mentors. Participants described the struggles and sense of opposition that arose within their mentoring relationships in terms of the difficulties, confusion, aggression, antagonism, discouragement, and conflicts they experienced with mentors. Protégés explained that mentors showed aggression, were coercive, tended to be ambiguous or confusing, were discouraging or disrespectful, or displayed a lack of empathy. Such opposition formed barriers which felt overpowering, and sometimes overwhelming to protégés. Kavi, for instance, became frustrated; her mentor was constantly saying, “do this, do this, do this, [yet] I respected her so highly to the point that whenever she said jump I would say how high” (lines 145 -146). Kavi acknowledged that she frequently left work in tears because of her mentor.

**Relationship.** Relationship refers to the bonds, connections, friendships, shared values and sociability between protégés and mentors, reflected through social and cultural interactions. Participants described the shared understanding, bonds, kinship, connection, values, and social interactions that helped them to interact effectively, and in some cases, cemented their relationships into lasting friendships. Keya said, “We both understand the hardships from living in third world countries and understand that hard work brings success” (lines 27-29).

### **Knowledge Sharing**

Knowledge sharing refers to the ways that protégés obtained information through learning centered, professional or social interactions with their mentors. Protégés described how they learned from and with their mentors, and how they developed both personally and professionally. Mentors encouraged protégés to build upon their existing knowledge bases, and often, they learned or uncovered new information. Knowledge sharing was reflected in the subthemes of (a) learning and understanding (b) values, and (c) communication.

**Learning and understanding.** Learning and understanding refers to the capabilities, skills, and new knowledge that protégés developed through their mentoring relationships. Mentors helped protégés develop a sense of confidence and security, guided learning by being role models, and influenced thinking, reasoning and problem solving abilities. As a scientist, Prad learned about following proper protocols, negotiating, and handling conflict. He learned to be persuasive in negotiations and about the steps to resolving conflict, and understood the security and diplomatic challenges that existed in their field.

Mentors also shaped the professional development of protégés by building professional competence, comfort and knowledge in their fields to where they thrived, or in some cases, felt so relaxed they no longer sought promotions or professional growth. Reciprocal learning also occurred where protégés were able to share new knowledge with mentors.

**Values.** Values refer to the principles, standards and ideals that protégés came to appreciate and understand through their mentoring interactions and relationships. Participants learned about values such as acceptance and appreciation, goals, achievement and reward, continuous improvement, intrinsic or fundamental influences, strength and trust.

**Communication.** Communication refers to verbal, interpersonal exchange together with accompanying stances and accommodations that participants experienced and learned about within their mentoring relationships. Stances included the attitudes, both positive and negative, and accommodations included the responses and feedback that occurred.

Participants described the communication styles of their mentors, from whom they learned of effective communication practices they could emulate, or alternatively, of practices

they felt were inadequate, and ways to improve upon those. They learned directness from mentors' candor within verbal exchanges, and the value of feedback regarding performance of work or in response to questions asked.

Keya used feedback to improve her work; she contrasted her outlook to others who viewed feedback negatively, "as bad criticism" (line 135). Over time, protégés' communication skills improved in terms of their confidence, questioning abilities, attitude, and understanding. Although they encountered challenges at times, most were able to reconcile why they experienced conflict when communicating with mentors, and to devise ways to improve communication. Protégés gained confidence needed to make presentations to large groups; some found their voice and were able to stand up against arguments or rebuttals, and others still became confident enough to question and to seek more information to enhance their productivity.

### **Responses to Research Questions**

In this study, the mental models that participants constructed from familial relationships and interactions, scaffolded upon cultural foundations, shaped their experiences and learning (Gentner & Stevens, 1983). Because participants' educational goals and expectations were deeply ingrained, they sought mentors who could help them achieve their goals.

Protégés viewed mentor influences and shared knowledge as factors that contributed toward their successful cross-cultural mentoring relationships. On a professional level, they gained the confidence they needed to function effectively, and to thrive in their various fields. By being open and accepting to the opportunities and challenges within their mentoring relationships, participants were able to build bridges, allowing for growth, transition, and meaning making because of the connections and encouragement along the way (Kegan, 1982; Lave & Wenger, 1991). They viewed challenges as the struggles and sense of opposition that arose from mentors' adversarial attitudes and other constraints within their cross-cultural mentoring relationships.

### **Implications Academic and Professional Development**

Adult learners in the U. S. come from a multitude of racial and ethnic cultures. Cross-cultural mentoring requires an appreciation of other's beliefs, identity and culture. To create developmental relationships, mentors including faculty, advisors, religious leaders, and supervisors, and their protégés should explore each other's points of view to develop a stronger understanding of each other's needs and expectations by appreciating differences in values, beliefs, norms, or attitudes. Empathy and mutuality enables mentors and protégées to become more trusting and supportive of each other. Figure 1 suggests that a cyclical approach to cross-cultural mentoring be used so that mentors and protégés learn and grow from their relationships.

This approach suggests that ongoing open communication and assessment is needed throughout the mentoring cycle, and can be applied regardless of participants' ethnic cultures. The relationship should begin with a mutual discussion of needs and expectations. During the relationship, both mentor and protégé should openly collaborate about the relationship as well as the functional outcomes of their relationship. They should focus on regularly discussing, explaining, critiquing, empathizing and sharing their needs and concerns. In doing so, all challenges and issues are brought forward, and clarified in the spirit of ongoing improvement and open communication.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

Good cross-cultural mentoring relationships require participants' willingness to acknowledge and understand the experiences of those from diverse racial or ethnic backgrounds (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Based on this study, further research is needed to explore

the mentoring experiences of other less-visible immigrant cultures, especially from countries where there have been historical or forced migration, and multiple ethnicities as a result of tribal or clan based customs such as among Asian or other eastern nations. Exploring the mentoring needs of less visible immigrant cultures enables improved cross-cultural understandings, intercultural communication, enhanced flexibility, adaptability, unity and acceptance, awareness of differences, broader perspectives, emotional satisfaction, and increased creativity and productivity (Brinson & Kottler, 1993).

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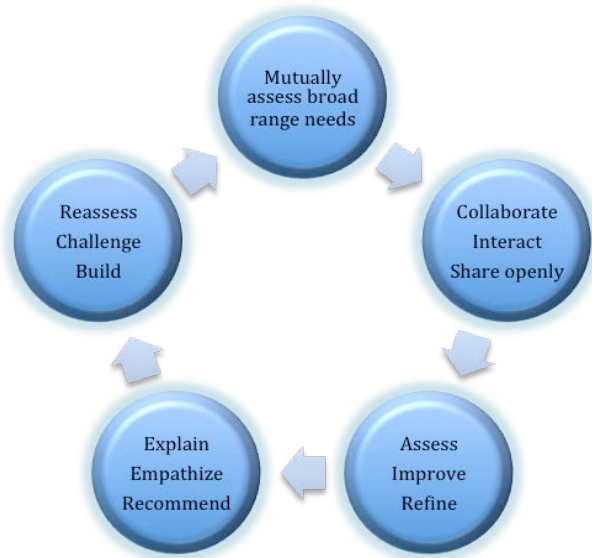


Figure 1. A cyclical approach to cross-cultural mentoring enables mentors and protégés to learn and grow from their relationships.

**College of Education and GSN  
Research Conference  
Symposia**



## Concerns of COE Graduate Students

**Co-Chairs:** Josh Collins and Carolyn Meeker

Carolyn Meeker  
305.348.1282  
[cmeeker@fiu.edu](mailto:cmeeker@fiu.edu)

Josh Collins  
469.371.5951  
[jcollins2012@gmail.com](mailto:jcollins2012@gmail.com)

Panel of graduate students will discuss various aspects of involvement with the College of Education and the overall environment of the College for graduate students. The purpose of the session is to facilitate a healthy dialogue about ways that the college can improve its practices and to reveal what we're already doing well. Chaundra Whitehead, President of the College of Education Graduate Student Network, will moderate the session.

5 potential panelists - 3 students; 2 faculty members:

Marisely Rojas

- Mariseley will address her perspectives as a master's student in the COE, as well as perspectives of the Higher Educational Administration program and being a Graduate Assistant at FIU.

"Jessie" Xuan Jiang

- Jessie will address her perspective at a doctoral student in the COE, as well as perspectives as a Teaching Assistant in the COE.

Iryna Dzhuryak

- Iryna will address her perspective at a doctoral student in the COE, as well as perspectives as a former board member of the COE Graduate Student Network.

Dr. Linda A. Spears-Bunton

- Dr. Spears-Bunton will address her own perspective as a Program Leader within the COE and provide advice as an experienced faculty member.

Dr. Linda Bliss, Faculty Member

- Dr. Bliss will address her own perspective as a faculty member who reads and reviews every dissertation that comes out of the COE.

## Virtual Mathematics - Higher Education for the 21st Century

### Chair:

Jennifer Hoyte  
 Florida International University  
 16734 91<sup>st</sup> Pl N, Loxahatchee, FL 33470  
[jhoyt002@fiu.edu](mailto:jhoyt002@fiu.edu)

### Justification

Technology is evident in many places today. From video games to cell phones, laptops to iPads, technology is becoming more and more accessible and, with it, the possibility of learning anything, anywhere. As the Internet made information from around the world accessible, advanced bandwidth technology is making information accessible in rich media formats. Interactions that were enacted only by text now are possible using chat, video, audio, and even avatars. 3D environments or virtual worlds have become popular as locations where avatars can interact and objects can be manipulated (Descy, 2008). Children of this “digital age” are used to the “plug-and-play” style of learning where a click of the mouse can change location, direction, or topic (Duderstadt, 1997). They are therefore opting for online education, as are many more adults as they balance the demands of work and life (Illeris, 2004). An online course is defined as one where over 80% of the content is delivered online (Allen & Seaman, 2008). As more academic leaders see the learning outcomes of online in a more favorable light, enrollments are rising dramatically. For the 2009-2010 school year, enrollments in online courses rose by almost one million students, representing almost 30% of all college students (Allen & Seaman, 2010).

Evidenced by a failure rate hovering over 60% (CBMS Survey, 1992; Small, 2006), online learners are still beset by some of the same issues that have plagued students in ground-based classes. For example, mathematics anxiety has long been documented as one of the major reasons for failure in mathematics courses (e.g., Aiken, 1970; Betz, 1978; Dreger & Aiken, 1957). Over the years various strategies have been found to reduce math anxiety in the classroom (Arnold, Shui, & Ellerton, 1996; Hembree, 1990; Perry, 2004), but these strategies have been geared towards traditional ground-based courses. However, with the call for the use of technology in education (American Mathematical Association of Two-Year Colleges [AMATYC], 2006), sophisticated tools are available and can be exploited to address math anxiety in online courses.

The purpose of this symposium is therefore to present a teaching model for the 21<sup>st</sup> century – a model that celebrates the autonomy of the learner while capitalizing on the new media-rich environment. The symposium opens by reviewing web-based programs being used in mathematics courses, then goes on to showcase how an online trigonometry course is designed. It closes with a discussion of how best-in-class features from existing models can be combined to address failure rates in algebra classes.

### Format of the Symposium

Introduction by Chair	5 minutes
3 mini-presentations	45 minutes
Summary and Questions	10 minutes

Hoyte, J. (Chair). (2012). Virtual mathematics - higher education for the 21st century [Symposium]. In M. S. Plakhotnik, S. M. Nielsen, & D. M. Pane (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 11th Annual College of Education & GSN Research Conference* (p. 177-181). Miami: Florida International University. Retrieved from [http://education.fiu.edu/research\\_conference/](http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/)

## Presentation Summaries

### **Web-based Programs Used in College Mathematics Courses**

Yanilda Espinal, MS

Miami Dade College;

11011 SW 104 ST, Room: 3245-9, Miami, FL 33176-3393

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As reported by the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE, 2005), mathematics is the subject with the largest percentage of students needing developmental education as well as the one with the smallest student success rate when compared to reading and writing. Mathematics faculty face an enormous challenge to teach mathematics concepts to students who are not only underprepared but also suffer from math anxiety, or low self-esteem as a result of previous failing experiences during their high school years. The incorporation of technology in teaching and learning mathematics has been stated in the philosophical basis, in the framework for the mathematics standards of the American Mathematical Association for Two Year Colleges, (AMATYC, 2006). The technology principle for school of mathematics states that “technology is essential in teaching and learning mathematics; it influences the mathematics that is taught and enhances students’ learning” (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 2011).

Benjamin Bloom believed that in order to help all students the instructional techniques and time have to be adjusted to their individual learning needs (Guskey, 2007). Guskey defines mastery learning as an instructional strategy that organizes concepts in instructional units followed by formative assessments and corrective feedback. The corrective feedback activities and testing in each component of mastery learning require an excessive amount of time that the traditional classroom does not have (Hoon, Chong, & Binti-Ngah, 2010). The integration of electronic platforms has been employed to facilitate the creation of multiple versions of each test, to schedule students at different times, to decrease the amount of instructional time for testing and to provide corrective feedback in the traditional mathematics courses (Boggs & Shore, 2004). Publishing companies are constantly improving their software to provide students with a more active learning environment.

MyMathLab, Mathzone, and Assessment and LEarning in Knowledge Spaces (ALEKS) are some of the mathematics software more commonly used by colleges and universities in the USA. MyMathLab is a web-site created by the Pearson Publishing Company that provides interactive tutorials, videos, grade book and online homework and quizzes (Pearson Education Inc., 2012). Mathzone is a web-site created by the McGraw Hill (2012) publishing company, and ALEKS is a web-based assessment and learning system for mathematics that uses artificial intelligence to accurately determine what the student knows and what he/she is ready to learn next (Hagerty & Smith, 2005; UC Regent & ALEKS Corporation, 2012). These web-based programs facilitate the creation of individualized modules as well as the monitoring of students’ progress. Thus, learning is changed from being passive to active and from instructor-centered to student-centered. Students increase their sense of responsibility for their own learning by maintaining a mastery level at each module or stage.

### **Online Instruction in Mathematics Courses: A Virtual Trigonometry Course**

Nelson de la Rosa, MSE, MSM

Miami Dade College (Kendall Campus)

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Enrollment in higher education institutions has followed an increasing pattern (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010). However, face-to-face instruction (direct contact) has not been able to accommodate the demand. As a result, most postsecondary schools are implementing some type of online-based instruction in their curriculum (Bower & Hardy, 2004; Gannon-Cook, 2010). It is a reality that cannot be ignored. In this presentation attendees will receive an overview of how professors at Miami Dade College are incorporating online instruction into the mathematics curriculum. Specifically, they will be informed of the aspects considered in designing an online trigonometry course geared towards enhancing students' academic experiences and decreasing anxiety levels due to lack of direct contact without compromising learning outcomes (Gannon-Cook, 2010; Phipps & Merisotis, 1999; U.S. Department of Education, 2009; Williams, Hricko, & Howell, 2006).

### **Student-Choreographed Learning: A Teaching Model for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century**

Jennifer Hoyte

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As universities become more learner-centered (Duderstadt, 1997), offerings need to be more in line with student needs, be it content or pedagogy. According to Duderstadt (1997), these offerings need to: (a) provide anytime, anyplace learning; (b) be interactive and collaborative in keeping with the digital age; and (c) meet the needs of a diverse population. Learners are seeking greater control over their learning, placing emphasis on (a) course content that is applicable to their lives, (b) interactivity; (c) being able to find information easily; (d) open-ended discussions; and (e) prompt, detailed feedback (Ke, 2010). Effectively, learners need to be able to, as it were, choreograph their own learning, in an interactive manner, yet stay in touch with the teacher for support as needed.

Though there may not be a cure for math anxiety, researchers are finding ways of constructing mathematics education that avoids its trigger situations. It is therefore hoped that by bringing together the insights derived over the years and the new level of interactivity possible with current technology that even greater gains can be realized in the effort to raise achievement in algebra. With the availability of enhanced technological interaction, accommodation can be made for exploratory learning styles along with the traditional step-based, pattern-matching styles.

The purpose of this presentation is therefore to propose how a greater alignment can be achieved in an online algebra course between teaching methods and such diverse student learning styles.

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## Posters

### **Does Parental Attachment Before, During, and After Coming Out Affect Gay Individuals Psychopathology?**

Roberto L. Abreu & Melody Whiddon, Florida International University

### **Challenging the Student Life Skills Agenda and Exploring Pathways to Increase Academic and Social Capital**

Michael Baugh, Florida International University

### **The Effect of Guided Notes on the Responses of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders**

Carolina Charria, Florida International University

### **In-class Positive Reinforcement Incentives for Attendance**

Herbert E. McArthur, Jr., Florida International University

### **The Effects of Graphic Organizers on Higher-Order Thinking Skills**

John J. Monda, Florida International University

### **The Affect of Accelerated Math on Academics**

Caridad Morfa, Florida International University

### **Reading and Writing in Relation to Preschool**

Natalia Smith, Florida International University

### **Utilizing Internet-Based Activities to Increase Student Interest and Acquisition of Biology Content**

Sara Tosado, Florida International University

# Appendices

**The 11th College of Education & GSN Research Conference 2012 Program**

**The 12th College of Education & GSN Research Conference 2013 Call for Papers**

**The 12th College of Education & GSN Research Conference 2013 Call for Symposia**

**The 12th College of Education & GSN Research Conference 2013 Call for Posters**



Florida International University  
The Eleventh Annual College of Education and  
Graduate Student Network  
Research Conference  
Saturday, April 28, 2012



*The Cornerstones of the College of Education: Honoring Inquiry,  
Promoting Mentoring, and Fostering Scholarship*

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The purpose of the Florida International University Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference (COERC) is to enhance the existing research culture. The conference provides a meaningful vehicle for the preparation, mentorship, and presentation of scholarly work by students, faculty, and alumni.

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**FIU** | Education

**Be Worlds  
Ahead**

	8:00 – 8:30 a.m. Registration & Light Refreshments	Bayview Ballroom Room 214
	8:30 – 9:30 a.m.	Bayview Ballroom Room 214
<p><b>Welcome</b></p> <p>Tonette S. Rocco <i>Chair, Conference Steering Committee</i></p> <p>Teresa Lucas <i>President, UFF-FIU</i></p>		
<p><b>Morning Keynote:</b> The Privatization of Higher Education</p> <p><b>Tom Auxter</b></p> <p>Tom Auxter is statewide president of United Faculty of Florida, an AFT-NEA affiliate, which represents 23,000 faculty and graduate assistants at eleven public universities, nine public colleges, and one independent university. He has been a philosophy professor at the University of Florida since 1973, after receiving a Ph.D. in philosophy from Bryn Mawr College. He is the author of <i>Kant's Moral Teleology</i> and over two dozen articles in ethics, the history of philosophy, and the philosophy of culture. In 2010, he published "Radical Transformations in Higher Education: Where Do We Go from Here?" in <i>Thought and Action</i>.</p>		
<p>9:40 – 10:25 a.m. <i>Symposium 1, Concurrent Sessions 1 &amp; 2, and Poster Session 1</i></p>		
Symposium 1	Concerns of COE Graduate Students	Room 117
	<p><i>Moderator:</i> Chaundra Whitehead, Florida International University <i>Co-Chairs:</i> Carolyn Meeker and Josh Collins, Florida International University</p> <p>A panel of graduate students will discuss various aspects of involvement with the College of Education and the overall environment of the College for graduate students. The purpose of the session is to facilitate a healthy dialogue about ways that the college can improve its practices and to reveal what we're already doing well. Chaundra Whitehead, President of the College of Education Graduate Student Network, will moderate the session.</p>	
Session 1	<p><b>Graduate Education</b> Moderator: Deborah Hasson</p>	Room 122
<p><i>Playing the Game: A Hermeneutic Phenomenology of Graduate Education Students' Perceptions of Instructor Power in a Higher Education Classroom</i> Antonio Delgado, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Job-Embedded Graduate Education for Teachers: Working Intensively in High Needs Schools</i> Raquel Munarriz-Diaz, Magdalena Castañeda, and Phillip Poekert, University of Florida</p>		

Session 2	<b>Higher Education</b> Moderator: Martin Wasserberg	Room 115
<p><i>An Analysis of the Proposition Density, Sentence and Clause Types, and Non-Finite Verbal Usage in Two College Textbooks</i> Charmaine DeFrancesco and Kyle Perkins, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Intercultural Education and Intercultural Competence in Higher Education in Ukraine</i> Iryna Dzhuryak, Florida International University</p>		
Poster Session 1		First Floor Gallery Room 100
<p><i>The Effect of Accelerated Math on Academics</i> Caridad Morfa, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Utilizing Internet-Based Activities to Increase Student Interest and Acquisition of Biology Content</i> Sara Tosado, Florida International University</p>		

<b>10:35 – 11:20 a.m.</b> <b>Symposium 2, Concurrent Sessions 3 &amp; 4,</b> <b>and Poster Session 2</b>		
Symposium 2	<b>Virtual Mathematics - Higher Education for the 21st Century</b>	Room 117
	<p><i>Chair:</i> Jennifer Hoyte, Florida International University  <i>Discussants:</i> Yanilda Espinal and Nelson de la Rosa, Miami Dade College;  Jennifer Hoyte, Florida International University</p> <p>The purpose of this symposium is to present a teaching model for the 21<sup>st</sup> century – a model that celebrates the autonomy of the learner while capitalizing on the new media-rich environment. The symposium opens by reviewing web-based programs being used in mathematics courses, then goes on to showcase how an online trigonometry course is designed. It closes with a discussion of how best-in-class features from existing models can be combined to address failure rates in algebra classes.</p>	
Session 3	<b>Writing and Community</b> Moderator: Robert Mizzi	Room 122
<p><i>Implementing Writing Support Circles with a Cohort of Graduate Students: A Pilot</i> Maria S. Plakhotnik and Tonette S. Rocco, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Digital Literacy: Definition, Theoretical Framework, and Competencies</i> Mark D. Osterman, Florida International University</p>		
Session 4	<b>Abilities, not Disabilities</b> Moderator: Sarah A. Mathews	Room 115
<p><i>The Use of Picture Exchange Communication System to Reduce Screaming Behavior in a Child with Severe Autism</i> Edil R. DeLeon and Martha Pelaez, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Development of Knowledge Domains and an Instrument to Assess Probation Officers' Knowledge of Offenders with Intellectual Disabilities</i> Valerie E. D. Russell, Florida International University</p>		

Poster Session 2	First Floor Gallery Room 100
<p><i>The Effects of Graphic Organizers on Higher-Order Thinking Skills</i> John J. Monda, Florida International University</p> <p><i>The Effect of Guided Notes on the Responses of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders</i> Carolina Charria, Florida International University</p>	

**11:30 – 1:15 p.m.**  
*Lunch is served buffet style. Quickly and quietly get your lunch at the back of the room, find a seat, and prepare for a delightful keynote address.*  
 Bayview Ballroom  
 Room 214

**Welcome**

Delia C. Garcia  
 Dean, College of Education

**Afternoon Keynote:**  
 Stories from The Education Effect: A University-assisted community school partnership between FIU, Miami Northwestern Senior High School and the Liberty City community

**A presentation by Maria Lovett and faculty, staff, and students from Miami Northwestern Senior High**

Professor Maria Lovett from the COE with students and faculty/staff from Miami Northwestern Senior High School will present the framework for this university-assisted community school partnership in Liberty City, Miami. The presentation will include discussing strategies for research, service learning and community engagement. Students will share their stories as well as lead an interactive activity with the audience.

**1:25 – 2:10 p.m.**  
**Concurrent Sessions 5 & 6  
 and Poster Session 3**

Session 5	<b>Education and Inquiry</b> Moderator: Jennifer Hoyte	Room 122
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*Creating a Culture of Thinking that Cultivates the Perspective-Taking Disposition*  
 Laura Jane Linck, Palm Beach Day Academy, USA and Rochelle Ibañez Wolberg and Angela K. Salmon, Florida International University

*The Use of Foucault in the Creation of Educational History: A Review of Literature*  
 Jon Rehm, Florida International University

Session 6	<b>Workplace Issues</b> Moderator: Chuck Bleiker	Room 115
<p><i>The Impact of Social Media in the Workplace</i> Myrian Herlle and Vivian Astray-Caneda, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Instituting Tobacco-Free Employee Policies: An Invasion of Privacy or an Employer's Legal Right?</i> Lori Ann Gionti, Florida International University</p>		
Poster Session 3		First Floor Gallery Room 100
<p><i>In-class Positive Reinforcement Incentives for Attendance</i> Herbert E. McArthur, Jr., Florida International University</p> <p><i>Reading and Writing in Relation to Preschool</i> Natalia Smith, Florida International University</p>		

<b>2:20 – 3:05 p.m.</b> <b>Concurrent Sessions 7 &amp; 8</b> <b>and Poster Session 4</b>		
Session 7	<b>Behavior and Education</b> Moderator: Linda Bliss	Room 122
<p><i>Learning Behind Bars: Exploring Prison Educators' Facilitation of Inmates' Self-directed Learning through Garrison's Model</i> Renu Batra, Tom Jasso, and Yvette Stevens, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Teaching Disruptive Students: An Indictment of Colorblind Teacher Education Programs</i> Debra Mayes Pane, Eradicating the School-to-Prison Pipeline Foundation, USA; and Tonette S. Rocco, Florida International University</p>		
Session 8	<b>Culture and Education</b> Moderator: Kyle Perkins	Room 115
<p><i>Adult Learners and AIDS Artwork: Suggestions for Adult Education Practice</i> Joshua C. Collins, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Mentoring Experiences of Indo-Caribbean Immigrants in the United States</i> Rehana Seepersad, Florida International University</p>		
Poster Session 4		First Floor Gallery Room 100
<p><i>Does Parental Attachment Before, During, and After Coming Out affect Gay Individuals Psychopathology?</i> Roberto L. Abreu &amp; Melody Whiddon, Florida International University</p> <p><i>Challenging the Student Life Skills Agenda and Exploring Pathways to Increase Academic and Social Capital</i> Michael Baugh, Florida International University</p>		

3:15 – 4:00 p.m.  
*Concurrent Sessions 9, 10 & 11*

Session 9

**Sexuality and Education**  
Moderator: Antonio Delgado

Room 117

*Queering Human Resource Development*  
Carolyn Meeker, Florida International University

*Sexiles in the Classroom: Understanding Intersectionalities of Sexuality, Immigration, and Education*  
Robert C. Mizzi, Florida International University

Session 10

**Mathematics Education**  
Moderator: Martha Pelaez

Room 122

*An Investigation of Participants' Perspectives About a Learning Assistant Program and Their Thinking about Becoming a Mathematics Teacher*  
Esther Fineus and Maria Lorelei Fernandez, Florida International University

*Self-Identified Capabilities and Experiences with Mathematics of Adults Who Have Taken a Developmental Algebra Course*  
Jennifer Hoyte, Florida International University

Session 11

**Education and Youth**  
Moderator: Andy Pham

Room 115

*The Literary Experience of Young Adults with Narratives: Towards Becoming a Person*  
Yalda Amir Kiaei, Florida International University

*The Use of Literature to Combat Bullying*  
Annika L. R. Labadie, Ilisa J. Lieberman, Kurt Vargo, & Olga Flamion, Florida International University

4:10 – 4:45 p.m.  
**Award Presentations**  
Room 117

**Lorraine R. Gay Award for Excellence in Research/Scholarship**

Adriana McEachern  
Award for Best Graduate Student Paper

**Barnes & Noble Award**

Adriana McEachern  
Award for Best Faculty-Student Paper

**GSN Award: Best Student Conference Paper 2012**  
sponsored by  
**College of Education-Graduate Student Network (COE-GSN)**  
Chaundra L. Whitehead, President, Graduate Student Network

**Closing**

Tonette S. Rocco,  
*Chair, Conference Steering Committee*

A raffle for door prizes will also be held. You must be present to win.

## WE THANK THE FOLLOWING CONFERENCE & PROGRAM SPONSORS FOR THEIR SUPPORT!

\*\*\*\*\*

### **Arsht Center**

The Arsht Center is the headquarters and home of the Florida Grand Opera and Miami City Ballet. The New World Symphony also regularly performs at the Knight Concert Hall.

### **Barnes & Noble**

The FIU Bookstore, operated by Barnes & Noble Booksellers, has been servicing the FIU campuses for over twenty years. We sell all required and recommended textbooks for your classes both new and, used copies when available. For additional information go to our webpage at: [fiu.bncollege.com](http://fiu.bncollege.com).

### **The Dancing Supply Depot**

Dancing supplies Depot has everything for your dancing needs. They carry ballet shoes, point shoes, dance wear and custom made costumes. They work with dance teams, drill teams, cheerleaders, competition costumes, private dance studios and much more.

### **Delta Iota Chapter of Chi Sigma Iota International**

Promoting excellence in the profession of counseling.

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### **NewFit Gym: You Fit Health Clubs**

Youfit is a health club, gym, fitness center founded on the principle of simplicity. Fitness equipment, friendly staff, inviting and clean environment without the pressure of sales pitch.

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A place where you can come for good food and a good time. We offer billiard tables to play with your friends as well as booths and tables to sit and enjoy a meal or a beer.

### **Office Depot**

A leader in both business-to-business office products solutions and retail office products. The company provides office supplies and paper, in-store print and document services through technology products and solutions, and furniture to consumers and to large, medium and small businesses.

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### **Dr. Tonette Rocco**

Tonette S. Rocco is coeditor of *New Horizons in Adult Education and Human resource Development* and is on the editorial board of *Adult Education Quarterly*, *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *Human Resource Development International*, and *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. She recently published the book, *The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing*.

### **Santi Salon**

A healing spa that specializes in The Rolf Method of Structural Integration, Brennan Healing, Customized Massage, Eminence Organics Facial and EB Ion Cellular Cleanse Detox.

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Dr. Joan Wynne is a faculty member in the Department of Teaching and Learning and the Director for Community Relations.



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## CONGRATULATIONS ON THE 11TH COERC

Adriana G. McEachern, Ph.D., N.C.C., C.R.C., L.M.H.C.

Founder and Faculty Advisor

**DELTA IOTA CHAPTER**

[mcearner@fiu.edu](mailto:mcearner@fiu.edu)



**Chi Sigma Iota**

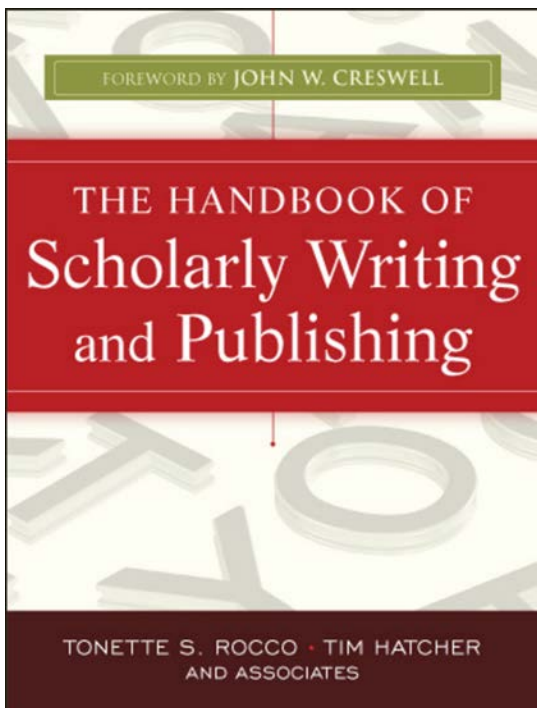
*Member, Association of College  
Honor Societies*

*Counseling Academic & Professional Honor Society International*

**Chi Sigma Iota**, the international honor society for professional counselors, counselor educators, and students promotes scholarship, research, professionalism, leadership and excellence in counseling, and recognizes high attainment in the pursuit of academic and clinical excellence in the profession of counseling.

# The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing

by Tonette S. Rocco, Tim Hatcher, and Associates



*“The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing is one of those rare books that will teach you something new every time you pick it up. It belongs on the desks of emerging scholars and writing professors everywhere.”*

—Nancy L. Zimpher, Chancellor,  
The State University of New York

*“Combining analysis with practical advice, this handbook performs a valuable service by collecting the wisdom of scholars from different disciplines and countries and offering publishing guidance that is both rigorous and systematic. Everyone who writes for scholarly publication will benefit from the insights provided by this book.”*

—Tom Radko, editor,  
*Journal of Scholarly Publishing*

978-0-470-39335-2 | Paper | 368 p | \$35.00 | Available April 2011

There are a number of journals and books on writing for publication *but no single book* on writing for publication that discusses *specific* components of a manuscript, specific types of manuscripts, and the specific steps in the submission process. In addition, few books give information on how to develop writing skills by offering guidance on becoming an excellent manuscript reviewer and outlining what makes a good review. ***The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing*** provides emerging scholars with specific guidelines on how to craft scholarly papers and other writing suitable for submission to academic journals within their discipline. Emerging scholars will receive information on how to develop a manuscript suitable for publication in scholarly journals including how to follow through with editors and deal with rejection, rewriting, and resubmitting.

**Tonette S. Rocco** is associate professor in the Adult Education and Human Resource Development Program at Florida International University. She is coeditor of *New Horizons in Adult Education and Human Resource Development* and is on the editorial board of *Adult Education Quarterly*, *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *Human Resource Development International* and *Human Resource Development Quarterly*.

**Tim Hatcher** is associate professor of Human Resource Development and Adult Education at North Carolina State University, Raleigh, and former editor of *Human Resource Development Quarterly*.

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**Call for Papers for the 12th Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network  
Research Conference at Florida International University  
Saturday April 27, 2013**

***The Cornerstones of the College of Education: Honoring Inquiry, Promoting Mentoring, and Fostering Scholarship***

**Conference Mission:** The purpose of the Florida International University Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference (COERC) is to enhance the existing research culture. The conference provides a meaningful vehicle for the preparation, mentorship, and presentation of scholarly work by students, faculty, and alumni.

**Stewards of the Discipline, Reflective Inquirer, Mindful Educators:**

Decades of educational research indicate that the practice of educating our nation's citizens cannot be judged from a single vantage point. Individuals come to the educational enterprise with different needs and goals often addressed through educational research that weaves a tapestry between knowledge, theory, practice and possessing the habits of minds for showing curiosity and passion about learning through inquiry. We recognize the diverse applications of educational research and the behavioral, psychological, and cultural viewpoints that exist at local, national, and international levels. Conference participants are encouraged to consider the richness of the diverse content areas in education (school and non school based) serving children and adult students.

**The Lorraine R. Gay Award for Outstanding Research:** The award will be presented to the best paper authored by an individual student or group of students.

**Barnes & Noble Best Faculty-Student Paper Award:** The award will be presented to the best paper authored by a faculty-student(s) team.

**The College of Education Graduate Student Network Award:** The award will be presented to the best paper by an individual student or group of students who are GSN members.

**Who Should Submit:** All current and former FIU College of Education students and faculty are encouraged to submit manuscripts.

Manuscripts are welcomed from practitioners, students, and faculty from other institutions, universities, centers, institutes, and schools. Manuscripts may be submitted by single or multiple authors. Students are encouraged to submit manuscripts based on theses/dissertations or other scholarly work. Faculty and students are encouraged to submit work performed independently or in collaboration with colleagues.

**Manuscript Categories**

**Reports on Research:** Reports on research (qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods studies) including thesis and dissertations with their implications for practice and research.

**Methods and Issues in Research:**

Controversial and critical questions vital to research and practice, such as in research methods, ethics, the use of research in practice, practice-generated needs for research, and processes by which researchers determine the areas in which to conduct research. A description of the issue or summary of the points at issue should be presented.

**Theory, Model Development, and Literature Reviews:**

Insights on theory, an existing model or presentation of a new model, or a review of the literature that provides a new perspective on the existing work. Other in-depth exploration of issues related to teaching and learning throughout the lifespan in formal education settings and beyond may be included. Papers should provide implications for future research and practice.

**Perspectives in Practice:** Questions and concerns regarding practitioners' work in various settings. This may include, but is not limited to, practice in education and training programs in schools, corporate and community organizations, leisure activities for children and

adults, or other extra-curricular activities. Papers may address problems and/or solutions in areas of practice such as curriculum design, strategy selection, teaching and learning, or program implementation. They may also address how practitioners view research related to their concerns.

**Evaluation Studies or Action Research:**

Reports on studies involving needs assessment, priority setting, goal analysis, evaluation or other forms of applied research. Reflections on proposal development, grant work, and reports on progress of the grant at meaningful stages are encouraged.

**Conference Timeline**

Manuscript Submission Deadline – **Monday December 17, 2012**

Authors Notified of Submission Status – **Wednesday, February 6, 2013**

Authors Send Revised Manuscripts to the Proceedings Sub-Committee – **Monday, March 4, 2013**

Camera-Ready Manuscripts - **Monday, March 25, 2012**

**Submission Instructions**

All submissions must be formatted as MS word documents and sent as email attachments to the COERC Steering Committee Chair, Dr. Tonette S. Rocco, at: [roccot@fiu.edu](mailto:roccot@fiu.edu) by **December 17, 2012**. The title of the subject line of the email message should be the name of the conference and the last name of the first author (e.g., "COERC 2013. Jones"). Upon receipt of the manuscript, the Committee Chair will send an e-mail acknowledgement. Each manuscript submission must contain two documents: the cover page and the manuscript.

Please submit the 2 email file attachments as follows:

*The 12th Annual College of Education and GSN Research Conference*  
*Saturday April 27, 2013, 8:00 a. m. to 5:00 p. m.*  
**Call for Papers 2013**

1. Cover Page – Name this file attachment with your last name and the word "Cover" (e.g., Jones.Cover.doc).

Cover page should include the following information:

- \* All author(s) identification/contact information and institutional affiliation (COE Department or other institution) on the Cover Page.
- \*Manuscript Category (see Manuscript Categories list and guidelines)
- \*Three (3) Key Words that are not in the Title to characterize the focus of the manuscript
- \*Authorship category: student(s)-only, student(s)-faculty, or faculty-only manuscript.
- \*The Warrant Statement.

2. Blind Copy of the Manuscript- Name this file attachment with your last name and the word "Blind" (e.g., Jones.Blind.doc).

The manuscript should include the following information:

- \*Manuscript title in **14 pt. Bold letters.**
- \*Provide an abstract of 25-50 words maximum.
- \*The manuscript should be eight (8) single spaced pages, including references with one inch margins on all sides;
- \*Extra two pages maximum may be added after the References for tables, figures, and/or pictures.
- \*APA 6th edition guidelines must be adhered to for format, organization, headings, reference citations, grammar, and other issues.

**Research with Human Subjects:** Please be mindful that the FIU Division of Sponsored Research requires completion of the *National Institutes of Health Human Subjects Online Training Module* (<http://cme.nci.nih.gov>) and *Institutional Review Board (IRB)* approval before the collection of any data involving human subjects. For further information contact one of the COE IRB representative, Dr. Leonard Bliss at [blissl@fiu.edu](mailto:blissl@fiu.edu) or 305.348.1903.

### **Review and Selection Process**

The Review and Selection Committee will screen manuscripts for adherence to Submission Instructions and American Psychological Association (APA) 6<sup>th</sup> (ed.) guidelines. Manuscripts that have not followed these basic instructions will be returned to author(s) for corrections and possible re-submission within two weeks of receipt. All submissions will undergo a double blind review by the Review and Selection Committee, who will review each manuscript for content, clarity, and organization. Manuscripts may be accepted, accepted with revisions, or rejected.

**Wednesday, February 6, 2013**

#### **Notification of Submission Status**

Authors will receive a letter with notification of submission status and feedback from reviewers. Authors are expected to either make revisions or address the reason the revision was not made in a cover letter within one month of receipt.

**Monday, March 4, 2013**

#### **Submission of the Revised Manuscripts to the Proceedings Sub-Committee**

Authors must re-submit the revised 6-page single spaced manuscript along with the cover letter that describes what changes were made to Proceedings sub-committee via email. The proceedings editors will edit every manuscript, making necessary formatting and editing changes. The edited manuscripts will then be returned to the authors. Authors are expected to return camera-ready manuscripts within one month.

**Monday, March 25, 2013**

#### **Submission of Camera-Ready Manuscripts to the Proceedings Sub-Committee**

Please assist us in our efforts to produce high quality proceedings by following instructions, addressing editors/reviewers suggestions for improvement, meeting deadlines, and adhering to APA 6<sup>th</sup> edition guidelines.

**Saturday April 27, 2013 8:00 a. m. to 5:00 p. m. Eleventh Annual COE-GSN Research Conference**

**Manuscript Discussion Sessions:** One to two manuscripts may be presented during the 50-minute sessions organized around common themes. Each session will be in a separate room with up to three concurrent sessions scheduled. The presenter of each manuscript will be allotted 10 to 15 minutes to present the key points from the manuscript. Interactive presentations are encouraged. MS PowerPoint, overheads, or handouts are encouraged but not required.

For questions on submission instructions contact Dr. Tonette S. Rocco [roccot@fiu.edu](mailto:roccot@fiu.edu) or 305.348.6151 or any member of the 11th Annual COE Research Committee.

*Note: All moderators, presenters, and their family and friends are expected to register for the COE Research Conference.*

#### **Suggested Areas to Address in Manuscripts:**

- Theoretical framework/review of the literature that sheds light on the practitioner concern, research question, evaluation purpose, or research issue.
- Clear statement of the research concern/question/purpose/issue to be addressed.
- Research design
  - Rationale for method (qualitative/quantitative/mixed)
  - Research question(s)/Hypothesis
- Data collection and analysis Results of the study and reflections for potential changes in practice/policy/research
- Relationship of findings to existing theory
- Implications and recommendations for a specific field in education (school or non school based)

*The 12th Annual College of Education and GSN Research Conference  
Saturday April 27, 2013, 8:00 a. m. to 5:00 p. m.*

**Call for Papers 2013**

**Sample Cover Page**

Brief Manuscript Title	1
Title typed double space in Uppercase and Lowercase Letters and Centered between the Right and Left Margins	
First author's name Author's Email and Phone number College of Education, Department of XXXXX	
(List in order of contribution) Second author's name, Third author's name, etc.	
"I (we) warrant that if this manuscript is accepted, I (we) will address all concerns of the COERC Reviewers and Proceedings Editors and submit a final (revised) MS Word eight page (single-spaced typed) manuscript for publication in the Conference Proceedings. I (we) understand that if this final manuscript is not received in its final form on or before <b>Monday, March 25, 2013</b> , this manuscript will not be included as part of the Proceedings."	
Author Preparing Warrant Statement:	
<i>Manuscript Category:</i> Reports on Research <input type="checkbox"/> Evaluation Studies <input type="checkbox"/> Methods and Issues in Research <input type="checkbox"/> Theory, Model Development, and Literature Reviews <input type="checkbox"/> Perspectives in Practice <input type="checkbox"/>	
<i>Authorship category:</i> Student(s)-only <input type="checkbox"/> Student(s)-faculty <input type="checkbox"/> Faculty-only manuscript <input type="checkbox"/>	
<i>Key Words:</i> (List three words not in the Title that characterize the focus of the Manuscript)	

**Manuscript Submission Checklist**

Electronic files

- Cover page, blind copy labeled correctly (e.g. author.cover.doc)
- MS Word is used
- Margins are 1 inch on all sides
- Length of text (including references) is eight single spaced pages; an extra two

pages maximum may be added for tables, figures, and/or pictures.

figures, tables, and/or pictures may be added.

- Times New Roman 12pt type font used
- Pages are numbered in the footer of the lower right hand corner of each page
- Spelling and Grammar are checked
- Submission Instructions are followed

**Cover Page**

- Manuscript Title is provided
- All authors' names, First author's email, phone number, and affiliation
- Manuscript Category (from Manuscript Category List)
- Three Key Words not in Title characterizing the focus of the Manuscript
- Warrant Statement

**Blind Copy**

- No author identification is present
- Manuscript Title is included in 14 pt. Bold, centered at the top of the page
- APA (6<sup>th</sup> ed.) Guidelines followed throughout
- A theoretical framework for the project is provided
- A clear research question or purpose is stated
- Clearly written using concise language and few pronouns
- Headings are meaningful and provide clear guide to organization
- The scholarly work is relevant to the COE audience
- Method description provides details on what, how, and why for all elements in the research design description
- Manuscript Category is evident in the presentation
- APA format is followed for references cited in text and listed in References
- All references listed appear as citations
- Tables and Figures provided after References; an extra two pages for

**Title of Manuscript, Centered, in 14 point Bold, with All Important Words Capitalized**

**Abstract:** 25-50 words in block form

Indent and Text starts here, single-spaced. Text and References should be six pages maximum in 12 pt. Times New Roman font; an extra two pages may be added after the References for tables, figures, and/or pictures.

In footer, put the page number

**Sample Blind Manuscript**

For more information about the conference, please, visit [http://education.fiu.edu/research\\_conference/](http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/)

## The 12th Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference, Saturday April 27, 2013

Honoring Inquiry



Promoting Mentoring



Fostering Scholarship



### COERC 2013 Symposia: Call for Proposals

The COERC 2013 Steering Committee encourages the presentation of symposia on timely topics. Symposia can be valuable for promoting scientific interchange and developing new concepts in a way that crystallizes thinking in particular areas. This particular format also helps investigators and practitioners keep abreast of developments in fields that may not be intimately related to their own major research and professional interests. The COERC 2013 Steering Committee is responsible for selecting symposia to be included in the conference.

#### Proposals for symposia should include:

1. Title of the symposium.
2. Name, institutional affiliation, mailing address, and e-mail of the chairperson.
3. Justification of need for the symposium in the particular field (maximum 1000 words).
  - 3.1. Justification should include the timeliness of the topic and anticipated outcomes for those in attendance.
4. Format of the symposium.
  - 4.1. Each symposium is scheduled for 60 minutes.
  - 4.2. The expected format for a symposium consists of a 5 minute overview by the chair, two (2) speakers giving 10-15 minute talks, 5 minutes for discussion between talks, and concluding with 10-20 minutes for summary and discussion.
  - 4.3. The Steering Committee encourages the inclusion of a component of translational research in each symposium.
5. Title of each presentation followed by the name of the first author, his/her institutional affiliation, mailing address, country and e-mail, and the name(s) of the co-author(s), their institutional affiliation, and mailing address.
6. Summary of each presentation given by faculty (maximum 500 words). Presentations based on papers authored by individual students or groups of students must adhere to the submission instructions for individual manuscripts to allow consideration for the Lorraine R. Gay Award for Outstanding Research. The Review and Selection Committee may request that student papers be revised. Symposia may be rejected if student presentations are not revised and returned according to the deadlines set by the Review and Selection Committee.

Proposals should be submitted via email to Dr. Tonette S. Rocco at [roccot@fiu.edu](mailto:roccot@fiu.edu) by January 10, 2013. Authors will receive feedback by February 6, 2013. The 12<sup>th</sup> Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference will be held on Saturday, April 27, 2013. For more information about the Annual College of Education and GSN Research Conference, please, visit [http://education.fiu.edu/research\\_conference/](http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/)

# The 11th Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference, Saturday April 27, 2013

**Honoring Inquiry**



**Promoting Mentoring**



**Fostering Scholarship**



## **COERC 2013 Poster Presentations: Call for Proposals**

The COERC 2013 Steering Committee encourages the presentation of posters on timely topics.

Poster presentations can be valuable for promoting and developing new concepts in a way that crystallizes thinking in particular areas. This particular format also helps investigators and practitioners keep abreast of developments in fields that may not be intimately related to their own major research and professional interests. Posters offer the opportunity to present data and have substantive discussions with interested colleagues. The audience circulates among the posters, stopping to discuss papers of particular interest to them. Authors present their papers using a visual medium with key excerpts from the papers displayed a 4' high x 8' wide free-standing bulletin board. Poster presentations should incorporate illustrative materials such as tables, graphs, photographs, and large-print text, and materials should be clearly readable from a distance of three feet (primary text font should be 20 points or larger, and headings font at least 30 points). Posters should display data, policy analysis, or theoretical work in a visually appealing poster format to encourage interactive communication. The COERC 2013 Steering Committee is responsible for selecting posters to be included in the conference.

### **Proposals for poster presentations should include:**

1. Poster title
2. Title of each presenter followed by the name of the first author, his/her institutional affiliation, mailing address, country and e-mail, and the name(s) of the co-author(s), their institutional affiliation, and mailing address.
3. Abstract describing the poster (50 words maximum)
4. Supporting summary (500 words maximum, plain-text format)

Poster presentations may be rejected if student presentation submissions are not revised and returned according to the deadlines set by the Review and Selection Committee.

Proposals should be submitted via email to Dr. Tonette S. Rocco at [roccot@fiu.edu](mailto:roccot@fiu.edu) by January 10, 2013. Authors will receive feedback by February 6, 2013. The 12<sup>th</sup> Annual College of Education and Graduate Student Network Research Conference will be held on Saturday, April 27, 2013. For more information about the Annual College of Education and GSN Research Conference, please, visit [http://education.fiu.edu/research\\_conference/](http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/)