Florida International University
The 12th Annual South Florida Education Research Conference
Saturday, June 1, 2013

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

The purpose of the Annual South Florida Education Research Conference is to enhance the existing culture of research in colleges and universities in South Florida. The conference provides a meaningful vehicle for the preparation, mentorship, and presentation of scholarly work by students, faculty, and alumni.

SFERC 2013

Proceedings of
The 12th Annual South Florida Education
Research Conference

June 1, 2013
Florida International University
Miami, Florida USA

**Proceedings of
The 12th Annual South Florida Education
Research Conference**

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Acknowledgements

The South Florida Education Research Conference Steering Committee (SFERC) would like to thank the College of Education faculty and students for supporting the twelfth annual SFERC. This year the conference name has changed to be inclusive of the region and the steering committee membership has expanded to include representatives from local universities. The universities that have sent representatives to join the steering committee are: Florida International University, DeVry University, Miami Dade College, Florida Memorial University, Lynn University, Johnson & Wales University, Keiser University, Barry University, Florida Atlantic University, and Nova Southeastern University. Lynn, Keiser, and Nova Southeastern have provided support for breakfast, lunch, and awards. Other steering committee members have sponsored student participation and helped in many other ways.

Special thanks must go to the Office of the Dean, College of Education, FIU, under the guidance of Dean Delia Garcia for her sponsorship and generous support of the twelfth annual conference. Maria Tester has been assisting with the logistics of the conference since the beginning. Her professionalism and attention to detail are much appreciated and valued. She is an asset to the conference and to the college. Masha Plakhotnik and Sarah M. Nielsen deserve special recognition for their hard work as editors of the proceedings, and the many other tasks they do for the conference. Teresa Lucas and Masha 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. Teresa and Masha have been instrumental in securing moderators, reviewers, and many other tasks. Student volunteers provide support by staffing the registration table, putting together packets, and doing other odd jobs. 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 and Sarah edit every paper in the proceedings. This year 37 papers were submitted and 34 were accepted. 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 third year we have the poster review and selection committee, chaired by Diana Valle-Riestra, which reviewed 34 proposals.

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

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CLAVE Project: Creating Latino Access to a Valuable Education at FIU College of Education

Keynote

by

Alberto M. Carvalho
Superintendent of Miami-Dade County Public Schools

Alberto Carvalho has served as Superintendent of the nation's fourth largest school system since September 2008. He is a nationally recognized expert on school reform and finance who successfully transformed his district's business operations and financial systems with the implementation of a streamlined Strategic Framework, aligning resources to classroom priorities through a strict adherence to *values based budgeting*. This paradigm shift resulted in a dramatic increase in reserves, a stable bond rating and a remarkable improvement in student achievement. This year his district was identified by the AP | College Board as first in the nation for Hispanic students scoring highly on Advanced Placement exams, and seventh in the country for African American students. M-DCPS is now widely considered the nation's highest performing urban school system and is the 2012 winner of the coveted Broad Prize for Urban Education. As a result of his skillful use of data to drive decision-making and resource allocation, the Florida Department of Education selected him as the 2012 District Data Leader of the Year. On November 6, following four years of extraordinary improvement in District performance and public accountability, the community overwhelmingly confirmed its faith in their public school system and its Superintendent by passing a $1.2 Billion Bond Referendum for school construction.

A versatile leader, Carvalho is the self-appointed principal of two award-winning schools—the Primary Learning Center and the iPrep Academy. In addition, he is the President of ALAS, the Association of Latino Administrators and Superintendents. He has received numerous honors and awards both for humanitarianism, as well as groundbreaking work in the field of education and business management. He has been honored by the National Child Labor Committee with the 2013 Ron H. Brown Award and has been recognized as Visionary Leader of the Year by the Great Miami Chamber of Commerce, the March of Dimes' Humanitarian of the Year, South Florida's Ultimate CEO, and for Leadership in Government by the Miami Chapter of the American Institute of Architects. He is a member of Florida's Council of 100, the Honorable Order of Kentucky Colonels and has been honored by the President of Portugal with the "Ordem de Mérito Civil," and by Mexico with the "Othil Award," the highest award for a civilian living outside of Mexico. He has been featured as part of *Education Nation*, on *CNN*, *NBC*, and *ABC*, and in publications such as *The New York Times*, *District Administration Magazine*, *The Christian Science Monitor*, and *Nightly Business Report*.

Lunch Panel Discussion

"What Can South Florida Colleges of Education do to Improve K-12 Education?"

A panel discussion with

- Mildred Berry, EdD, Dean, School of Education, Florida Memorial University
- Sara S. Malmstrom, PhD, Dean of the Graduate School, Keiser University
- Craig A. Mertler, PhD, Dean, Ross College of Education, Lynn University
- Susan Neimand, PhD, Director, School of Education, Miami Dade College
- Isaac Prilleltensky, PhD, Dean, School of Education and Human Development, University of Miami
- H. Wells Singleton, PhD, Dean, Abraham S. School of Education, Nova Southeastern University

  Moderator: Delia C. Garcia, EdD, Dean, College of Education, Florida International University

Mildred E. Berry, EdD

Dr. Berry is an educator with many years of experience both at the K-12 level and the college/university level. Her degrees include a BS degree in Biology from Paine College, masters, specialist, and doctorate degrees in education with a concentration in science from Wayne State University. Prior to accepting a position at Florida Memorial University as Chair of the Division of Education in 1995, she was employed by Miami-Dade Public Schools in a variety of positions including science teacher, department chair, teacher-on special assignment for science, facilitator for Human Growth and Development, Science Supervisor and Director of Magnet Programs. In 2005 she was appointed as the Dean of the School of Education at Florida Memorial University. She has conducted numerous science workshops at the local, state, national, and international levels. Dr. Berry was instrumental in providing the leadership in obtaining State Approval for the Teacher Education Program at Florida Memorial.

Sara Malmstrom, PhD

Dr. Sara Malmstrom is the dean of the graduate school at Keiser University. In her tenure she co-navigated through the Commission on Colleges level change process including two on-site visits from substantive change committees with a no findings or recommendations. She co-authored two level change prospectuses and a number of other prospectuses including four new degree programs. In addition to serving the university through a variety of accreditation related responsibilities, she has been an evaluator for the Commission on Colleges. She developed a continuous outcomes-based assessment program for the graduate school that has been vetted during Commission on Colleges accreditation visits and highly successful programmatic accreditation actions.

Craig A. Mertler, PhD

Dr. Craig A. Mertler is currently Professor and Dean of the Ross College of Education at Lynn University in Boca Raton. He has been an educator for 27 years, 17 of those in higher education. He teaches doctoral and undergraduate courses focused on the application of action research to promote educator empowerment, school improvement, and job-embedded professional development, and also teaches quantitative research methods, introductory and multivariate statistical analyses, and educational assessment methods. He has chaired or served on more than 100 thesis and dissertation committees. He is the author of 16 books, four invited book chapters, and 17 refereed journal articles. He has presented more than 35 research papers at professional meetings. He conducts workshops for educational professionals on classroom-based action research and on the broad topic of classroom assessment. His primary research and consulting interests include classroom-based action research, data-driven educational decision making, professional learning communities, and classroom teachers' assessment literacy.

Susan Neimand, PhD

Dr. Susan Neimand, Director of the School of Education at Miami Dade College, has been a professional educator for almost 40 years. She holds a doctorate in Curriculum and Instruction and a Master's degree in Elementary Education from Florida International University. Her professional experience includes teaching every grade level from age 4 through doctoral programs, being a school principal for 20 years, teaching at Florida International and Barry Universities, and serving as an educational consultant and doctoral dissertation editor. She has written and been awarded grants to support the work of her institutions, conducted numerous workshops and presentations, and served as an evaluator for Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS), the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE), and the Association of Independent Schools of Florida (AISF). Dr. Neimand has published articles and belongs to local, statewide, and national committees. Her areas of specialization are brain-compatible learning, interdisciplinary curriculum, and early childhood education.

Isaac Prilleltensky, PhD

Dr. Isaac Prilleltensky was born in Argentina and has lived in Israel, Canada, Australia, and the United States. He holds a doctorate in psychology. Prior to his current appointment as Dean of the School of Education at the University of Miami he was Director of the PhD program in Community Research and Action at Peabody College of Vanderbilt University. He is the inaugural Erwin and Barbara Mautner Chair in Community Well-Being. Before becoming an academic he was a school psychologist in Canada for 7 years.

He has published seven books and over 100 articles and chapters. He has presented keynote addresses in international conferences in twenty one countries in five continents. He speaks English, Hebrew, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. His interests are in community psychology, the prevention of psychosocial problems, and the promotion of well-being in individuals, organizations, and communities. For several years he was the principal investigator of the SPEC project, which aims to promote Strengths, Prevention, Empowerment, and Community Change with not for profit organizations in diverse locations. He is currently leading an interdisciplinary

team that is developing a multiplayer online game to promote wellness in diverse domains of life.

Isaac is a Fellow of the American Psychological Association, the American Educational Research Association, and of the Society for Community Research and Action. In 2002 he was a visiting fellow of the British Psychological Society. He is the recipient of the 2011 "Distinguished Contribution to Theory and Research Award" of the Community Psychology Division of the American Psychological Association. He is also the recipient of the 2010 John Kalafat Applied Community Psychology Award from the same division of APA and the recipient of the 2010 Educator Catalyst Award from the Human Services Coalition of Miami. He is a board member of the Children's Trust of Miami Dade County and the proud husband of Dr. Ora Prilleltensky and father of Chess National Master Matan Prilleltensky. He is a vegan, soccer player, fitness aficionado with very little free time to study languages, which is what he enjoys the most, after spending time with his wife and son.

H. Wells Singleton, PhD

Dr. H. Wells Singleton chairs a six member leadership team providing support to 450 faculty and staff who work closely with approximately 13,000 students enrolled in programs spanning Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctoral (EdD and PhD) degrees in 24 states and 14 international sites.

Dean Singleton, who has held his current position for 17 years has, with faculty and staff members, developed 400 strategic initiatives with partners including school districts, professional organizations, and elearning corporations. These initiatives are designed to provide professional development to employees and constituents in times and places most convenient to clients.

The "Fischler Family" members subscribe to all the core values of the university with particular emphasis on academics and integrity. As such, students are encouraged to seek their own limits, goals, and aspirations with delivery of instruction and support through on line, blended, and face to face modalities.

Dean Singleton received his BA from the University of Wyoming, MA from Southern Methodist University, and his PhD from Stanford University. He has written and lectured about innovation and vision to audiences around the world.

Dean Singleton is proudest of his commitment to and work with children, young adults, and those who work closely with both groups.

Delia C. Garcia, EdD

Dr. Delia C. Garcia is Dean of the College of Education and Associate Professor in the Department of Leadership and Professional Studies at Florida International University. Prior to her appointment as Dean in November 2010, she served as Interim Dean, as well as Chairperson of the Departments of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies and Leadership and Professional Studies at FIU.

Dr. Garcia has been a leader in the area of community engagement for the past 30 years and has been committed to forging university-school partnerships that address challenges facing our communities and focus on problem-solving. She has been the recipient of federal, state, and foundation grants totaling more than $13 million, focusing on the preparation of urban teachers and family literacy efforts. Her teacher education projects have generated tuition scholarships for more than 300 teachers in the Miami-Dade County Public Schools (MDCPS), providing a means for the completion of graduate degrees by many educators. Additionally, she led the efforts of providing professional development to over 1,000 teachers in the district in the area of TESOL following the State mandate established through the LULAC Consent decree requiring teachers to be ESOL endorsed.

Through Dr. Garcia's work with family literacy programs, a model of family education for linguistically and culturally diverse populations has been created. The Families Learning at School and Home (FLASH) program increases the participation of linguistically and culturally diverse families in the educational process of their children by improving their English/literacy skills, enhancing their abilities to work with their children in instructional activities and assisting them to navigate the educational system in the United States. The program was recognized by the U.S. Department of Education as an Academic Excellence project and its model was replicated nationwide. The program has served over 35 local schools, reaching over 3,000 families in the South Florida community.

Dr. Garcia secured and currently directs a U.S. Department of Education, Office of Post-Secondary Education Title V grant in the amount of $2.8 million. The five-year grant supports FIU, as a Hispanic-serving institution (HSI), to expand its capacity to serve Hispanic-Americans in obtaining greater access to graduate educational opportunities. Through this program, the College of Education offers tuition scholarships to teachers and administrators from the Miami-Dade County Public Schools (MDCPS) in the pursuit of master's and doctoral degrees. The program also contributes to enhancing and providing specific support services and mentoring opportunities to all graduate students in the College, including the establishment of an Office of Academic Writing and Publication Support and related technological upgrades in the College.

Dr. Garcia has published in the areas of family involvement, teacher and parent efficacy, and urban teacher preparation. She has developed curriculum guides for teacher education in the areas of home school relations, adult literacy, and English as a Second Language (ESL). She has exercised leadership roles in professional organizations in her field, including receiving gubernatorial appointments to Florida's State Advisory Committees in the area of family literacy. More recently, she was elected to serve on the Board of Directors of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), the leading professional organization that guides and advocates for issues in teacher education. She also served as President of the Bilingual Association of Florida (BAF), the state affiliate of the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) for five years. She has chaired state and district advisory committees focusing on issues of narrowing the achievement gap in our schools as well as the preparation of adult educators in the state. Dr. Garcia started her career as a high school Social Studies teacher in MDCPS. She possesses a Doctor of Education degree in Educational Administration and Supervision from Florida International University and a Bachelor and Master of Education degrees in Curriculum and Instruction from the University of Miami.

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 presented at the Annual South Florida Education Research Conference.

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 South Florida Education Research Conference. Award decisions are determined by the judgment of the faculty members serving as the L. R. Gay Award Sub-Committee.

L. R. Gay Award Recipients

2012   Annika L. R. Labadie, Ilisa J. Lieberman, Kurt Vargo, and Olga Flamion, *The Use of Literature to Combat Bullying*
2011   Maria S. Plakhotnik, *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*

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 Annual South Florida Education 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 South Florida Education Research Conference. Award decisions are determined by a panel of faculty and students serving as the Barnes & Noble Award Sub-Committee.

Barnes & Noble Award Recipients

2012   Esther Fineus and Maria Lorelei Fernandez, *An Investigation of Participants' Perspectives About a Learning Assistant Program and Their Thinking about Becoming a Mathematics Teacher*

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

The Lynn University Outstanding Poster Presentation Award

The purpose of this award is to acknowledge, in the name of Lynn University, outstanding scholarship on a poster created by a student and presented at the Annual South Florida Education Research Conference.

It is anticipated that one award will be presented annually to a student presenter who, based upon the quality of his or her poster and presentation as a whole, meets all specified award criteria as determined by the South Florida Education Research Conference award committee.

Criteria for this award include, but is not limited to, organization, visual appeal, definition and clarity of the problem, clarity of research methods, interpretation and discussion of the results, and overall verbal presentation of the poster.

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Patsy Self (FIU)	
Martha (Marti) M. Snyder (Nova)	

South Florida Education Research Conference Peer-Reviewed Papers

Perceptions of French and Creole Among
First-Generation Adult Haitian English Language Learners

Ildiko Barsony
Florida International University, USA

Abstract: This basic interpretive study investigated the literacy experiences of seven first-generation Haitian English language learners. During interviews and focus groups, participants expressed ambivalent feelings toward Creole and French and explained how their knowledge of these languages supported their English language learning.

Cummins' (1979) developmental interdependence hypothesis assigns crucial importance to native language (L1) literacy in achieving second language (L2) competence. Although this hypothesis is very influential in bilingual education research, few studies investigated the role of L1 in the L2 learning of adults (Burt, Peyton, & Van Duzer, 2005; Jiang, 2011; Kamhi-Stein, 2003; Klassen & Burnaby, 1993; Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001). As a teacher of adult English language learners (ELLs) preparing for their college careers in the United States, I have noted various levels of former education and varying degrees of L1 literacy skills among my students who are first-generation Americans. Students from Haiti come from a particularly interesting literacy background, but research focusing on adult Haitian students is also scarce: one study examines the role of adults' Creole literacy skills in learning English (Burtoff, 1985). Given this gap in the literature, it is not surprising that adult ELLs' L1 literacy skills are not accounted for in their English course placement and are seldom considered in instruction. Little is known about the literacy experiences of Haitian students in particular. Therefore, in this basic interpretive qualitative study, I wanted to understand the literacy experiences of first-generation adult ELLs from Haiti.

Review of Literature

This section describes (a) the languages of Haiti, (b) the role of native language literacy in second language learning, and (c) the role of Creole literacy in learning English.

Languages in Haiti

In Haiti, French, the language of government and education, enjoys a societal prestige, a lingering reminder of colonial times. Creole has only been recognized since 1987, when the Constitution declared it the second official language of the country (Cadely, 2012). However, the official recognition was not followed by a societal one, and recent reports are still concerned about the pervasive social prejudice against Creole, the native language of most Haitians (Berrouet-Oriol, 2011; Degraff, 2010; Hebblethwaite, 2011). Teachers choose to use French in school even if they are not quite proficient themselves (Berrouet-Oriol, 2011; Hebblethwaite, 2011). Youssef (2002) wrote, "90% of the population remains monolingual in a basilectal Creole; individually teachers informally accommodate the Creole, but French remains the language of 'enlightenment' and learning, excluding the majority" (p. 182). Not having access to education in the mother tongue exacerbated by poverty has severe consequences. In 2010, for instance, UNICEF reported a low literacy (defined as the ability to read and write) rate of 74% for 15-to-20-year-old boys and 70 % for 15-to-20-year-old girls in Haiti (UNICEF, n.d.). For the

entire Haitian population, the World Bank reported a 53 % literacy rate for males aged 15 and above and a 45% literacy rate for females aged 15 and above in 2010 (World Bank, 2011).

The Role of Native Language Literacy in Second Language Learning

Native language literacy plays a key part in second language acquisition. According to the developmental interdependence hypothesis, there is an interaction between L2 competence and L1 literacy skills acquired prior to second language exposure. If children have high levels of L1 literacy skills at beginning of L2 exposure, they are likely to develop similarly high levels of L2 competence (Cummins, 1979). Other studies found some evidence to support that the linguistic interdependence existed in adult learners as well (Burt et al., 2005; Kamhi-Stein, 2003). That is, adult students also benefit from a rich L1 literacy background. Instruction for second language learners should not only scaffold the transfer of existing L1 literacy skills but should also assist students in bridging L1 literacy deficiencies.

Further evidence for the supporting role of L1 literacy in L2 reading in particular was provided by Upton and Lee-Thompson (2001). In studying the ways in which L2 readers use their L1 in the L2 reading process as an aid to understanding L2 general expository text, the authors found five specific approaches in using L1 to aid L2 comprehension. Overall, intermediate-level English language learners were found to use their L1 61% of the time and advanced learners 43% of the time, suggesting that L1 literacy skills provide tremendous support in L2 reading comprehension. The implication of these findings is that the lack of L1 literacy could be rather detrimental to adults' L2 reading comprehension and to L2 acquisition in general.

The Role of Creole Literacy in Learning English

Limited L1 literacy was in the focus of Burtoff's (1985) study, whose participants had limited literacy in Creole and received English as a second language (ESL) instruction. One of the two groups received Creole literacy instruction in addition to ESL instruction. Although statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups' final English exam scores was not found in this study, the relationship between adults' L1 literacy and L2 learning should be further investigated for two reasons. First, Burtoff observed higher levels of motivation and self-confidence in the L1 literacy group than in the regular ESL group, and these variables are extremely important to language learning. Second, the treatment in Burtoff's study was only 24 weeks long, too short a period for L1 study to make a significant difference.

Method

Design

According to Merriam's (2002) classification of qualitative inquiries, the present study is basic interpretive. In basic interpretive studies, researchers "seek to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, the perspectives and world views of the people involved, or a combination of these" (p. 6). In this study, I sought to understand what Creole and French meant to the participants and how they consciously used their first two languages in learning English.

Research Questions

Three broad research questions guided the study: (a) What literacy foundations did the participants receive in Haiti? (b) What are the participants' perceptions about Creole? (c) How do participants consciously use their knowledge of Creole and French when learning English?

Participant Selection

I intended to select the participants in this study using purposeful sampling. I decided to interview my former Haitian students whose academic performance was below average, hoping to find some common perceptions shared by these individuals. Two of the four former students I contacted responded to my invitation. Although I did not intend to use snowball sampling, some

participants invited their friends. In the end, I interviewed seven students who had all been deemed not college ready by various placement tests they had taken. For the sake purpose of this study, I accepted this as evidence of being a below average performer.

Participants

The six women and one man were all first-generation, nontraditional students.   First-generation is used in this study to refer to individuals who were born in another country and immigrated to the U.S. after the age of 16. Nontraditional students are most commonly defined as students over the age of 24 (National Center for Educational Statistics, n.d.). I used pseudonyms when quoting them to protect their privacy. All participants completed their schooling in Port-au-Prince, the capital of Haiti, although at least four participants were from other cities. See Table 1 for additional information about the literacy background of the participants.

Researcher Subjectivity

In dealing with the imperfections of the research instrument, I followed Peshkin's (1988) advice. I was constantly examining my subjectivity using a research journal.   felt a great deal of empathy for the participants. Furthermore, I began this study with some assumptions regarding L1 literacy and L2 learning based on previous training and personal experience as both a L2 teacher and a nonnative speaker of English. Finally, based on Rubin and Rubin's (2012) suggestion on the importance of being knowledgeable about the topic, I learned about the educational system in Haiti before I began interviewing so that I could listen to the participants with a prior understanding of the official educational structure.

Trustworthiness

Merriam (2002) recommended several strategies to enhance the validity of qualitative studies. In the present study, I used a research journal to note my assumptions about the topic and to reflect on the literature. Furthermore, qualitative researchers try to "objectively study the subjective states of the subjects" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 37), so I used member-checking during the interviews and once after all the interviews were completed.

Data Collection

I planned to have one-on-one interviews with three participants to get an in-depth and honest picture of how the participants perceived their languages. In planning the interviews and writing research questions, I relied heavily on Rubin and Rubin's (2012) advice and planned to conduct interviews structured what Rubin and Rubin called "main branches of a tree" (p. 124). Although I had only planned interviews, I also conducted two focus groups with two and four participants, respectively, because the participants invited friends to join the conversation. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) defined focus groups as "group interviews that are structured to foster talk among the participants about particular issues" (p. 109) and explained that they were useful when researchers wanted to stimulate talk about the topic from multiple perspectives.

Data Analysis

After the first interview, the transcript was coded, with preliminary categories emerging from the data. Participants' words were not edited so the reader can get a sentence of participants' oral English accuracy.

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Findings

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"What I have realized right now is that we don't have an identity because they force us to speak French. We are not French! We are Creole," Louis commented at the beginning of our conversation. Although he spoke of a lack of identity, the phenomenon Louis explained should more properly be referred to as an ambivalent identity, manifesting itself in the mixed feelings

participants expressed about Haiti's educational system and the two official languages. This section discusses findings regarding (a) literacy foundations of the participants; (b) mixed feelings toward the educational system and the languages in Haiti; and (c) participants' conscious use of their prior languages in learning English.

Literacy Foundations of the Participants

The participants' recollections of their educational experiences are important because they provide the context in which their ambivalent feelings toward their languages developed. Participant accounts generally supported the literature about Haitian schools and revealed similarities and differences between institutions.

Similarities. The participants attended private institutions because getting into public schools in Haiti was difficult. The only exception was Nora, who went to a public elementary school. French was the primary language of instruction in Port-au-Prince schools. However, in Cap-Haitien, where Vivienne attended elementary school, instruction was delivered in Creole. This finding was consistent with the other participants' knowledge about schools located in the countryside. Tania, for instance, explained that "[i]f the school is in a city, they speak French. If the school is not in the city, they don't speak French all the time or fluently." Vivienne, who was also the youngest participant, had the opportunity to take Creole as a language course in her Port-au-Prince high school. "But when we transfer to Port-au-Prince, then we started with French and they give us one hour a day Creole. Most of us who come from the country, we know more Creole than those from Port-au-Prince." Others were punished for speaking Creole in school. In addition, participants reported the widespread use of memorization and recitation as well as corporal punishment as pedagogical tools regardless of the prestige of the schools they attended.

Differences. There were major differences in teachers' attitudes toward students and the availability of support systems. Frances, Nora, and Vivienne attended affordable elementary schools and "colleges" (private high schools), while Louis, Fredeline, Nerlande, and Tania went to elite schools. I talked to Frances, Nora, Fredeline, and Louis about their schools at length.

Although Berrouet-Oriol (2011) and Hebblethwaite (2011) reported that in some schools teachers might not be proficient in French themselves, all participants perceived their teachers as competent French speakers. Teachers' attitudes toward students were, however, rather poor in some schools. Nora spoke about frustrated teachers who punished students: "[S]ometimes they can't get paid, sometimes they take it out on you. Sometimes they don't come in to work to teach you. You don't have nobody, they need to send you home or send you to a different class."

In the less expensive schools, participants had very little support to learn. Although Frances's teachers used "realia" to teach French in the early grades, later she had to do her own "research," looking up unknown words in the monolingual French dictionary. The dictionary was a form of support most participants mentioned. The second most common form of support was asking the teacher or another expert. For Nora it was her father, and for Frances a tutor her parents could sometimes hire. The tutor's main role was to make sure Frances could recite her homework. Frances had no access to a library. Nora and Frances reported that children sometimes went to school hungry or had no money for lunch. Often, their parents could not afford the books they needed.

Louis and Fredeline were more fortunate although they were the only ones out of several children in their families to be able to attend renowned, prestigious schools. When asked about how these schools contributed to their success, both Louis and Fredeline thought of the rigor and discipline first. As in Nora's school, the use of Creole was strictly penalized. However, Louis's and Fredeline's schools were equipped with libraries. In Fredeline's school, students had to

maintain a B average, which she felt was motivating. Louis's teachers were well qualified, and hands-on learning was part of the curriculum. Students were required to present in class and church and to work for the school even if they could afford the tuition. Louis felt that students in his school were motivated by the presence of higher grades up to the university and by the clean, inviting landscape. "When you are in, you don't feel like you are in Haiti. It's something else."

All participants, except Tania, who attended a boarding school, reported using Creole at home. Vivienne and Louis discussed regional differences in the Creole language. Louis explained that "Creole in Cap-Haitien is different from the Creole in Jacmel and so on."
Mixed Feelings toward the Educational System and the Languages in Haiti

Mixed feelings about the educational system. Participants expressed feelings of dissatisfaction as well as acceptance as they were talking about the Haitian system of education and their own educational experiences.

Dissatisfaction. Generally, participants rejected corporal punishment. In addition, Tania thought that memorization was a "waste of time," and the other three participants in her focus group readily agreed.

Acceptance. Nora, however, thought that memorization was helpful. "Memorize everything. That's how we do it. That's a better help." Frances, although she was scared to go to school sometimes, thought that corporal punishment was actually a way to encourage the students to perform better. "When you don't do your homework they whop you and then it's like they make you focus." When Nerlande, who attended an elite school, was asked what made her school better than others, she responded, "Discipline. Every teacher can hit you like a parent, and you cannot say nothing."

Mixed feelings about French. Some participants expressed contradictory feelings— admiration and ownership on the one hand and condemnation and disavowal on the other— toward the language, supporting Louis's idea of ambivalent identity.

Admiration and ownership. French is undoubtedly the language of power. People aspire to learn the language because as Nora explained, "When you speak French, especially in Haiti, people are going to respect you." When asked about desired change in her native land, Nora's response was to provide support for everyone to learn French, not to eliminate it. Fredeline, like Nora, thought that it was necessary to keep French in schools as one of the primary languages of instruction, and schools "should have more libraries with more books, French and Creole. They have to balance it." Fredeline and Vivienne both referred to French as "our language."

Condemnation and disavowal. When Vivienne was asked to further explain here "our language" comments, she self-corrected, "being occupied with the French people, we keep French as a second language, but it isn't our language." In fact, she did not think French should be the language of instruction at all. Louis shared this sentiment. In his view, if the language of instruction was Creole, the Haitian people would find it easier to learn. Louis expressed sadness over the fact that Haiti is divided along the lines of language proficiency. "Our country is divided by French and Creole," he said. The participants also talked about the discriminatory use of French in Haiti. The powerful and well-to-do elite make an effort to reinforce French at home so that their children can grow up fluent French speakers. Nora remarked, "[t]hey start speaking French from the crib. They are different from you, and they know that." Nora also associated being fluent in French with being light-skinned. "You know, that's why they speak French. They have light color; they have money. They know French in the school they went to. Of course they have to speak French!"

Mixed feelings about Creole. Creole was present in the participants' everyday life. It was the language of informal use. Only in Vivienne's Cap-Haitien elementary school was Creole the language of instruction. In Frances's Port-au-Prince high school, the teachers used it to explain concepts sometimes. In other institutions, its use was penalized. Participants expressed feelings of appreciation for Creole and a longing for literacy in their native language. At the same time, their words conveyed tones of indignation and frustration.

Appreciation and longing for literacy. When Frances explained the difference between French, *a* language, and Creole, *her* language, her preference was evident. "French, it's a language. If you don't use it, you're not gonna be able to talk, you know? But Creole is my language. I will always be able to speak it." Louis, too, preferred Creole. "Because if you speak Creole, it's your own language, you speak it at home, you are friendly. When I speak Creole, I'm friendly. When I speak French, I am a bit limited." Some wished they could read and write Creole properly.

Some thought that Creole should play a more significant role in education although their ideas differed with regards to the extent of the desired change. Frances said that "if they have a course in Creole, it would be better" while others did not think one course would be sufficient. Fredeline called for a balanced approach and thought students should be provided with a choice. "Exams should be in Creole and French and it should be up to the student to take it in either Creole or French." Vivienne would rather get rid of French altogether. Louis thought that Creole should be the language of instruction and French taught as a second language.

Indignation and frustration. There was a tone of indignation in some voices as they were describing discrimination against Creole speakers. "If you speak French, they appreciate you, but if you speak only Creole, you are nothing," Louis said. Nora explained, "…sometimes I feel like discrimination. When you go to a bank and start speaking Creole, they look at you in a different way. […] you need to speak French and dress properly and everybody is going to respect you."

Those who received some literacy instruction in Creole expressed some degree of frustration over the lack of uniformity between everyday Creole and academic Creole. In Vivienne's words,

> …I write it my own way, but then the teacher who really knows tells you this is not the right way to write it. Then they will teach you. They also have the verbs in Creole which is a total surprise because all we learn was French. It was something new when you have. They will tell you the Creole has verbs, grammar. It's really new when you are used to something and now they come up with a new different thing.

Conscious Use of Prior Languages in Learning English

The third research question was how participants consciously used their existing knowledge of Creole and French when learning English. The participants were below average performers according to their college placement test scores. Except for Vivienne, they lacked L1 literacy skills, a prerequisite to L2 competence according to the developmental interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979). Had they received more solid L1 literacy foundations, they might have fared better in college because they could consciously build on their existing linguistic knowledge. However, Creole did seem to subconsciously influence the participants' speech as evidenced by the lack of past tense conjugation in their conversational English.

The participants discussed different types of support in learning English as well as certain strategies they utilized when reading and writing in English. When asked about language connections, the participants tended to think of French first, associating *support* with *dictionary*

which was only available in French. No one reported having access to an English-Creole dictionary. In addition, a teacher or a peer was often associated with support.

In reading and writing, participants spoke about a balanced reliance on both prior languages. They reported the use of Creole for mental translation of texts in reading and writing. Nora explained that her teachers in the United States encouraged her to translate English to Creole rather than to French. Fredeline reported using Creole for brainstorming and planning before writing in English. However, when getting ready to write, she accesses her writing skills in French. In reading, she uses Creole for clarification. "When I'm taking a reading test and I have some questions, at first I have to translate in Creole because I know Creole more than French. Even though I can't write in Creole that well, I translate it in Creole."

Discussion and Implications

In this basic interpretive study, participant accounts supported the literature regarding common educational experiences in Haiti and, to an extent, Cummins's (1979) developmental interdependence hypothesis. The participants who did not have access to prestigious educational institutions seem to have less solid literacy foundations in French. Louis and Fredeline, who did attend elite schools, are dissatisfied with their academic literacy skills in Creole, but in learning English they compensate for the lack of Creole literacy with advanced French cognitive academic language proficiency (Bernhard, 2011; Cummins, 2008). Frances and Nora do not have academic language proficiency in another language readily available. Kamhi-Stein (2003) found that when students' attitudes were favorable toward their L1, their L2 comprehension was better. Although the participants of this study admittedly lacked sufficient L1 literacy foundations, most of them demonstrated favorable attitudes toward Creole. In spite of their insufficient literacy skills, Frances, Nora, Fredeline, and Louis make conscious connections to Creole when reading or writing in English.

Future studies should explore how connections between native language and second language are made. Another area for future research is the identification of particular areas of second language development and production where insufficient L1 literacy foundations among adult learners are especially detrimental. The findings point to the need for helping students who might be struggling with their English courses due to the lack of L1 literacy foundations by incorporating simultaneous L1 literacy instruction or peer tutoring.

The findings also suggest a need for print materials in Creole. Some participants were unaware that a Creole-English dictionary existed. To nurture feelings of pride for the native language, community events that promote literacy and raise awareness should be sought out and promoted. In conducting this study, I gained a deeper understanding for the culture and the people, and these insights will guide me as I set up the learning experiences in my future courses.

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Table 1

Participants' Literacy Backgrounds

Background	Participants						
	Frances	Nora	Vivienne	Louis	Fredeline	Nerlande	Tania
Hometown	Port-au-Prince	Jeremie	Cap-Haitien	Jacmel	Jacmel	unknown	unknown
School location	Port-au-Prince	Port-au-Prince	Cap-Haitien Port-au-Prince	Port-au-Prince	Port-au-Prince	Port-au-Prince	Port-au-Prince
School type	private	private & public	private	private, elite	private	private, elite	private, elite
Home language	Creole	Creole	Creole	Creole	Creole	Creole	French
Perceived ability to speak Creole	excellent (native lg.)	excellent (native lg.)	excellent (native lg.)	excellent (native lg.)	excellent (native lg.)	excellent (native lg.)	excellent (native lg.)
Perceived Creole literacy	insufficient	insufficient	excellent	sufficient	insufficient	insufficient	insufficient
Language of instruction	French	French	Creole; French	French	French	French	French
Perceived ability to speak French	sufficient	intermediate	intermediate	excellent	excellent	excellent	excellent
Perceived French literacy	insufficient	intermediate	intermediate	excellent	excellent	excellent	excellent
Comments		Some Creole instruction in a vocational school	1 hour/day French in Cap-Haitien 1 hour/day Creole in Port-au-Prince		One semester of Creole in high school		

Effects of Number-Way Curriculum on Pre-Schoolers' Mathematical Learning for Low Socioeconomic Status Children

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Abstract: The objective of this research is to test the effectiveness of a game-based mathematical curriculum Number-Way in preschools for low socioeconomic status (SES) children. This curriculum contains fifteen interesting number games representing four main principles. The result indicated that this curriculum promoted early mathematical competence for preschoolers significantly.

The greatest German mathematician and physical scientist Karl Friedrich Gauss described math as "the queen of science" (as cited in Waltershausen, 1856, p. 79). Math is so important because it serves as the basis of modern science and engineering fields. In addition, math is an essential part of our daily life because we are confronted with math-related problems ubiquitously. The report from the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) showed that U.S. students continually lag behind their international competitors in mathematics (PISA, 2006, 2009). A study also revealed that the mathematic skill level of children in the United States was less advanced than their international peers even before elementary school (Siegler & Mu, 2008).

Most preschool teachers in the United States ignore children's potential in mathematics and mistakenly assume that they are too young to learn abstract concepts (Lee & Ginsburg, 2009). Therefore, no adequate and appropriate mathematics instruction has been offered to young children in preschool. However, numerous studies indicate that young children of preschool age have the capability of learning formal knowledge of mathematics. In Seo and Ginsburg's study (2004), it was shown that young children could develop strong interest in mathematically related activities and they were eager to explore mathematical ideas with appropriate encouragement. In addition, Duncan et al. (2007) reported that early math skill is more powerful than early reading and literacy and it is the strongest predictor of later academic achievements.

An increasing number of educators are starting to realize the current situation of early mathematics education and have begun to pay more attention to early mathematical research. Starkey, Klein, and Wakeley (2004) proved that mathematics intervention for young children significantly promoted young kids' mathematical knowledge. There are growing research-based mathematic programs such as *Big Math for Little Kids* (Greens & Ginsburg, 2004), *Building Blocks* (Clements & Sarama, 2007)*, Number Worlds* (Griffin, 2004)*, and Storytelling Sagas* (Casey, Kersh, & Young, 2004). Although the mathematics performance of U.S. children is improving, no sufficient progress has been obtained by all children. Research data showed that achievement varies between different socioeconomic statuses (SES) groups of children: children from low-income families had very limited opportunities and resources for early mathematics

instruction; consequently, they fall behind their middle-income peers on early mathematic skills (Denton & West, 2002; Jordan, Kaplan, Olah, & Locuniak, 2006).

Therefore, it is essential to provide appropriate and effective mathematical instruction for low SES children. However, the lack of appropriate resources and family support limits efforts for improving low SES children's math skills. Currently, research-based mathematics programs are not available for kids from low-income families. The reality is that low-income parents are unable to spend hundreds of dollars purchasing materials, supplements and a curriculum. The purpose of this study is to introduce inexpensive resource based number games to low SES kids and test the effectiveness of the Number-Way curriculum.

Research Hypotheses

The research was planned to examine mathematical development of preschoolers who came from low income families. Specifically, the study was planned to explore two research questions: (a) Can the intervention group of children who received Number-Way curriculum significantly increase mathematics achievement scores? (b) Is there a difference between the intervention group with number games participation and control group in a normal classroom setting without any number games practice? Accordingly, it was hypothesized that an inexpensive resource-based number games curriculum would help the intervention group of children increase their math competence. In addition, children from the intervention group would achieve more advanced levels of mathematical competency compared to the control group children.

Method

Participants

Twenty preschool children from a church-affiliated preschool were chosen for this study. The children aged from 4 years 1 month to 4 years 11 months (M = 4 years 6 months). Nine were girls and eleven were boys. These children were in the free Voluntary Prekindergarten Education Program (VPK) class. All participants came from families whose incomes were under the poverty line. The preschool was located in a neighborhood with lower than average income families, so this preschool was typical among a large number of preschools serving children from low-income families. Ten children were randomly assigned to the intervention group, and the other ten children were in the comparison group. The children in the intervention group and comparison group were similar in respect to ethnicity, gender, and SES status. Their dominant language was Spanish.

Procedure and Materials

The 20 participants were randomly selected from the school with a total of 31 four-year-old preschoolers. VPK assessment was administrated by the school in the beginning of the school year in September. After the pretest, we conducted 15-minute sessions of game-based curriculum twice a week for ten children in the intervention group. We played number games with children individually with a one-on-one approach in a separate room beside the classroom. Meanwhile, we observed each child and wrote journals to record changes. The process of intervention lasted four months. In the end, each child in the experimental group received a total of 30 sessions of professional tutoring. The study adopted pretest and posttest design to examine the effectiveness of the game-based curriculum by comparing scores of the intervention and control group.

The curriculum focuses on the development of early number sense, because number theory is the most important component of mathematics that is considered to be the strongest touchstone of mathematical problem-solving capability (Jordan, Glutting, & Ramineni, 2010). Number-Way curriculum contains 15 number games representing 4 main principles of early number knowledge.

Four Main Principles

Number writing and identification. Numbers can be presented in different ways such as Arabic number "1." the English word "One" and the dot-quantity ".". At the very beginning, young kids were not able to realize the different expressions. Number writing and identification activities can help children build up their number sense gradually. Previous research also discovered a strong correlation between numeral writing skills and mathematical problem-solving ability (Johansson, 2005).

One-to-one correspondence. One-to-one correspondence is a foundation for early numerical understanding. It is very important to help young kids connect abstract numbers with concrete objects. When children count the number with a corresponding amount of cookies, it's meaningful for them to acquire the concept behind simple rote-counting.

Number comparison and sequence. Children start making very small number comparisons by visually perception, which is believed to be a natural capability. To obtain a higher level of number comparison, they need to understand that the number to be counted later in the sequence means a larger quantity. After plentiful practice of counting forwards and backwards, children will be able to tell which number is bigger or smaller easily and accurately.

Number-bonds. Number bonds, coming from Singapore mathematics, refer to small parts of a number. For example: 1+9=10 and 2+8=10, so 1, 9 and 2, 8 are number bonds to make 10. The significance of number-bonds is the support setting learning trajectory for simple addition and subtraction.

Measures

The VPK assessment is a statewide measure developed by the Florida Department of Education to check four-year-olds children's learning progress in the VPK Program classroom. It is in accord with early learning and developmental standards for four-year-old preschoolers, including four principle aspects: Print Knowledge, Phonological Awareness, Mathematics, and Oral Language and Vocabulary. The VPK mathematics measure contains a total of 13 assessment items and 18 highest possible points in three numeracy skills: counting skills, numerical relation skills, and arithmetic reasoning skills. It is appropriate to measure the children's early numeracy skills. The VPK assessment was conducted by the school instructor in September and January.

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Results

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A test with a highest possible score of 18 was designed for this study. The intervention group did the pretest with a mean score of 4.5. After four months, the average score improved to 11. The control group started with a mean of 4.4 and ended with 8.3. Figure 1 shows that intervention group had a significantly higher VPK assessment score in the post-test than in the pre-test (* p<0.01). Figure 2 showed there was no significant difference between the intervention group (M=4.5) and the control group (M=4.4) in VPK assessment, which showed that the two groups of children's mathematical capability were at the same level before implementation of the game-based number curriculum, while the intervention group (M=11)

shows a difference with the control group (M=8.3) in post-test. Results of independent t-tests' post scores of two groups show that there were significant differences between the intervention and control groups in mathematics achievement (p<0.05). The intervention group of children achieved a significantly higher score than those from the control group.
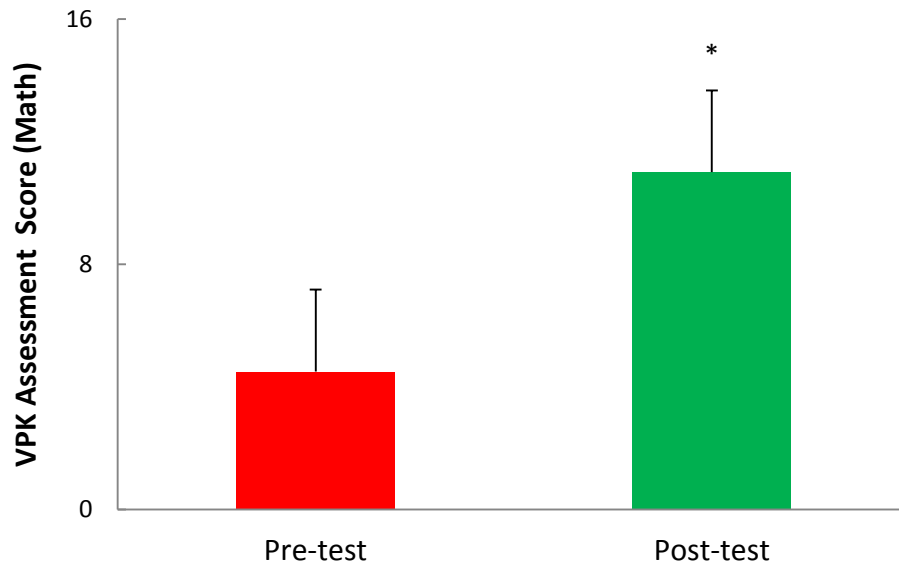
Figure 1. Comparison of pre- and post- VPK assessment for intervention group (n=10, * p<0.001).
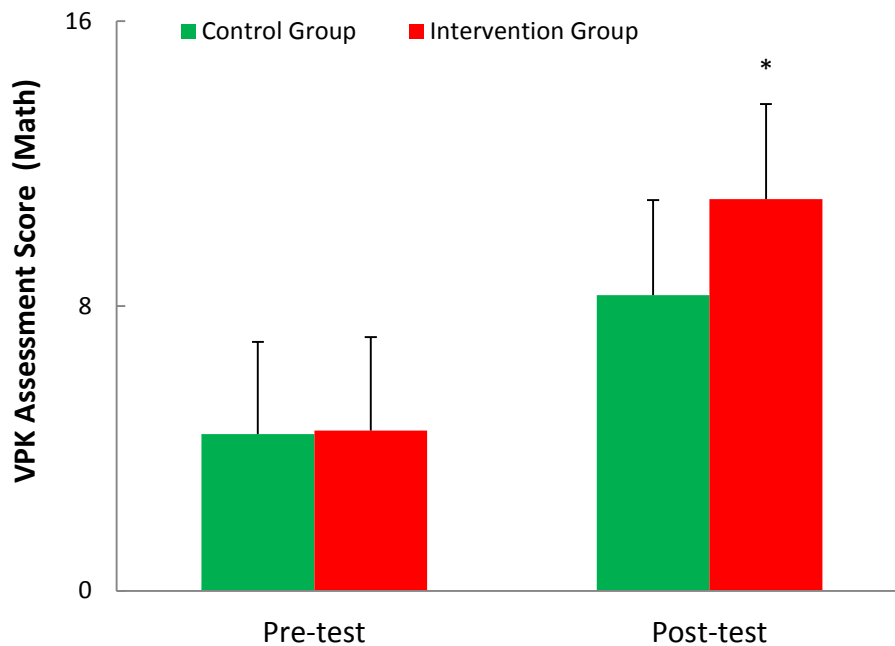
Figure 2. Group statistics of pre- and post- VPK assessment (n=10, * p<0.05).

Discussion

The test results provided evidence for the two research questions were stated earlier. For the research question about the effect of the mathematical intervention, the result of this study showed that the experimental group significantly promoted their mathematical competence through the game-based curriculum (Figure 1). For the second hypothesis of this study that the

intervention group may achieve better assessment scores than the control group, we observed a significant difference between children who received the intervention and children who were not exposed to the curriculum (Figure 2). Furthermore, the results of this study supported the effectiveness of the game-based mathematical curriculum.

Previous research has shown that children can develop further potential with a teacher's positive intervention (Hammond, 2002; Jacobs, 2001). This was later on accepted as a common sense that successful intervention depends on the quality of the teacher's instruction. For early mathematical teaching, the strategies that teachers employed to introduce mathematic concepts and integrate learning are essential. Teachers often assume that all children have already acquired simple concepts such as one plus one yields two or they can count from 1 to 10. As a matter of fact, the simple but important concepts are the basis of mathematical learning, which has a profound influence on future learning. Children need a great deal of practice to lay a solid foundation for later comprehension. Consequently, it is necessary for teachers to encourage children to reinforce their mathematic concepts in all kinds of activities. In order to illustrate how to practice the fundamental early mathematics knowledge in number games, Number-Way provided a series of videos of all the number games in the curriculum.

The children who participated in this study showed great enthusiasm to these mathematical games. Moreover, their passion lasted from the beginning to post-test period. According to our observation, Number-Way curriculum was very attractive for the children. It was believed that several reasons could explain why these games were appealing and pleasing. First of all, the intervention provided children opportunities for one-on-one interaction with teachers. Most activities at school were in class or small groups, therefore one-on-one games were novel and interesting for them. In addition, the process of communication between teachers and children not only helped the children to show their learning abilities and boost their self-confidence, but it also benefited the teacher to gain a comprehensive understanding of the children's learning level. What is more, the games in Number-Way curriculum were hands-on activities, facilitating children to build up their individual learning experience. Dewey advocated "learning by experience" (p. 164). He believed it's crucial for children to gain knowledge through meaningful and real-life experience (Dewey, 1922). When the children actively participated in the math games, they were discovering their own needs and interests at the same time.

In conclusion, it is valuable to provide better instruction for disadvantaged children from low-income families to eliminate the mathematics achievement gap with higher socioeconomic status children. In addition, preschool educators have a significant effect on children's performance in mathematics. To a great extent, a high-quality curriculum depends on the teacher's assistance and instruction. Therefore, it is vital to provide more professional mathematics instruction training to preschool teachers. Future studies should focus on implementing the curriculum to a larger number of participants.

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Appendix: Number Games in Number-Way

Name	Description	Number principles
1.Hide and seek	The teacher hides the cards in different places. Students find the numbers in order from 1 to 10.	Number identification
2.Jump jump	A board games with 30 squares. Students throw the dice and jump the spaces. First to 30 wins.	Number identification One-to-one correspondence
3.Animal number train	The teacher shows the locomotive. Students put the carriages with animals and numbers behind the locomotive.	Number identification Number comparison and sequence
4.Bigger number card wins	Teacher and students choose a card randomly, and compare the numbers of animals on the card. The person who has more animals wins this round and takes the two cards.	One-to-one correspondence Number comparison and sequence
5.Making a ruler	Prepare a blank paper and a ruler. The students draw the ruler on the paper and mark with numbers.	Number writing and identification
6.Cookie handout	Each of the animals has a number. The student distributes the same amount of cookies to the animals.	One-to-one correspondence
7.Stairs	The students use *Unifix* cubes to make stairs and draw the stairs on the paper.	Number writing and identification Number comparison and sequence
8.Tall building	Students arrange the same color *Unifix* cubes together and count how many cubes there are for each color, then make a tall building.	One-to-one correspondence
9.Kitty and Bear	The teacher shows two stuffed toys, Kitty and Bear. Make Kitty and Bear throw dice to get the same number of crayons as the dice indicates.	Number writing and identification Number comparison and sequence
10.Colorful beads	Throw the dice and get beads, then string the beads together.	One-to-one correspondence Number comparison and sequence

11.Animal puzzles	Puzzles are facing down. Let the students guess which number is on the puzzle. Once the students get the right answer, the puzzle can be turned around.	Number comparison and sequence
12.String numbers	Use a string to make different numbers.	Number writing and identification
13.Memory number match	Cards are placed face down. Students choose two cards each time and try to find matches. Player with the most matches wins.	Number identification
14.Bowling	Prepare ten bottles and a ball. Use the ball to hit down bottles.	Number comparison Number-bonds
15. Number Bingo	The students choose 10 numbers for their number cards. Then the teacher calls the numbers. The student who has a match of all cards first calls "Bingo"	Number identification

Prospective Teachers Serving as Physics Learning Assistants' Perspectives on Reflective Practice

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Abstract: A physics Learning Assistant (LA) program was established at Florida International University (FIU) for recruiting and preparing pre-service physics teachers. One goal of this program is to help prospective teachers to develop reflective practice. The purpose of this study is to understand these prospective teachers' perspectives on reflective practice.

At a large, public, Southeastern university a physics Learning Assistant (LA) program based on the Colorado LA model (Otero, 2010) has been implemented. As a part of this program, science and math majors successful in completing their introductory physics courses and interested in teaching are recruited to serve as assistants in the introductory physics laboratory courses. LAs assist in the laboratory courses by facilitating group discussion and answering student questions. The purpose of this program is to give students with an interest in teaching and strong content knowledge an opportunity to gain teaching experience early in their academic career. We believe this program is important to prospective and pre-service teachers at this institution because it helps them begin to develop expertise in teaching by providing them with opportunities to develop reflective practice, a tool which they can use to develop expertise in teaching long after they have left the LA program and begun teaching. Opportunities for developing reflective practice are built into several components of the LA program (Cochran, Brewe, Kramer, & Brookes, 2012). In the LA Seminar, a pedagogy course that all LAs take their first semester in the program, LAs submit weekly reflective writing assignments on their teaching experiences and on course readings. In weekly meetings with a faculty member, LAs reflect on their experience in the previous week's lab and prepare for the upcoming week's laboratory activity. However, the key component to their development of reflective practice is the teaching experience itself—being in the classroom. In this study, we investigate physics LAs' perspectives on developing reflective practice in the LA program by means of semi-structured interviews.

Theoretical Framework

According to the literature on expertise (Ericsson, 2009), it takes approximately ten years for an individual to develop expertise in any field. Generally, education programs last only four or five years. Thus, it is necessary to provide pre-service teachers with a kind of deliberate practice that can be used by the teachers long after they have left the program. Deliberate practice has been found to be key to obtaining expertise in a variety of fields including chess (Charness, Tuffiash, Krampe, Reingold, & Vasuykova, 2005), medicine (Boshuizen, 2005), music (Sloboda, 2000), and sports (Hodges, Ker, Starkes, Weird, & Nananidou, 2004). Deliberate practice is also necessary for developing expertise in teaching. We believe that reflective practice can serve as deliberate practice for pre-service teachers. Reflective practice in teaching is the thinking back on one's teaching experience for the purpose of making future decisions about one's teaching and improving one's teaching skills. In teaching, reflective practice requires that reflection on their taught lesson provides teachers with feedback on their

lesson and decisions and determinations for future lessons. Thus, reflective practice is the deliberate practice necessary for helping teachers to hone their teaching skills as they develop expertise in teaching.

John Dewey is considered by most to be the father of reflection. The idea Dewey is the key originator of the concept of reflection is not disputed in the literature on reflection (Carson & Fisher, 2006; Gore, 1987; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Valli, 1992). He initiated the conversation on reflection in his work, *How We Think and Act* (1933). In this work, Dewey characterized different modes of thinking. He asserts that reflection or reflective thinking is a special kind of problem solving that involves framing and reframing problems. Donald Schön has been a major influence on reflection in teacher education. He has been instrumental in laying a foundation for our understanding of reflection. Whereas Dewey laid the foundation for reflective thinking, Schön laid the foundation for reflective practice (Spalding & Wilson, 2002). Schön (1983) highlighted the need for professionals to be reflective practitioners and he specifically applied this need to teachers. In this study, we utilized Dewey's theory on reflection and Schön's theory on the reflective practitioner to understand the reflective practice of prospective teachers in a physics LA program.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to better understand how physics LAs are engaging in reflective practice while participating in the LA program. More specifically, the authors wanted to determine: (a) Under what circumstances do prospective teachers serving as physics LAs engage in reflective thinking? (b) From the perspective of prospective teachers serving as physics LAs, what is the relationship between reflective thinking and reflective action? and (c) How do prospective teachers serving as physics LAs define reflective thinking and reflective teaching? To answer these questions, we conducted a qualitative study. The method for the study is included in the next section.

Method

In this study hour-long, semi-structured interviews with physics LAs were conducted. According to Rubin and Rubin (2005) interviews are necessary when you anticipate the answers to your questions will not be brief and may require follow-up questions. The interviews conducted in this study can be considered semi-structured because pre-determined questions that had a specific focus were utilized. Because no other data was collected in this study, excerpts from the interviews were used to provide enough detail to paint a picture in the mind of readers to increase the likelihood of having "rich, thick descriptions" (Merriam, 2002, p.29). According to Rubin and Rubin (2005) "main questions get a conversation going on a subject and ensure that the overall subject is covered" (p. 13). Seven main questions were used in the interview protocol (See Appendix). These seven main questions were followed by follow-up questions for clarification depending on participant responses. Rubin and Rubin wrote that "asking everyone the same questions makes little sense in qualitative interviewing" (p. 14). Thus, there are some follow-up questions that all interviewees were not asked. Transcriptions of the interviews were coded for themes and analyzed in terms of the research questions. The findings from this analysis are discussed in the results section. The next section describes the participants.

Participants

All four participants in the study were physics LAs. Each of the physics LAs served as an LA for differing lengths of time: two, three, four, and five academic semesters. The LAs also had differing teaching experiences. One of the LAs served as an assistant in a reformed physics lecture class, another served as an assistant in a reformed introductory physics laboratory course,

and the final two served as both. The participants will not be matched to the specific teaching role in this study for the sake of confidentiality. The following code names are used in this report: Joselito, Sarita, Isabella, and Precious.

<div align="center">

Results and Discussion

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Analysis of the coded transcripts revealed three major themes: examples of reflective teaching, LAs' engaging in self-tests, and LAs' believe in more than one way to do things. In this section, themes will be discussed and excerpts from the interviews will be included to illustrate the ideas behind the themes. This will be followed by a discussion section that, specifically addresses the research questions. Relevant literature will be integrated when possible and connections will be made to existing theories on reflection.

Examples of Reflective Teaching

In this study, all LAs interviewed provided examples of their engaging in reflective teaching practice. Each of the interviewees talked about noticing something happening in the classroom and making changes to their teaching as a result of it. They decided to make these changes in hopes of improving as LAs. One such example is given by Sarita. Sarita discussed that as a beginning LA, she had little patience with her students. She noted, however, that this resulted in their being frustrated. To calm their frustrations, she decided to practice being more patient:

> I've become more patient. Like, I used to be really impatient with the students because they might not understand something. I've learned to develop a little bit of patience with them because … it's frustrating to not understand something to ask questions and not get answers. … The … students …. would sometimes even get frustrated with me for not being able to answer their questions a different way than what I was answering it. So, I realized that change needs to happen in order for them to grow in their learning. I realize that I cannot get impatient with them because then they won't learn. I won't learn anything out of the experience …. I kind of just calm myself down internally [now]. Internally I just talk to myself like, "[Sarita] … calm down." (Sarita)

Sarita's reflection on student emotions and feelings helped her to change how she dealt with them when they were stuck on a problem or concept. Isabella gave evidence of reflective teaching practice that came out of her reflections of the entire semester. Reflection on her students' competency at the beginning over the semester caused her to change her expectations for her students and the way that she helped them. Isabella says,

> Why I change … because I see that stuff doesn't work … You can only hold their hand for so long … I hold them accountable … You need to meet me halfway … At first as an LA, I didn't put this accountability on them and I held their hand more … then I started to realize that … it's not always the best thing to do … that's not something that someone would have told me to do and I would have done it. (Isabella)

When asked to explain this process and what sparked it, Isabella says,

> … Seeing patterns in students and identifying them … Over the course of a semester I saw that students continually struggled with a concept … at the end of the semester they were still asking about this … concept … I was like what's going on? What went on? What happened? (Isabella)

Confusion with why students struggle with the same thing over time led Isabella to reflect on what happened during the semester. This resulted in specific changes in what she required of students before working with them and her beliefs on what their responsibilities are in the learning process. According to Dewey, reflective action stems from reflective thinking (1933).

All four LAs indicated that their reflection arose from their reflective thinking. This is in harmony with Dewey's two-step process of reflection. He says that it beings with "(1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates and (2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity" (Dewey, 1933, p. 12). In the second stage of reflection, Dewey mentions steps to resolve the difficulty. Coding revealed that LAs generally start this process with a self-test. This is especially true when the issues involve their teaching methodology, strategies, or explanations.

Self-test

As a part of their reflective practice, LAs discussed trying things out on themselves first. Sarita says, "If it's easy for me to remember that explanation or associate things to that explanation then I realize that it's a good way of explaining things" (Sarita). In this instance, Sarita is talking about her use of particular explanations. However, she also mentions that she also does this kind of self-test when it comes to the teaching style she uses. In regard to lecturing, she says,

> … I realize that it's not what I want to hear. So, … they're probably on the same page with me since we're all around the same age and similarly I kind of noticed that they doze off or get glazed and they stop listening if I lecture. (Sarita)

Isabella describes her self-test as first stage as well:

> I try to refer back to what works for me. I know that's kind of egocentric and self-centered, but I think it's fair to go back to what worked for you and see. Like a good reference point … okay, like when I learned this concept this analogy worked for me so let me try … Okay, that didn't work. Okay, well, in the LA seminar they told me … okay this could work … I try to look at different angles … and see what works (Isabella).

Joselito describes a similar kind of process to that of Sarita and Isabella, but describes a more systematic procedure:

> … if this way of explaining makes more sense to me I don't see why I wouldn't give it a try in explaining it to someone else. Maybe it would make more sense to them. Because I have an idea, this is the analogy I'm using, but if I can find another analogy that I can see works better then I will go ahead and start using that analogy. If the way I'm using the analogy doesn't work then I'll just revert back to the original analogy and if something else comes along I might switch it in to see how it works and it's basically a trial and error type deal, but the only ones that get used are the ones that seem to make more sense. (Joselito)

Each of the LAs discuss this self-test as the first step in their reflection. They also discuss the trial and error stage. They said that this trial and error results from their realization that there is more than one right way to do things. This will be discussed in the next section.

More Than One Way To …

Although all of the LAs mentioned that their use of trial and error comes from the realization that there is more than one way to do things, they arrived at this conclusion from different means. For Precious, this came from her learning that there is more than one way to solve a physics problem:

> When I took [a reformed physics course,] they showed us that … you don't have to just take it. There is always something you can do. There is always some other way to figure something out. There's not just one right way and that everybody learns different. Some people learn quicker. Some people learn by demonstration and some people don't.
> And—umm—once you see that that's possible, for me that was when I was like "Okay. I

get where you're going …" And you keep doing it and if it doesn't you try something else … there's not one right way. (Precious)

Throughout the interview, Precious mentions that she learned that there is more than one way to solve a physics problem in her reformed physics class. This encouraged her to try to figure out a way that was suitable to her. She says that she feels that it is the same with teaching. Since different students learn differently, she needs to try out different things and realize that there is more than one right way to teach. This is a robust concept for novice teachers. Research indicates that most pre-service teachers want to be told the correct way to teach (Korthagen, 1988). Joselito also discussed this idea of knowing that there is more than one way to teach. However, Joselito's understanding came from a paper that he read as a part of the LA Seminar:

[T]here was one particular text from the course [Schoenfield, 1987] that spoke about a mathematician that was doing a problem and he would go back and do it another way if the original way wasn't working and he would keep doing it until he found … a method that worked and then the students who had the same problem just kept barreling through the same issue. And I'm always reminded of that because whenever I do problems now that are complex and you know they have several different ways of doing it you know I always try to find the easiest one. If one isn't working for me I just step back and try it another way and I feel the same approach can be taken for teaching. If you're trying one way you can't barrel your way through it because then the students are going to be confused and on top of that you're going to be frustrated because they're not getting the concept you're trying to get. (Joselito)

Joselito explains how the article he read helped him realize the importance of self-regulation during problem solving, by stopping to engage in metacognition and then pursuing alternative strategies if necessary rather than just "barreling through." Joselito sees this same principle being apropos to teaching. This discussion of knowing and finding more than one way to accomplish something was the final theme seen in all of the interviews.

All of the three themes were related to the research questions because they described the LAs reflective thinking and included things that prompted their engaging in the reflective process. In the excerpts they also described how they engage in the reflective process. The next section furthers this discussion by more specifically addressing the research questions.

Discussion

The first research question was: Under what circumstances do prospective teachers servings as physics learning assistants engage in reflective thinking? As shown in the examples of reflective teaching practice, the participants revealed that they engaged in reflective thinking as a result of their being cognizant of their students' emotions and progress. Participants also revealed that they engage in reflection in various locations. Sarita mentioned that she engaged in reflective thinking "usually just right after [class]. Like right after it's [the class is] over that I just have time to kind of walk away and think to myself" (Sarita). Although Sarita reflected in the classroom after the students had left, Precious engaged in reflection while class is still going on and afterwards. She said usually right after I talk to them and I walk away and when class ends" (Precious). Schön (1983) labels this as reflection-in-action. He suggests that not only can we think" about doing but that we can think about doing something while doing it" (p. 54). Joselito and Isabella engage in reflective thinking in a variety of contexts. For example, Isabella says, "It happens as I'm walking away out of the classroom … it can happen randomly like in the shower or something … during class … and I … talk to my fellow LAs or people who are tutors … (Isabella)

The second research question was: From the perspective of prospective teachers serving as physics learning assistants, what is the relationship between reflective thinking and reflective teaching? The third question was related to the second: How do prospective teachers serving as physics learning assistants define reflective thinking and reflective practice? In both their descriptions of their reflective practices and their responses to a prompt asking for their definitions of reflective thinking and teaching, LAs asserted that reflective teaching is applying what you learn from reflective thinking. Sarita says that reflective teaching is "similar to reflective thinking except actually applying that change that you thought about … to the classroom." Joselito says, "Every time you teach something happens … if you are a reflective teacher … you think about what has happened in your reflective thinking, but the next time you go to teach you implement those new ideas." LA responses were similar in this regard. Precious describes reflective thinking:

> Looking back on—when you reflect on something you look back on it. You think about what happened, why did it happen, could it have been different, could it have been better? You know, was it—was it right or wrong, good or bad? … It's like putting actual thought into it; not just okay this is what happened, but why?

Other participants described reflective thinking similarly. They also mentioned where their definitions came from. Joselito was not asked this question. Isabella and Precious mentioned that their responses came from the LA seminar. Sarita says that her definitions came from her experiences.

Conclusions

All four participants engaged in reflective teaching practices and provided examples of this. According to Korthagen (1988), reflective teaching practice involves facing a challenge, problem, discovery or some other phenomenon while teaching and then making changes in one's teaching to address or investigate the phenomenon. Each participant mentioned making changes in their teaching as a result of what was going on in the classroom and with the hope of becoming a better LA. Schön (1983) mentions that a practitioner engages in reflection when stimulated "by surprise, they turn thought back on action and on the knowing which is implicit in action" and then begin to ask themselves questions (p. 50). All four LAs interviewed described changes in their teaching that resulted from their reflective thinking. Thus, participants' perspectives on their reflective practice are in harmony with theory on reflective action. The second theme that emerged is that as part of their reflective process, LAs tested their ideas on themselves. This self-testing applied to a variety of pedagogical tools including: explanations, analogies, and even teaching strategies (i.e. lecturing). Finally, all four participants also discussed that their belief in the need to be reflective arose from their understanding that there is more than one right way to do things. They translated this idea to the fact that there is more than one way to teach and that students learn differently. In discussing an artful teacher as a reflective practitioner, Schön says, "because the child's difficulties may be unique, the teacher cannot assume that his repertoire of explanations will suffice, even though they are 'at the tongue's end.' He must be ready to invent new methods and must 'endeavor to develop in himself the ability of discovering them'" (p. 66). Thus, the physics LAs' idea that one cannot necessarily have one routine way of solving problems in their practice is in harmony with Schön's theory on the reflective practitioner.

Implications

This study shows that physics LAs in this institution are engaging in reflective practice. Although causation cannot be assumed in this study, this study does provide

information useful to the administrators of this program. The physics LAs interviewed revealed that their reflection was sparked by or arose from their observations of what was happening in the classroom. This indicates that the actual teaching experience is indeed the key component of their developing reflective practice while participating in the program. These results may indicate that more teaching experience may be beneficial to these prospective teachers as they engage in reflective practice and begin to develop expertise in teaching. The results of this study also revealed that LAs are engaging in reflection in a variety of ways and settings. Thus, it may be necessary to develop a diverse set of tools for assessing the reflective practice of LAs in this program.

Future Work

Although these interviews were revelatory, more work is necessary. This study revealed that physics LAs are engaging in reflection and three themes were determined from the analysis of the interviews. However, to get a full understanding of the physics LAs' perspectives, more interviews must be conducted. In the future, interviews will be conducted with physics LAs until saturation is reached. Saturation will be considered to be reached when no new codes emerge from analysis of the interview transcripts. Moreover, to better understand how physics LAs take advantage of opportunities for reflection in the LA program for the purpose of developing expertise in teaching, explicit questions regarding expertise in teaching will be added to the present interview protocol.

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Appendix

Interview Protocol

a. Thinking about the class you're teaching now, [or the most recent class you taught], has there ever been a time when you thought back on the class and wished you had said something you did not or maybe said something differently?
b. Is there a time when you wished that you had done something differently?
c. Have you made any changes in the way that you teach since you became an LA?
d. Have you ever faced a problem while teaching?
e. Do you ever discuss your teaching with anyone else?
f. What would you say reflective thinking is?
g. What is reflective teaching?

Family Literacy Practices: Traditions and Transitions

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Abstract: Family literacy practices are discussed from a historical perspective, highlighting the similarities and differences from ancient to modern times. The content of a family literacy workshop is discussed and scripted lessons for parents are presented.

From ancient times to the present, literacy has taken on different forms, beginning with functional literacy requiring a minimum knowledge of reading and writing (e.g., reading signs, writing letters) to academic literacy, which is usually learned in a school environment. The teaching of literacy was initially a household responsibility, but with the passage of time, it has become a school responsibility. Yet, for some minority students in particular, these school experiences have not yielded sufficient literacy development (Delpit, 2003). Literacy tools that can be used in the home may be useful in alleviating this problem. In a study discussed in this article that investigated parents' perceptions of home literacy, a checklist of specific book-sharing behaviors was used as a parental tool during times they read to their children. The examples of scripted lessons included are additional tools that will be used in future research, as a guide for parents to engage their children in best reading practice techniques related to phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension.

The purpose of this article is to discuss family literacy practices and propose some that can be useful in today's society. First, a discussion of the ancient and early American literacy traditions is presented. Then a discussion of the contemporary family literacy movement follows. A study conducted by the first author on parents' perceptions of literacy at home is provided. This research led to the creation of a family literacy workshop which is explained within this article. Lastly, examples of scripted lessons that will allow parents to engage their children in the best reading practices are provided.

Ancient Literacy Trends

Historians believe people learned to read and write in Sumeria around 3500 B.C. and that literacy was at first passed from father to son and then occasionally to the daughters of the Middle East (Claiborne, 1974; Smethurst, 1975). In the ancient civilizations of the Indus Valley, Brahman education appeared to have been administered by the father with the purpose to train priests (Keay, 1992). In Biblical times, the Hebraic tradition placed the responsibility for children's learning to read and write upon the father (Smith, 1969). The Athenian law required fathers to teach their sons to read, and in ancient Rome, education was carried on exclusively in the household under the direction of the father (Smith, 1955). In Anglo-Saxon England, while the girls of the lower class received instruction in home economics and boys followed through with agricultural chores, their wealthier counterparts were instructed in schools and monasteries (Adamson, 1946; Smethurst, 1975).

Early American Literacy Traditions

The American colonists as heirs to English traditions promoted the household as the principal agency of literacy instruction with a focus on learning the scriptures and becoming familiar with the laws of the land (Cremin, 1970). Several widely-distributed books on familial education during that period slated the father as the head of the household (Davis, 1998; Dod & Cleaver, 1998; Gouge, 1988) and possibly the primary educator in the home. By 1642, parent teaching or its equivalent was required by law for the Massachusetts Bay Colony (Cremin, 1970; Cubberley, 1919; Gordon & Gordon, 2003). In 1647, the Old Deluder Satan ordinance of the Massachusetts Bay Colony was the first law requiring compulsory education and setting up schools in the colonies. In areas where there were no schools, parents and masters were mandated to instruct the children to read English (Johnson, 1904/1963). Although families were still expected to teach literacy in the homes, the Old Deluder Satan Act required communities of 100 or more households to establish a grammar school (primary purpose of the school was to teach Latin) and those with 50 or more to open a petty (elementary) school (Shurtleff, 1853). The early American primers were written for use by parents and teachers (Johnson, 1904, 1963) with the primary purpose of teaching the children the doctrines and moral precepts of Christianity (Morgan, 1966).

The other thirteen colonies embraced the concept of literacy education outside of the home at varying degrees of acceptance (Gordon & Gordon, 2003). From about 1695 to 1775, most New Yorkers of the Mid-Atlantic colonies tutored their children at home, by apprenticeships or in the churches, often associating the charity schools offered by the Dutch Reformed congregations, the Jewish community, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel introduced by the southern colonies with pauperism (Schultz, 1973). A slow reformation emerged to accept free education with the opening of the first free public grammar school in 1805 (Kammen, 1975).

Although the proliferation of petty schools and grammar schools opening from state to state allowed for many more children to receive free education, many parents opted to continue to teach their children at home. This nineteenth century movement was an outcry against the overcrowdedness and "tasked lessons" of the schoolroom (Gordon & Gordon, 2003, p. 83). Factors such as the parents' need to have the children help with farming during the harvesting season or the inability of some children to become comfortable within the confines of a classroom contributed to resistance to compulsory education. In these homes, the mother was the primary educator, instructing the child in reading, spelling, word definitions, handwriting, math, and character education (Kuhn, 1947).

In other parts of the nation such as in the Antebellum South, the laws passed permitting educational systems were ignored. Although many parents acted as teachers for their children, illiteracy among native-born Southern Whites measured at about 20 percent in 1860 as compared to .04 percent among the native-born New Englanders (Gordon & Gordon, 2003). In addition, numerous laws prohibited the schooling of African Americans (Bellows, 1993; Calhoun, 1945; Cornelius, 1991; Cremin, 1980; Morison, 1965). The few slaves who did learn to read were among house servants, city workers, or children who went to school as companions for their master's children. Others were taught by Black or White teachers under adverse circumstances. The Bible was the most important book to read to most slaves (Cornelius, 1991).

In 1880, states that had passed compulsory laws for schools saw no growth in attendance. However, with each passing year, the mandate and enforcement of these laws created an increase in school attendance. In 1870, 20% of the population (10 years and older) was illiterate; by

1920, illiteracy had shrunk to 6% (Morison & Comager, 1960; U. S. Census Bureau, 1965). Factors such as the need to assimilate immigrants to the American way of life (Cubberley, 1909) and more mothers working outside of the home as a result of the two world wars, contributed to the increased responsibility of teaching literacy in the schools (Prost & Vincent, 1991). However, domestic education continued as a preferred choice until the tax-based schooling of the twentieth century (Goodrich, 1841; Humphrey, 1840).

Contemporary Family Literacy Movement

The 1950s and 1960s back-to-phonics movement was encouraged particularly by educators and parents who supported Rudolf Flesch's book, *Why Johnny Can't Read–And What You Can Do About It*. Flesch (1955) encouraged parents to teach the child phonics at home in contrast to the "look-say" method that was prevalent in the schools at the time. On the other hand, Banton-Smith (1963) suggested that parents balance their reading instruction with response, listening, and encouragement. Banton-Smith (1963) also suggested that the parent read to the child and let the child select his or her own books. In addition, the 1960s and 1970s sparked a research impetus on studies related to lower income families in response to the Civil Rights movement and the campaign for educational equality. Experts in reading, linguistics, educational psychology, and sociology at that time sought to determine the connections between success and failure in school as related to the literacy approaches of parents in the home (Billingsley, 1968; Coleman et al., 1966; Durkin, 1966; Durkin, 1974-75; Stack, 1974). This paradigm shift brought in greater interest in cross-cultural studies that questioned universal assumptions of parental practices (New, 2001).

One such study was conducted by Duren (2006) with 152 parents: 38 low-income Hispanic, 38 middle-income Hispanic, 38 low-income African American, and 38 middle-income African American. The parents were asked to check those items with which they agreed on the Parents' Perceptions of Literacy Learning Interview Survey (Anderson, 1995), which consisted of an equal number of items from the traditional skills-based and emergent literacy- based orientations. According to Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (2000), traditionalists think that children must master a set of rudimentary skills before they can learn to read or write (i.e., children learn to read or write in a sequential or hierarchal order and children master reading before writing). Those who agree with this view also believe that reading and writing should be taught in a school-like setting (Teale & Sulzby, 1986). In contrast, emergent literacy, also known as metalinguistic awareness, print awareness, early literacy, concepts about print, and literacy before schooling (Sulzby & Teale, 1996), is characterized as children's early literacy behaviors and their development in informal settings at home and at school prior to the onset of formal literacy instruction (Yaden, Rowe, & MacGillivray, 2000). A central tenet of this perspective is that children can acquire crucial foundation skills and an understanding of literacy well before the onset of formal instruction if significant others engage the child in literacy activities (Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978). Consistent with prior findings that indicate low-income families are typically skills-based in their belief structure, the low-income African American and Hispanic parents of this study believed in the traditional skills approach, surmising that these parents find it necessary for children to have sufficient school readiness skills prior to learning to read or write.

To help low income minority parents see the value in engaging children in literacy experiences at home, the first author created a parenting workshop titled Reading MATTERS (see Appendix A). Each letter of the model represents a best practice or pattern in a parent-child booksharing activity that is discussed and/or demonstrated in the hour long workshops. Some

things that are discussed in the workshops include reading for at least 20 minutes per day, sitting close to the child while reading, and asking questions during the book sharing. There is teacher demonstration, parent input, and practice intertwined within each of the six workshops.

A 10-item Parent/Child Reading Survey was used as a pre- and post-test measurement to determine the parents' ability and frequency to share books with their children. The survey measures literacy-related behaviors demonstrated by the parent while reading to the child on a likert scale of "Always," "Sometimes," or "Never". Items include "I choose books my child can understand," "I sit in a position to allow my child to see the book," "I point to the pictures," "I point to the words," "I use expression in my voice," "I make motions and/or sounds when appropriate," "I ask 'Wh' questions about the book," "I relate the stories in the books to real life events," and "I stop reading when my child loses interest." The results of two ANOVAs and a contingency table indicated a significant workshop effect, demonstrating a positive relationship between the number of workshops conducted and the number of "always" answers on the checklist scores (compared to "sometimes" or "never").

In addition, the quality of parent-child bookreading activity could be seen by the parents' performances while reading books to their children during the Reading MATTERS workshops. The incorporation of techniques that were noted included asking "Wh" questions, relating the story to real life, sitting with the book in the lap of the parent or in front of the child at eye level to enable the child to see the book, taking a look at the pictures in the book, and defining unfamiliar words for the child. From their discussion, the parents were indeed interested in acquiring new techniques that could be incorporated into their style of reading. Although the value of the family literacy workshops were clearly expressed by the parents, many of them were unable to attend the workshops consistently due to familial, work, and other factors.

Literacy has its foundation in the home, and it is built upon with the commencement of formal schooling. Many low-income African and Hispanic Americans believe that the teacher is primarily responsible for their children's reading education. Yet, while they believe in this traditional skills-based approach, they can and do respond positively when taught otherwise (Edwards, 1994, 2004).

Implications

Workshops are sometimes difficult for parents to attend and costly to hold; therefore, future research is needed to determine the effectiveness of the parents' use of scripted lessons (see examples in Appendix B) related to best reading practices without a parenting workshop. The scripted lessons reach beyond the emergent literacy level and can be used for elementary-aged children. It is also anticipated that these parent-friendly lessons will provide guidance on how to implement best reading practices at home and serve as a conduit between school and family literacy practices.

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Appendix A

R E A D I N G

M   Read only when the child is in the **MOOD** to participate. He/She will remember

the positive and negative reading experiences.

A   Select a variety of books depending on the child's **AGE.** Check with your child's

teacher or a local librarian for suggestions.

T   Set aside **TIME** during the week to read. It is recommended that your child reads

to you or is read to for at least 20 minutes regularly.

T   **TEST** for understanding by asking "Wh" (Who, What, When, Where, and Why)

questions while reading.

E   Use **EXPRESSION** to make your reading exciting**.** This will keep your child

interested and model proper oral reading.

R   **RELATE** stories to real-life events and people. These connections will add to the

meaning and discussion of the story.

S   **SIT** in a way that you and the child can see the book. An emotional bond is

established as you and your child sit together to read.

Appendix B

Sample scripted lesson related to vocabulary development

Dewdney, A. (2005). *Llama llama red pajama.* New York, NY: Viking.
Description: After the baby llama kisses his mother llama goodnight, he feels lonely and also wants a drink. Baby llama calls downstairs to his mama. She acknowledges him and says she'll

be up to see him soon. However, the phone rings and she forgets to go up to him while talking. He frets, moans, cries, stomps, pouts, jumps, shouts, and finally weeps and wails loud enough to get her to run to his rescue. Mama llama reprimands him gently for such 'llama drama,' but also reassures him that she's always near. She then kisses him as he snuggles deep into his pillow and blanket and falls asleep.

Skill focus: Scaffolded silent reading

Explanation of skill to parent: Scaffolded silent reading can be used with books your child has found easy to read. If you need help with finding books that are easy for your child to read, ask his or her reading teacher, the media specialist at his or her school, or a librarian in your neighborhood's library. After the book is chosen, have the child read the book for a total of 20 minutes (this can be broken up into two 10-minute segments for kindergarten to second grade students). As the child reads the book silently, stop the child at various spots throughout the book and ask him or her to read that page (or a portion of it) aloud. In addition, ask the child "Wh" questions (Who, What, When, Where, Why) about that section to determine if he or she understands what was read.

Sight Words: a, with, at, up

Sample related to Phonics

Strickland, P., & Strickland, H. (2002). *Dinosaur roar!* New York, NY: Puffin.

Description: Dinosaurs are used to emphasize opposites and also to make "munching" sounds that the young reader would enjoy repeating. There are a number of rhyme words and quite a few interesting words such as "meek" and "slimy" that can be taught in context and with the aid of illustrations.

Skill focus: Discuss the opposite terms in the book.

The book has many examples of opposites. This includes "Dinosaur weak, dinosaur strong," "Dinosaur short or very, very long," and "Dinosaur spiky, Dinosaur lumpy."

Parent focus: This can be followed by the parent pointing out items in the kitchen that represent opposites. Here are some suggestions:

cookie - round	block of cheese - square
faucet - cold	faucet - hot
foil - thin	kitchen towel - thick
straw - long	toothpick - short
sugar - sweet	salt - bitter
water - clear	milk - not clear
fork - rough tip	spoon - smooth tip
cabinets above	cabinets below
light on	light off

The parent can show other items and their opposites such as a hard bottom to a chair versus the soft cushion of the sofa or the small speaker on the phone in contrast to the large speaker of the stereo.

Content Analysis of Outcome Assessment of Global Learning Foundations Courses: A Case Study

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Abstract: This study used content analysis to interpret and evaluate outcome evaluation matrices of undergraduate Global Learning foundations courses. The findings revealed a lack of uniformity in the faculty members' interpretation and implementation of global learning components in the coursework. Successful teaching practices and challenges were identified and classified.

A southeastern large urban public research university with a diverse student body is dedicated to support student learning, innovation, and collaboration. The mission of the University encompasses high standards in teaching, research, creative activities, and engagement with communities on local and global scale (AU, 2012a). In accordance with its mission, the University offers global learning curriculum and co-curriculum for all majors regulated by Quality Enhancement Plan *Global Learning for Global Citizenship* (AU, 2010). This plan is created to engage undergraduate students as global citizens by developing their global awareness, global perspective, and promoting attitudes for global engagement. Consequently, global learning requirement has been included in undergraduate curricula. It consists of two global learning courses and integrated co-curricular activities. The courses included in global learning requirement comprise of global learning foundations courses within the University Core Curriculum (UCC) and upper division discipline designated global learning courses at the 3000 level or higher. The faculty members who teach global learning (GL) courses are required to plan their curriculum, instruction, and assessment according to the designated University's GL student outcomes—Global Awareness (knowledge of the interconnectedness of issues, trends, and systems), Global Perspective (the ability to view the world from multiple perspectives), and Global Engagement (willingness to address local, global, international, and intercultural issues; AU (2010). To provide quality global learning experiences for students, the University provides faculty and staff development workshops "to investigate the theory and practice involved in developing a new course or redesigning a course for designation as a Global Learning (GL) course" (AU, 2012b).

In the end of every global learning course, the faculty are required to fill out the course outcome assessment matrices that provide information on how the global learning outcomes were addressed in the course (an example is provided in Table 3). Therefore, it is important to analyze these course outcome assessment matrices to learn how the faculty implement GL requirements in curricula. According to Landorf, Dorscher, Scorza, and Omolo (2012), global learning courses need to address global learning outcomes, include relevant interdisciplinary themes, active learning strategies, authentic assessments, and integrated co-curricular component.

A content analysis of GL course outcome assessments is important for future professional development planning, evaluation of the course curriculum content, eliciting data on how faculty identify and assess learning outcomes and design appropriate student activities, and what student assessment results are. In this study, I scrutinized the content and results of GL foundations

courses through a content analysis of all available course outcome assessments submitted by the faculty and provided recommendations for teaching practices.

The following questions guided the research: (a) How did the faculty define course learning outcomes for the three identified global learning outcomes (global awareness, global perspective, and global engagement)? (b) What course content and teaching and learning strategies did the faculty members use to engage students in higher order thinking (analysis, synthesis, and evaluation)? (c) What common themes or patterns emerge in course learning outcomes, assessment methods, assessment results, and the faculty's reflection on the assessment results?

Literature Review

The benefits of global learning and university internationalization for students are well recorded in research literature (e.g., Mayo, Gaventa, & Rooke (2009); Ramirez (2010); Rhoads & Szelenyi (2011); Singh (2005); Suarez-Orozco & Sattin (2007). Following Knight (2010), internationalization in higher education is a reaction to globalization as well as an agent of globalization. Internationalization of higher education leads to further economic integration and workforce mobility (Hugonnier, 2007). Likewise, global education ensures the competitiveness of individuals in a world market; provides "an understanding of cultures, languages, geography, and global perspectives" (p. 159); makes individuals realize their role and responsibilities in the global community; and provides understanding of how global events relate to individual experiences (Adams & Carfanga, 2006). Another important goal of global education is cultivating responsible national and global citizens (Abdullahi, 2010; Adams & Carfanga, 2006). It is in agreement with Ben-Peretz (2009) who argued that curriculum and curriculum development need to be connected to the social, political, and cultural developments that take place on international and local levels. Zhao (2009) indicated that whole-school changes in mind with achievement of global competencies, should also involve "changes in school mission, expected learning outcomes, curriculum arrangement, professional development for staff, working and communicating with the community, and creative use of resources" (p. 193). While implementing global education in higher education curricula, both administrators and faculty should be consulted in terms of curricula options and the development of global curriculum coursework (Stearns, 2009).

Method and Data Analysis

An embedded single-case study was used to fulfill the purpose of the research and answer the research questions. The analytical research strategy was based on both qualitative and quantitative data drawn from GL course evaluation matrices filled out by the faculty. According to Yin (2009), such mixed method case study follows a strong analytic strategy if qualitative data remains central to the research even when essential amounts of quantitative data are statistically analyzed. Yin (2009) stated further the benefits of using the quantitative data in a case study— (a) the data may cover the outcomes in an evaluative case study; and (b) "the data may be related to an embedded unit of analysis within [a] broader case study" (p. 133).

A unit of analysis of this study was the global learning assessment outcomes of all current global learning foundations courses in the University (not faculty or students). In this case, the subunits of analysis were the assessment plans for each GL course. One of the benefits of an embedded case study is that it enhances the estimates of the study validity (trustworthiness of the study); its subunits increase sensitivity to a possible shift in research design and enable extensive in-depth analysis of a single case (Yin, 2009). Caution needs to be exercised with

embedded case studies; if too much attention is given to the subunits, a larger framework of the case study is ignored and shift in the research design may occur (Yin, 2009).

I analyzed the data on GL foundation courses curriculum content, procedures, and outcomes through a content analysis of GL Course Outcome Assessment plans submitted by the faculty. I used word frequency counts to identify the words of potential interest and tested for the consistency of their usage in a Key Word In Context (KWIC) search. Following Stemler (2001), KWIC strengthens the validity measures of the study. I created checklists to count frequencies of words of potential interest in two predetermined assessment categories in the GL assessment matrices — *Assessment* Method (consisting *of Assessment Activities/ Artifacts, Evaluation Process, Minimum Criteria for Success, and* Sample) and *Assessment Results.* The content validity of the checklists was reached through expert judge validity. The data was statistically analyzed by PASW (SPSS) computer software. The scores ranged from 0 (no agreement other than that expected by chance) to1 (perfectly reliable). The *inter-rater reliability* was calculated using Cohen's Kappa based on the coding checklists of two raters (myself and one advanced doctoral student with research experience). An agreement of .8 or higher was considered almost perfect and used as statistically significant. In addition, the reliability estimates of coding were strengthened by means of *intra-rater reliability*. The level of *intra-rater reliability* was estimated based on my original coding checklist that was compared to another coding checklist that I created two weeks after the creation of the original checklist.

The next step in data analysis was coding and categorization of the qualitative data drawn from the predetermined categories of *Course Learning Outcomes* descriptions and *Use of Results for Improving Student Learning.* Emergent coding was used to produce and analyze the themes. The themes were verified by means of expert judge validity as well.

The limitations of the categorization of the items in the checklists as well as coding of the items are based on the fact that not all responses provided evident relationship with the checklist items or coding categories. A more detailed framework is needed to demonstrate how the academic content items fit in the checklist items or coding categories.

Findings

A content analysis of evaluation matrices of Global Learning foundations courses submitted by the faculty in an anonymous American public university revealed how the faculty defined their GL course outcomes, what GL assessment activities and artifacts they employed, how they evaluated student learning, and reflected on how the GL course results could be used to improve student learning according to the University GL requirements—Global Awareness, Global Perspective and Global Engagement.

Assessment Activities and Artifacts Used in GL Foundations Courses

The results of the statistical analysis of the checklists on *Assessment Activity/ Artifact* showed that the percentage of *intra-rater agreement* on the Global Awareness and Global Perspective learning outcomes was almost perfect in both cases (.99 and .89). The level *of intra-rater agreement* for Global Engagement was weaker (.70). The percentage of *inter-rater agreement* for Global Awareness was almost perfect (.92 and .91); weaker for Global Perspective (.59 and .78); and almost perfect for Global Engagement in the first checklist (.81), but weaker in the second checklist (.67).

The items representing assessment activities/artifacts were further organized by the themes (Table 1). The percentage of intra-rater agreement within the themes indicated a strong relationship between the themes of Global Awareness (.99), a weaker relationship for Global Perspective (.76) and Global Engagement (.53). The percentage of inter-rater agreement within

the themes was strong for Global Awareness (.89 and .87), and weak for Global Perspective (.27 and .64) and Global Engagement (.74 and .60). These findings indicate that the conclusions can be drawn about the activities and artifacts used by professors to measure Global Awareness learning outcomes only. Based on Table 2, the most commonly used activities/artifacts to evaluate Global Awareness learning outcomes were tests, research writing, and discussion activities. The faculty did not use engagement activities to evaluate Global Awareness learning outcomes.

Evaluation Process, Sample, and Assessment Results

The findings revealed that there was no consistency between how the faculty interpreted evaluation process, sample, and assessment results because they identified and measured these items differently. Due to the lack of consistency about the evaluation process, sample, and assessment results, comparisons or generalizations cannot be inferred.

The following categories emerged from the information on the descriptions of *Global Awareness* and *Global Perspective* learning outcomes provided by the faculty: (a) subject matter and global issues/ trends/ systems, (b) subject matter and international issues, (c) subject matter and intercultural issues, (d) subject matter not mentioned, and (e) subject matter only. The percentage of agreement on items for Global Awareness was significant (.94) for intra-rater agreement and for inter-rater agreement for Time 1 (.86), but not significant for Time 2 (.74). For Global Perspective outcomes descriptions, the percentage of intra-rater agreement was high (.98), but not significant for inter-rater agreement (.60 for Time 1 and .54 for Time 2).

Four themes (categories) emerged from the descriptions of *Global Engagement* learning outcomes: (a) plan of action, (b) taking action, (c) willingness to address issues, and (d) critiquing. The percentage of intra- and inter-rater agreement on the descriptions of Global Engagement learning outcomes was significant (1 and .93). The faculty members were more likely to identify Global Engagement learning outcomes that involved a plan of action for global engagement as well as promoting students' willingness to take a global action. The descriptions of Global Engagement learning outcomes that involved students in taking a global action or critiquing global issues were less common. However, there was no consistency between assessment results produced by the faculty because the faculty did not use a common method of assessment. Therefore, a comparison between the assessment results could not be made.

Use of Results to Improve Student Learning

The findings provided in this section were organized by the individual qualitative feedback of the faculty members in the GL course evaluation matrices. I divided the faculty's comments on their students' learning results for each GL learning outcome into three categories: (a) what worked, (b) what did not work, and (c) suggestions made by the faculty.

Global awareness results. The faculty provided the following activities pertaining to *Global Awareness* learning outcomes that worked well in their courses: (a) group activities based on a book; (b) a current event journal; (c) mini-essay that compared two countries; (d) lectures that embedded case studies; (e) use of topic reviews, outlines, and sample questions; (f) training students to use electronic assessments; and (g) an essay-format final exam. The faculty identified the following activities that did not work well for their students: (a) pre- and post-tests to assess student learning; and (b) students discussing their mini-essays with two classmates and adding additional references. The faculty made the following suggestions to improve student learning pertaining to Global Awareness outcomes: (a) more emphasis on connections between the subject matter and globalization; and (b) more emphasis on interrelations between global, local, international, and intercultural issues.

Global perspective results. I divided the faculty's responses for Global Perspective learning outcomes into the same categories used for Global Awareness learning outcomes. The faculty identified the following activities that worked well in their courses: (a) students taking on different theoretical perspectives and conducting debates based on a case study; (b) the use of debates as the assessment activities; (c) a take home essay exam requiring the use of different theoretical perspectives; (d) a use of different religious philosophies to inform cultural behaviors; (e) understanding of issues of intercultural communication; and (f) group work. The assignments that did not work well for their classes were: (a) the use of Tuesday Times Roundtable discussions as an extra credit opportunity; (b) pre- and post-tests; and (c) discussion being difficult to conduct in very large classes. The following suggestions were made by the faculty to improve student learning pertaining to Global Perspective learning outcomes: (a) using blogging as a required part of assignments; and (b) a class size should not be more than 100 students for lectures.

Global engagement results. The faculty identified the following successful Global Engagement class activities: (a) students writing a research proposal; (b) students conducting biweekly presentations of events from their current event journal and explaining global connections between the events; and (c) group analysis of a specific international organization, followed by debates, discussions, and questions and answers based on their research. The faculty identified low student attendance as an obstacle for active student engagement and understanding. One faculty member found it challenging for students to move beyond individualism and believe and engage in social justice issues. The following suggestions were made by the faculty to improve student learning: (a) providing examples of global engagement in lectures; (b) asking students about their ideas of global engagement and using the information for their future research papers; (c) deepening student global engagement by means of service learning; (d) student engagement in virtual global events and social networks; (e) smaller class size for civic engagement; and (f) *engaging* students in the issues of social justice instead of making them *believe* in social justice.

Discussion and Recommendations

The faculty members used an array of Assessment activities and Artifacts to measure global learning outcomes in their classes. The only statistically significant results were achieved for the student activities and artifacts used to measure Global Awareness learning outcomes. Therefore, I could make inferences pertaining to the Global Awareness learning outcomes only. Tests were the most commonly used evaluation activities (their use in the course ranged from 6 to 9 times), followed by research writing (range of 4-5), discussion activities (range of 3-4), oral reporting activities (range of 3-4), team reporting activities (range of 3), and analysis activities (range of 2). Engagement activities were not used to assess Global Awareness learning outcomes.

A uniform table of assessment activities and artifacts should be created to measure global learning outcomes. The items in Table 3 may be used as *an example* for the faculty to report the variety of assessment activities and artifacts they used in their course. The use of a uniform format in faculty reporting will enable a more discrete categorization of the results and will serve as an important factor to increase the estimates of validity and reliability of future analyses of the GL matrices. Consequently, the assessment activities and artifacts used to measure the global perspective and global engagement outcomes may reach statistical significance, so that inferences about these GL outcomes could be made.

In addition, the faculty's feedback on Evaluation Process, Sample, and Assessment Results lacked consistency and no inferences were possible to make. Therefore, the faculty members need to be trained to provide the responses that would fit a consistent format.

A frequency of themes that emerged from GL Outcome Descriptions for Global Awareness and Global Perspective was not statistically significant. However, a frequency of themes that emerged from the descriptions of Global Engagement learning outcomes – plan of action, taking action, willingness to address issues, and critiquing – was significant. The most frequently used curricula activities for Global Engagement were the activities that promote willingness to address global issues (range of 6-12 instances), followed by the activities that include or create a plan of action (range of 5-6). The least commonly used Global Engagement activities were those that involved taking a global action (range of 0-2) and critiquing (range of 1). These themes may be used for faculty professional development planning.

I divided the results from the section Use of Results for Improving Student Learning of GL matrices into three categories – curricular activities that worked and did not work in terms of student learning outcomes, and suggestions the faculty made to improve student learning outcomes. This information is important for future planning purposes and can be used as a reference for professional development of faculty. It would also be useful to include these three categories in the matrices for future GL course evaluations. After these categories are specified in GL matrices, common themes may be found and inferences made.

Global awareness learning outcomes. The following activities were identified positively by the faculty: (a) group activities based on a book; (b) a current event journal; (c) a mini-essay that compared two countries; (d) lectures that embedded case studies; (e) use of topic reviews, outlines, and sample questions; (f) training students to use electronic assessments; and (e) an essay-format final exam. One faculty member reported that pre- and post-tests were not effective to measure student learning in the course due to the issues with internal validity and reliability of the instrument as one of the factors. However, this finding does not disapprove the use of pre- and post-tests if a valid and reliable instrument is used to measure student learning outcomes. A negative feedback from another faculty member indicated that students did not follow the requirements for the discussion based on their mini-essays. This faculty member pointed out that he or she did not make the requirements for this assignment clear to the students and suggested to be clear about the requirements next time. It is instructive to note that both negative comments pertained to the professors' challenge to use appropriate assessment activities.

Several suggestions made by the faculty to improve student learning outcomes included a more deliberate use of technology, such as Moodle, Adobe Connect A-V, and WIKIs search. Another suggestion was made to use activities that include technology interchangeably with activities that ban technology, specifically the use of social networking friendly devices in the classroom. Other faculty suggestions were calling for the clarity of course expectations and clear interconnections between the subject area of the course and global, local, international, and intercultural issues. These are important suggestions that should be addressed in other global learning courses.

Global perspectives learning outcomes. Two faculty members identified debates as successful activities to be used in global learning courses. Other reflections on successful classroom practices were taking on different theoretical perspectives for promoting understanding of intercultural issues and incorporating them in take-home essay exams. These class activities are in alignment with the definition of Global Perspectives learning outcomes –

"multi-perspective analysis of local, global, international, and intercultural problems. One faculty member also reported that student group work produced higher student learning results than individual work.

The activities that did not work for specific courses as identified by the faculty members were the use of Tuesday Times Roundtable as an extra credit opportunity, pre- and post-tests to measure student learning, and challenges to conduct discussion in very large classes. It may not be inferred, however, that Tuesday Times Roundtable should not be used as an extra credit activity. The professor reported that only those students who had high grades attended the Tuesday Times Roundtable discussions. The issue of using pre- and post-test was reported by the same faculty member and was discussed earlier. One faculty member reported that a class size of over 100 was too big for discussions and suggested to place a cap of 100 on class size. Other suggestions made by the faculty dealt with the use of technology in classes, such as blogging and faculty's timely posting of course readings on Moodle.

Global engagement learning outcomes. A few of the faculty members shared the activities that worked well for this GL outcome: (a) students writing a research proposal; (b) explaining global connections between the events; and (c) group analysis of a specific international organization, followed by debates, discussions, and questions and answers based on their research.

The first three activities are in agreement with the Global Engagement learning requirement as it is stated in – "willingness to engage in local, global, international, and intercultural problem solving." Other faculty who teach GL courses may consider using these activities as well. Making instructions and rubric clear to students is the suggestion that was also voiced for the Global Awareness and Global Engagement learning outcomes. Therefore, faculty need to make sure they are clear about the course expectations from the first day of the semester. One faculty member pointed that low student attendance was an obstacle for active student engagement and understanding. Indeed, faculty members need to emphasize the importance of attendance in their classes.

The section of the GL evaluation plan *Use of Results to Improve Student Learning* that contained an open-ended feedback from the faculty members, provided important recommendations on teaching and learning in courses with a global learning component. One faculty member pointed that it was challenging to make students "move beyond an attitude of total self-absorption and individualism without concern for others." This faculty member suggested that instead of making students *believe* in the issues of social justice, he could teach them to be at least *engaged* in the issues of social justice. This is an important issue that probably rose out of students' perceptions of certain issues of social justice. Faculty members should let students themselves identify the issues of social justice that they *believe* in and can be engaged in.

Some of the suggestions the faculty made in terms of Global Engagement learning outcomes echoed the suggestions made for Global Awareness and Global Perspective learning outcomes, such as making course expectations clear to students and having smaller class size for effective civic engagement, a use of technology with a purpose of engagement in virtual global events and social networks. One faculty member suggested asking students for their ideas about global engagement for the purpose of their future research. Another faculty member emphasized the importance of students' global engagement by means of service learning. All these suggestions are important for faculty to consider when developing their syllabi for GL courses.

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Appendices

Table 1

Activity/Artifacts Categorized by Themes

Themes	Activity/artifact categories			
analysis activities	ranking power relationships	current event journal	comparative mini-project	case studies
oral reporting activities	PowerPoint presentation	oral presentation	role-play/ skit/monologue	
research writing	essay	term paper	reflection paper	research proposal
tests	test	essay-format test	pre- and post-test	course survey
team reporting activities	team presentation	team report	video of the activity	group project
engagement activities	interviews	site visit	engagement activity/ service learning	civic engagement/donations
discussion activities	book discussion	group discussion	debate	

Table 2

Assessment Activities/ Artifacts Themes in Global Awareness Outcomes

Themes	Frequencies		
	Time 1	Time 2	Rater
Discussion activities	4	3	4
Analysis activities	2	2	2
Oral reporting activities	3	3	4
Research writing	4	4	5

Tests	9	9	6
Team reporting activities	3	3	3
Engagement activities	0	0	0

Table 3

A Sample GL Course Evaluation Matrix

Global Learning Student Learning Outcome Addressed	Assessment Method	Assessment Results
Global Awareness: Students will be able to demonstrate knowledge of the interrelatedness of local, global, international, and intercultural issues, trends, and systems. Course Learning Outcome	Assessment Activity/Artifact: Evaluation Process: Minimum Criteria for Success: Sample:	
Use of Results for Improving Student Learning:		

School Administration Self-Efficacy: Change-Agents in an Environment of Turbulence

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Abstract: This paper looks at the relationship of self-efficacy and principal effectiveness. More specifically, it finds that principals who are more self-efficacious are more likely to foster positive change within their schools.

Public education has been geared towards reformative change and improvement since the National Commission on Excellence in Education published its 1983 report *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Johanningmeier, 2010). These efforts have been unrelenting and even 30 years later, espoused standards for our schools have not been met. As evidenced by the Obama Administration's attempts to curtail the lackadaisical education system and to reinvigorate efforts to fulfill higher expectations, the *Race to the Top* (RTTT) initiative serves as yet another round of federal scrutiny (McGuinn, 2011). In an attempt to attend to the perceived failures of the *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB) legislation, the local schoolhouse has been placed at the center stage of the national education debate (McGuinn, 2011, p. 139). Our current education model begs for effective administrators, because "good principals are the cornerstones of good schools" and that the ability of schools to succeed is inevitably tied to the competency of the head administrator (Lovell, 2009, p. 2).

A school's performance level either rises or falls according to the principal's education, personality and style. A school's ability to attain success is determined by his/her ability to create a coalition towards raising school achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). As school administrators tackle the challenges of heading reformative change within each school, it is their responsibility and within their power to stimulate, motivate, and inspire. By viewing the community of a school as an entity with a culture that is inevitably tied to school performance, administrators who foster characteristics of positive culture will ultimate influence student achievement.

Self-efficacy relates to a belief system in which an individual believes that he/she is capable of performing a specific task. Although it involves an examination of the beliefs of one's own competencies, it is not the expectation of outcomes (Schunk, 2012). Instead, self-efficacy is a belief system that promotes goal attainment by believing in one's abilities and reacting to obstacles with persistence. A school administrator's self-efficacy has the potential to contribute greatly towards his/her leadership and success. The level of principal self-efficacy is a possible factor contributing to the effectiveness of school administrators. This is the principal's beliefs in his/her own abilities. It involves values, beliefs, and motivations into everyday practice. These concepts are relevant in the field of public education administration because of the requirement for schools to adapt and change in an environment of accountability and high-stakes testing. This paper investigates the question of how high levels of self-efficacy related to principal effectiveness.

Administrators with high levels of self-efficacy believe in their ability to inspire positive change and to motivate others to assume greater responsibility in a school's decision making processes (Schunk, 2012). In this era of increased pressures on educational leaders, a self-

efficacious principal must be aware of his/her actions and must maintain persistence despite what turmoil may rise. This is not to suggest that persistence alone will determine the success rate of a school administrator, but by applying principles of self-efficacy to school administrative practices, the school community will benefit. For example, a principal who openly conveys the vision and mission to school stakeholders and presents a shared leadership model as a means of reaching those goals is better equipped at achieving reformative change. The determination of reaching the school's mission is reflective of the level of efficacy practiced by the administration.

The practices of the principal and his/her ability are correlated to achievement (Schunk, 2012). Although the capability of the individual does relate to a successful outcome, positive results are greatly influenced by the level of self-efficacy applied. Self-efficacy refers to the personal beliefs one has about a particular ability; therefore, one of the most effective ways of fostering self-efficacious practices is through experience (Schunk, 2012). Making improvements to self-efficacy involves individual success with specific experiences. These achievements may lead to a positive perception of personal ability. Fostering self-efficacy in public education is difficult because new principals may not have the experiences necessary to become more self-efficacious. Even experienced administrators may lack the direction and neglect opportunities for improving self-efficacy. Schunk (2012) stated that those with low self-efficacy might lack the motivation to complete a specific task.

Administrators who lack self-efficacy may rely more on transactional leadership style practices. This leads to lower motivation and achievement for the entire school community (Avolio & Bass, 2003). In order to increase motivation and school performance, self-efficacy must be promoted amongst school administrators. Self-efficacy is tied to beliefs about specific tasks; therefore, a principal who fosters these practices will be able to increase his or her persistence towards specific goals set by the school leadership. By being more self-efficacious, principals will be more likely to confidently take on greater challenges. This is what Pierce and Stapleton (2003) have called a requirement of the 21st Century Principal. By fostering the self-efficacy in school administrators, school leaders will be able to approach "the big challenges ahead of us" (Pierce & Stapleton, 2003, p. 2).

School leaders who are able to exert high levels of persistence are more likely to apply high levels of effort in response to difficulties that may arise. Self-efficacy is related to the level of persistence towards a specific task, which means that it is best learned while being actively involved in challenging activities (Schunk, 2012). It is this determination that better defines the qualities of a 21st Century Principal. In order to provide the appropriate leadership in public education, the head administrator must be persistent and steadfast towards his or her established vision and mission. For example, if increasing diversity education is a desirable mission in a demographically homogeneous school, the principal must motivate the faculty to apply an array of perspectives in presenting material. When confronted with the difficulties of emphasizing the value of diversity in a homogenous community, the educational leader's continual emphasis and unwavering support of a more varied and heterogeneous approach defines a persistent administrator. Through this continual persistence, it is essential that the principal maintain the focus on achievement of the specific goal.

Self-efficacy, and its relation to goal attainment, is contingent upon external as well as internal factors present and influencing the learner (Schunk, 2012). Administrators are subject to a wide range of external influences, which brings special attention to the importance of developing the perceptions of one's own abilities through *internalization*. An educational leader who exhibits high-levels of self-efficacy is therefore in a constant state of adaptive change in

order to best meet the demands of present "social variables." Schunk (2012) stated that one's self-efficacy may fluctuate on a particular day due to the external influences on that individual. For a school administrator, these influences may include but are not limited to a school's specific culture, directives from the school district, or even the requirements of implementing state and federal legislation. Regardless of any uncontrollable circumstances, if the self-efficacy is improved amongst public education administration, principals will become more effective leaders in times of change. Social cognitive theorists suggest two models for self-efficacy: adult models and peer models (Schunk, 2012). Self-efficacy models are examples where learners can improve their perceptions of personal capabilities as well as their persistence towards goal achievement. One such example, adult models, allows for younger learners to learn from adult influences. When children observed adults being challenged in a specific task, and then succeed, these young learners experienced a rise in their own self-efficacy. These students were better able to apply realistic beliefs about their own capabilities (Schunk, 2012). Creating educational leadership models for new principals to learn from by observing veteran administrators could potentially provide avenues for new administrators to avoid some of the pitfalls of their predecessors. This can be applied to both to teaching or administration.

   In each instance, where an individual with less experience views one with greater self-efficacy, the result is an increase in the personal beliefs of the person. Because individuals who share similar circumstances are able to observe others in like scenarios and watch them succeed, they increase their own abilities to be more persistent and to succeed. During an adult model, it is important for the older or more experienced person to maintain a positive attitude. Children who observed a model who was confident were more likely to increase their own self-efficacy when compared to models who were pessimistic (Schunk, 2012). In this example, the observers were more impacted by the positive or negative attitude rather than their level of persistence. School administrators who display confidence and are persistent will be more able to increase school performance.

   Another example of models and self-efficacy is the peer model. Like the adult model, the peer model allows for individuals to observe and raise levels of confidence but differs in that those involved learn from one another. Self-efficacy is raised in this situation when a task is performed successfully. An example of *coping models* exist when two individuals approach a dilemma with fear and a lack of self-confidence, but manage to overcome the initial challenge (Schunk, 2012). Coping models increase self-efficacy progressively, as the individuals gradually improve their performance. In contrast, a *mastery model* involves the participation of those who demonstrate performance at a measurably higher level of fidelity and confidence (Schunk, 2012). Both coping and mastery models are effective strategies in building self-efficacy.

   Observing a peer model was more effective in raising efficacy levels when compared to observing either a teacher model or no model at all (Schunk, 2012). This is relevant to school administration in that principals will learn better by observation and collaboration with other educational leaders rather than relying only on directives from the superintendent. In order to raise an administrator's ability to become a more effective leader, both adult models and peer models should be utilized.

   The *number of models* positively influences an individual's self-efficacy. If more principals begin to apply methods of persistence and are successful in attaining set goals, then the number of models available for observation will increase. A proliferation of visible models could ultimately lead to not only effective but also reformative change in public education. Even

in instances where school administrators are not self-efficacious, through peer-modeling, levels of persistence will increase (Schunk, 2012).

By applying the concepts stated by Schunk (2012), inexperienced school administrators will initially use *coping models.* During coping models process, their feelings and even statements may reflect a lack of confidence, but gradually they will experience success and increase their own self-efficacy. Modeling may lead to the improvement of abilities and persistence towards increasing student performance. Similarly, *Instructional Self-efficacy:* the belief one has in their ability to teach others, allows for individuals to make improvements (Schunk, 2012). Principals who have high levels of self-efficacy must be involved in the instructional self-efficacy process. Therefore, teachers play an important role in the success of public education.

Both *teaching efficacy*, outcome expectations about the consequences of teaching in general and *personal efficacy,* to perform particular behaviors to bring about a desired outcome are determined by the different approaches of teachers (Schunk, 2012, p. 153). Educators who approach self-efficacy positively impact student performance greatly, while those who present materials negatively have the inverse result. Self-efficacious administrators have the ability to not only impact these approaches, but also may contribute to the fostering of the self-efficacy as whole that is exercised by a school. Referred to as *Collective teacher efficacy*, this plays a vital role in the overall impressions and capabilities of students. This can define a school's culture and is a key insight into a community's beliefs and values. Teachers will fill collectively efficacious if they work together in a collaborative manner toward common goals (Schunk, 2012). Schunk (2012) stated that efficacy and health therapeutic behaviors are positively related. Health and therapeutic behaviors is associated with the perceptions and actions that an individual experiences due to a threat (Schunk, 2012, p. 154). For example, those with higher levels of self-efficacy and are trying to quit smoking are more likely to be able to deal with the levels of stress associated with quitting.

Because "self-efficacy affects actions through cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional processes," schools with self-efficacious cultures will result in greater behaviors among administrators, faculty, and staff (Sergiovanni, 2009, p. 3). The greater the health of the community, then the fewer the financial constraints likely to be present through teacher absenteeism, the repercussions of students missing essential lessons, and the better the overall attitude of the institution (Sergiovanni, 2009). Overall, the application of self-efficacy practices can be found in the actions of a school's leader, through modeling and the opportunities available to observe these models, and the methods used to institute greater efficacy school community-wide.

Practices can be improved by tutoring and mentoring but will ultimately be impacted by the desire or desires of individuals involved. Sergiovanni (2009) acknowledges that the schedule of school administrators is full of demands that require extended time and effort. Even if there are models to be used for both adult and peer learning in public education, the opportunities allotted to school leaders are not adequate to meet the need. Additionally, the continual legislative process has created an environment that demands adaptive change among school leaders (McGuinn, 2011). A way to combat these challenges is for principals to become what Waters and Cameron (2007) call change-agents: Those who have the flexibility, knowledge, and beliefs to raise student achievement. Schools that practice greater efficacy reflect the "skills curricula and standards" required of the 21st Century principal and are "critical to effective school reform" (Schunk, 2012, p. 153).

The availability of research relative to self-efficacy and the modern challenges of accountability, responsibility, and the restructuring of school administration are limited. There is, however, adequate evidence to support the modeling of self-efficacy and teaching these practices in public schools. "Goal-setting, level of aspiration, effort, adaptability, and persistence" are all essential qualities of effective educational leaders (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004, p. 573). This is especially true for the 21st Century principal who is entrusted with the responsibility of boosting student achievement. Because these qualities go hand-in-hand with self-efficacy practices, and little attention has been given to teaching these models to school leaders, many are unable to be persistent in achieving set goals. The modern-day principal is pulled, pushed and twisted in many directions, and without the ability and forethought to stay the course towards an aspired outcome, adaptive change is nearly impossible (Sergiovanni, 2009). Self-efficacious administrators are better able to fulfill the role of change-agents (Waters & Cameron, 2007).

The presence and operation of a persistent and adaptive leader establishes an environment conducive to learning because these leaders "understand that the change process is a vital quality of all leaders" (Fullan, 2001, p. 29). Education administrators who model self-efficacious behavior establish the work ethic of a school community (Sergiovanni, 2009). School leaders facilitate the attainment of goals through the creation of an environment that fosters the overall performance of the group (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004, p. 574). Such a leader will take advantage of the benefits of *coping models* which will raise confidence and capability levels and therefore lead to *mastery models* (Schunk 2012). Because motivating other is a complex process, experienced principals that have the "capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required" for reformative change are best suited to succeed in this educational era (McCollulm & Kajs, 2009, p. 29). Principal efficacy is measured through an instrument called the School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES).

According to a study conducted by McCollulm, Kajs, and Miner (2006) and by use of the SAES, there are eight dimensions of administrator efficacy: (a) instructional leadership and staff development, (b) school climate development, (c) community collaboration, (d) data-based decision making aligned with legal and ethical principles, (e) resource and facility management, (f) use of community resources, (g) communication in a diverse environment, and (h) development of a school vision (McCollulm & Kajs, 2009, p. 30). Through this investigation, the authors have taken a theoretical construct and developed a set of practical steps for application in public education. By applying a procedural process to the complexity of self-efficacy, a goal-oriented individual is more likely to engage and confront the challenges posed toward education. Without this confidence and applicable approach, "school administrators will not pursue challenging goals and will not attempt to surpass obstacles that get in the way of such goals" (McCollulm & Kajs, 2009, p. 30). To further understand goal setting and the effectiveness of school administrators, the 2 x 2 model of goal orientations presented by Elliot and McGregor (2001) is utilized.

This model divides goals into two different distinctions: mastery and performance. There are two different goal orientations that correlate with goal type, approach or avoidance, which leads to four possible outcomes: (a) mastery-approach (b) performance approach (c) mastery-avoidance and (d) performance-avoidance (McCollulm & Kajs 2009, p. 30). These distinctions seek to further define the type of leader and the kind of self-efficacy practices that will benefit the administrator. The study by McCollulm and Kajs sampled 312 early career principals and applied the 2 x 2 model and SAES to measure the impact of school efficacy and administrative

success. The results supported mastery goal-orientations with school administrator efficacy.
The mastery-approach dimension was determined as the most influential factor in predicting
higher levels of self-efficacy among school administrators. Both mastery avoidance and
performance-avoidance negatively correlated with principal efficacy. The significance of this
study highlights the correlation between goal-orientation and the leadership style practiced by a
principal. Additionally, it suggests that administrators should learn to be more aware of their
goal-orientations. The investigators indicate a possible utilization of the 2 x 2 model to promote
self-assessment and awareness among school leaders.

In an attempt to investigate the consequences of school leader efficacy, this study aimed
at student learning and how it is impacted by the leadership exercised at the school (Leithwood
& Jantzi, 2008). The performance of school administrators is vital to the level of student
outcome (Lovell, 2009). Efficacy is an essential part of understanding the operation of
organizations. The 2 x 2 model study conducted by Leithwood and Jantzi found a direct
correlation to student learning beliefs (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008). The level of collective
efficacy practiced at a public school was tied to student beliefs in the value of instruction and
their personal confidence in achievement. Not just administrators, but the collective efficacy of
the school leadership directly impacted student achievement. Because principals are the
directors and supporters of school leadership activity, their involvement in the facilitation and
fostering of greater efficacy leads to greater school success. Greater school achievement is
magnified not only by the confidence levels exhibited from principals, but also by the ability of
these individuals to be persistent and resilient in spite of obstacles (Fullan, 2001).

A school administrator sets the stage and models appropriate behavior. The resilience
evident in this leader is contagious and becomes an established model that the school will further
reflect. "When faced with obstacles, setbacks, and failures, those who doubt their capabilities
slacken their efforts, give up, or settle for mediocre solutions" (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis,
2004, p. 582). Those who have a strong belief in their capabilities are more likely to revisit
challenges and put forth the required effort to overcome obstacles. Because being a school
administrator involves a *Stress Cycle*, practices ensuring high levels of self-efficacy will help to
deal with "school board relations, politics, personal issues, workload, time crisis management,
complying with mandates, high visibility, dealing with angry parents, lack of feedback lack of
recognition, and community demands" (Truslow & Coleman, 2010, pp.18-19). With all of these
external pressures influencing the leadership practices of school administrators, it is essential that
educational leaders respond with high levels of self-efficacy.

Societal, international and local entities are beckoning towards public schools and
requiring higher levels of output (McGuinn, 2011). The struggle in itself is to define what role
our schools must play in this era of ever-changing demands. Some are certain that education
must be a tide that lifts all boats. Others are more concerned with student achievement on high-
stakes standardized tests. Change is inevitable; it is the response to this change which will
determine the success rate. With school administration modeled after a managerial-style of
leadership, potential for growth is limited (Pierce & Stapleton, 2003). This style of control does
not support self-reflection, adaptability, or improvement. In order for school leaders to be key-
agents of change, they must assimilate practices that promote self-reflection, adaptability, and
improvement into their leadership style. Growing the leadership capacity and capabilities in
others will lead to greater school success (Northouse, 2013). In response to accountability
measures through high-stakes standardized tests, our schools must adopt common sense

measures that meet the challenges of the modern-day educational era. These demands include preparing and improving the ability of students.

Students will best learn through the observation of *mastery models* but have great potential while observing in a *coping model* (Schunk 2012). Public schools can form these instructive models by promoting self-efficacy at the administrative level. As principals model higher levels of efficacy, the efficacy of the school as a whole is raised. Students are then better able to build personal confidence in goal development. Their approach to challenges and persistence towards a desired outcome will be greatly influenced by a school that is more self-efficacious. School leaders who choose to understand the causes and consequences of school leader efficacy will both directly and indirectly influence student learning (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008).

Because this level efficacy is positively correlated with leadership success, greater efforts should be placed on improving school administration practices of goal attainment. With educational leaders setting high expectations for the school and evidenced by their actions towards those goals, the culture of a school will begin to mold to fit those expectation-- ultimately influencing and establishing a culture of excellence (Segiovanni, 2009). In order to meet the demands of the modern-day educational era, school administrators must be ready to apply sound practices of self-efficacy.

The idea of school leadership lends itself to thoughts of a hierarchical and a highly managerial style of administrating education policy. This can be attributed to an overbearing influence from lawmakers and the national pull for higher efficiency and effectiveness from our local schools. Despite the implementation of a style of leadership that involves transactional processes alone, educational leaders must utilize alternative models in responding to modern demands (Avolio & Bass, 2003). As the role of principal evolves from system manager to educational leader, we will be better able to recognize a school's head administrator as a change-agent (Waters & Cameron, 2007). Through the implementation of practices that support self-efficacy, educational leaders will rise to the demands and expectations of the modern-day educational era.

<div align="center">References</div>

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Making a Case for Global Education: Revisiting Pre-Service Teacher Lesson Planning Methods

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Abstract: Globalization has tightened the bonds of interconnectedness and interdependence among nation-states. Students are destined for careers that are profoundly international in nature. They need to develop global literacy aided by a global education. This paper mandates the need for global education as part of the pre-service teacher-training programs.

"Globalization, simply put, denotes the expanding scale, growing magnitude, speeding up and deepening impact of transcontinental flows and patterns of social interaction" (Held & Mcgrew, 2002, p. 1). Even in its simplistic connotation, "globalization engenders complexity" (Suarez-Orozco & Qin-Hilliard, 2004, p. 5). It subsumes three crucial areas of the marketplace: (a) the economic world (Dunning, 2002) accelerated and dominated by modern technologies of transport and communication; (b) cultural globalization (Appadurai, 1996), which is a direct result of the media blitz causing the disappearance of local customs, norms and lifestyles (Huntington, 1996); and (c) the geopolitical side of globalization (Friedman, 2006) caused by the breaking down of nation-states (Wallerstein, 1979) and their interdependence (Kerr, 1979) together with the fluidity of national boundaries.

It was imperative to include globalization as the springboard for this paper because education for the future is so inextricably connected to the relentless advance of globalization and its repercussions. The late Ron Mofatt (2007), president of the National Association for Foreign Student Advisers (NAFSA) had this to say: "Competencies once considered essential for productive professions within a regional or national economy are no longer the coin of the realm in a market place without borders" (para. 1). He added, "Global systems generate global issues that can only be addressed with global competencies" (para. 1), and global competencies can only be achieved through global education.

Making a Case for Global Education

Many scholars have attempted to define *global education* (Case, 1993; Hanvey, 1982; Merryfield, 1998). There are a few issues that are central to all of the definitions, namely - interconnectedness and interdependence, multiculturalism, and sustainable development. All educators seemed to follow a "*borrow and add* approach in developing the definitions" (Gaudelli, 2003, p. 6).

"Preparing global-ready students requires schools to rethink their mission, priorities and objectives…[which should include] students developing perspectives and skills to mitigate the growing cascade of challenges resulting from globalization's ubiquitous reach" were Mofatt's words while chairing a NAFSA meeting in 2007 (para.1). This statement is related to an essential question that educators, researchers, and policymakers face today: What do students have to learn that will facilitate their entry into a geocultural and geopolitical world? Is it understood that they will share global citizenship with the global workforce because "seismic demographic changes are transforming the workforce across the world?" (Hewitt Associates Survey, 2004, p. 5). Because of these changing demographics in the population, it is expected that this country will need a larger portion of them skilled in the critical areas of job vacancies,

and be able to adapt to an evolving economy. Global education will enable students to stay competitive and become lifelong learners as they fulfill these futuristic roles. Several educators have reiterated the same prudence and have validated it with empirical evidence as indicated in this paper.

Students must be cognizant that they live in an interconnected world and learn to respect diversity (Hendrix, 1998). It is almost a moral and ethical responsibility. In fact, this process of training students to participate in a multicultural society should become a matter of conscience. The analysis of the texts of state Social Studies standards in 2009 demonstrated that the standards of only 15 states contain the term *globalization* (Rapoport, 2009). It is important for administrators, policy makers, and teachers to realize that, "to educate from the global perspective is to solidify the transcultural human forces that live within people" (Guillory & Guillory, 1989, p. 58), and that, "the scope of the global education curriculum must be determined by the philosophy of an evolving world, and analysis of the current realities in which students live" (Hendrix, 1998, p. 307). Global educators, who advocate global education and global citizenship (Case, 1993; Kniep, 1986), argue that all of these concepts must be woven into the curriculum from an interdisciplinary point of view.

In retrospect, most global teachers in the early 1990s looked at social studies as the vehicle to develop the main tenets of global education. In her dissertation abstract, Thuermer (1993) quantified that information. One research question stands out: (e) How can students be prepared through the social studies to be ready for the future?" (Thuermer, 1993, p. 1). She drew the conclusion that it is of greater importance to discuss the kinds of attitudes the social studies curriculum can develop in students, and its link to their preparation for the future workforce. Her research indicated that global education could provide students with the tools to begin to engage in a new kind of cognition, helping them take patterns of history that were in the past and apply them to patterns of the present to be able to predict the blueprints for the future. This is imperative today when global issues imperil our collective future (Thuermer, 1993). This argument was *lost* when accountability appeared on the horizon.

It is worthy to note, nevertheless, that there is a gradual resurgence of global thinking since the beginning of the 21st century (Fujikane, 2003). It is the realization that we live in in an interrelated world, and the United States to maintain its status quo as a leader in economic dominance in the world, must enact change in education. According to Fujikane (2003), Japan and the United Kingdom identified three reasons for this shift in worldviews, which should relate to the revised educational imperatives in the United States. He emphasized a strong focus on: (a) the intensity of interdependence in all aspects of human life; (b) Falk's discussion on global citizenship (as cited in Steenbergen, 1994) "based on social responsibility, solidarity, a feeling for equity, and for nature" (p.7), and (c) "the growing moral sense of 'oneness' transcending national borders" (Fujikane, 2003, p. 143). In this context, the instruction in schools is flawed.

Wing-Wah (2004) shares similar ideas in her study. For her, the world has witnessed three important international trends in the past two decades: (a) an increase in the number of democratic states, (b) economic globalization, and (c) educational reforms in light of the challenges of the new millennium. Her research into educational reform due to globalization indicated there were few studies that considered a combination of the three trends. Therefore, her study sought to address this in the educational policy in Hong Kong and Taiwan. She observed the inadequacy of their educational systems to prepare students for the new millennium. However, she observed how their respective governments accommodated global

imperatives in future education and curriculum reforms, especially in the learning of English, and information and communication technology (ICT) introduced as transnational skills.

The brisk pace of globalization over the past 20 years has produced a whole new world, driven by profound technological changes described by Friedman (2005) in *The World Is Flat*, and the economic explosion of third world countries like China, and India with the accelerating pace of innovations. Yet, somewhat ironically, educational discourse has remained placid, framed by issues and standards set decades before the widespread use of the personal computer, the Internet, and free trade agreements (Fullan, 2001). Isolation is no longer an option educationally or economically. Other countries such as China, Russia, India, South Africa, Chile, and Brazil are "making fundamental reforms in response to changed political conditions and demographic shifts and in order to prepare their students to be successful in the knowledge-intensive, high-tech, and globalized economy" (Stewart & Kagan, 2005, p. 241). Global educational discourse in this country should be about the knowledge economy, lifelong learning, and the global society.

Finally, it seems that the United States has realized the grim situation our students are in when exposed to a competitive environment and has adopted national learning standards, the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). They are internationally benchmarked so that all students are prepared to succeed in the global economy and society. It must be noted that 87% (Howald, 2013) of the students will be subjected to learning within the framework of the CCSS, and Florida has adopted CCSS. Currently, it is being used as a reference base in pre-service teacher-training programs. However, what is being argued in this paper is the aggressive inclusion and practical application of not only the CCSS in the educational process of student-teacher programs, but also what other educators have advocated as global education or teaching from a global perspective. In a strange coincidence, both the CCSS and global education are complementary.

Re-Visiting Pre-Service Teacher Training Programs

The guiding question for this paper is first, how can pre-service teacher-educators help their pre-service teacher-students develop a global perspective? Second, how can the teaching methods be improved to include the techniques, procedures, and skills to facilitate the inclusion of global education in their lesson plans? A key step in addressing the first question is to identify that all teacher-training instructors understand their own level of global literacy. It should include – *Communication* skills, Curiosity about other cultures, *Citizenship* - understand global responsibility, *Community* participation, and *Careers* - become lifelong-learners (Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 2006). Although it may not be a *qualifying* criterion for the teacher-training instructor, it should be considered important and an advantage. To encourage this protocol, there are two obvious solutions: one is a policy adopted by the teacher-training colleges to mandate some prior exposure to global education, and the other is professional development. The current mindset that global perspectives should be relegated to educators or teachers of Social Studies or the Social Sciences is a misconception. Today global education is interdisciplinary and should be considered a measure of expertise all for instructors and teachers of pedagogy.

It is under the assumption that teacher-educators will harness the opportunity of enhancing their own personal global literacy, that the response to the second question is discussed. For pre-service teachers, the current curriculum does include one or two courses that address some components of global education such as diverse cultures in classrooms, and doing

community work through Service-Learning. However, it remains confined exclusively to those courses. The actual dissemination and application of those components of global education learned in those courses, both in the teacher-training programs and in the development of lesson plans, remains ambiguous.

The pre-service teachers' pedagogy should include the main precepts of global education, and if we are remiss in teaching this to the student-teachers in the teaching educational programs, then we are delinquent in this particular area of curricular instruction. Dantas (2007) and Jerome (2007) concur that there seems to be this missing paradigm in the pedagogical presentation of instructional and content strategies for pre-service teachers. And there is this central question of how do we transform these pre-service teachers, into becoming more versatile and well-grounded in global education. How do we develop in them an awareness of the difference in just content delivery, and/or teaching for global competency with a global perspective? These professional skills that can transform a teacher from mediocrity to proficiency if they use Hanvey's Dimensions in their lesson planning.

Practical Applications of Hanvey's Five Dimensions

This begs the question: what are the most important tenets of global education that can be easily incorporated into lesson planning for pre-service teachers? Hanvey (2004) argued that education for a global perspective enhances the individual's ability to understand his or her condition in the community and the world, and improves the ability to make effective judgments (introduction). In 1982 he gave us the five dimensions needed to acquire a global perspective.

Perspective Consciousness, the first one, in its simplest connotation suggests that each individual views the world through his/her own lens. Therefore, no views are duplicated, and that they are inherently different and should be respected. Students ought to learn about the diversity in perspectives among the world's cultures. As an example, they might learn that democracy, and citizen rights and responsibilities, have different meanings in varied democratic cultures (Hahn, 1998). It is about getting teachers and students to understand we live in an interconnected world, and all people who live in a free world are entitled to their opinion, and those viewpoints should be acknowledged.

A practical application for Social Studies includes psychology, political science, economics, geography, history, and civics. Any social, political, or economical issue can be introduced or discussed with a global perspective. Sometimes, just the headlines from the daily newspaper can provide adequate content to focus on different viewpoints—for example, the recent incident about a young girl who was shot over women's right to education in Pakistan. These are some of the haunting questions from the headlines of that day – women's right to education, cultural differences with religious implications, economic repercussions, and a few more. A teacher could introduce the topic with a video to engage the students in a discussion about the validity of the action taken, or freedom of speech, or women's education in Pakistan while comparing it to our own. Tolerance, understanding, and appreciation of multiple perspectives provide an insight into the complexity of human behavior, and must be treated with deference. Cumulatively, they are the cornerstone of a global perspective. The students should learn they can be critical but remain respectful at the same time.

The 'state of the planet' awareness dimension entails teaching our students about the limited natural resources we have and the conservation of those reserves. It must be stated that many schools observe recycling, and maintenance of current natural resources, although sometimes it is done in a desultory manner. The legitimate concern should be: Is there a *real*

awareness of the depletion of our natural resources? Are all teachers delineating the dire need of not leaving carbon footprints as part of their objectives in a science, a social studies, a language arts, or even a math lesson?

A practical application of the second dimension for science could be the felling of trees in parts of Southeast Asia and the Amazon as an example of soil erosion. It can be done even in a math class with numeracy, namely the effect of deforestation on climate, population, crops, and economy. Is it worth it – a self-reflection poised for critical thinking? Visual effects and technology can be used most effectively to generate a conversation about the ecological state of the earth. It can be done almost effortlessly by linking a science class to climate change, and/or disease. The twin words, sustainable development, can be introduced in a Language Arts lesson as part of a descriptive essay on the changing habitat of the polar bear in the arctic region. This dimension can even be taught in political science where certain governments choose to ignore *their* carbon footprints in lieu of economic development. It is about learning to adopt sustainable lifestyles that could determine the future of our planet (Orr, 2004).

Cross-Cultural Awareness is the third dimension, and Dantas (2007) explains it best when he argues, "Teacher preparation, professional development, and teacher effectiveness when working with a culturally, linguistically and/or socioeconomic diverse student population require exploration of cultural issues, deficit beliefs and a broader definition of literacy" (p. 91). Teachers should help students develop an appreciation for diverse perspectives and the historical context of the cultures of the world. Cross-cultural awareness should include cultural differences resulting from religion, nationality, ethnicity, race, gender, age, education, socio-economic status, and language. On a wider scope, it embraces global citizenship as is indicated by Appiah (2006) who argues that "no local loyalty can ever justify forgetting that each human being has responsibilities to every other" (p. xvi).

A practical application for Language Arts, or Social Studies can be a discussion on the subtle nuances of cultural differences which can be sensitive, and therefore, teachers are afraid to address these issues. Having empathy is a psychosocial behavior that is difficult to attain especially for people from distant lands. Therefore, this should have its roots in the classroom and the local community. However, using technology to effectively introduce and discuss cross-cultural awareness is a feasible option. The introduction of YouTube videos to demonstrate abuse of culturally different students, or gender differences, race and ethnic issues are easier to explain and deliberate. Students today tend to identify more with technology, and therefore this media makes the topic more amenable for reflection.

Global Dynamics, the fourth dimension, is the reality that the world is so interconnected and interdependent through trade, economics, and technology, with centrifugal and centripetal forces working relentlessly to create a harmony within a chaos, that students need to be cognizant of this World System as Wallerstein (1979) called it. The students have embraced the social media; therefore it should be used constructively to demonstrate this synergy (Moffatt, 2007). A key word in understanding global dynamics is *change*. It is *change* happening on the social, economic, and political levels that necessitates adjustment and adaptation to the environment.

A practical application for STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math) would entail that both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers must be prepared to find new ways in making digital literacy the underpinnings for the perception of this mosaic world. Students must understand the concept of *change* associated with the complexities of this global society in

a more intelligible way. Identifying Math as a "numerical value" places it in a different global, social, and economic context - for example, the fluctuating pricing of fossil fuel and the resultant changes in economies, or the scientific application of global warming causing climate change, and affecting the flora and fauna. With the availability of technology in some classrooms across the United States, pre-service teachers and in-service teachers need to avail themselves of this advantage to promote investigative problem-solving, always asking *provocative* questions with a world-view.

Awareness of Human Choices is the last dimension which involves the problems of choices confronting individual, nations and the human species at large. This dimension dictates the repercussions of good and bad choices, and being selective in the choices we make. Children should understand they make choices from the moment they wake up until nightfall. These choices are sometimes perfunctory as what clothing to wear, while others can be more crucial involving other human beings, and have more afflictive consequences. The students must be helped to develop the acumen of making good choices – choices that validate their own principles and philosophies of life.

This dimension can be incorporated in any subject and in any grade. Discussions within lessons should provide for viable debates on social justice, empathy, tolerance, and instilling the desire for peace and equity. Included in this dimension are choices made relevant to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). Any article from the UDHR could be used to underscore a social, political, economic, educational, or sustenance issue within an interdisciplinary curriculum. It would involve making appropriate choices and commitment to take relevant, responsible and effective actions on science and technology-related content, and matters of social, economic, environmental, and moral/ethical concern (Hodson, 2011). The teacher can use questions, discussions, and research to help and substantiate choices students learn to make, which should be grounded in factual data tempered with truth, understanding, and sensibility. This dimension dovetails into the teaching strategy that has gained much momentum namely critical thinking.

Conclusion

The challenges in pre-service teacher preparation are myriad as they develop a certain level of teaching competence migrating from pre-service to novice teachers. While subscribing to teaching strategies to include Standards, Learning Outcomes and Competencies along with content knowledge, they must also be prepared to effectively handle a "variety of multicultural, multilinguistics, and multiability needs" (Young, Grant, Montbriand, & Therriault, 2001, p. 1). Darling (2006) elaborated on a teacher of the 21st century who should know the cultural biography of their students, be analytical in selection of issues, creative in presentation of content, and practical in its application.

The techniques prescribed in this paper are simplistic. They are not meant to hamper the main lesson plan, but instead they are meant to accentuate the content. It is about developing the skill to incorporate a global perspective into the lessons. Any subject in the core or elective curriculum can be used effectively to inculcate a global perspective because global education is interdisciplinary. It is also imperative that pre-service teachers be given time and practice to apply this global pedagogy in the instructional process with supervisory guidance. Education practitioners, even those who are genuinely committed to teaching from a global perspective, need candid pedagogical guidance to justify their initial interest in including global education. "With the integration of a global perspective in curriculum and instruction, ethnocentric and

nation-specific teaching are transformed to focus on all people, regardless of age, class, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, race and location" (Kirkwood, 2001, p. 11). Students should be able to perceive how intertwined their lives with others, and "develop ethical positions about global issues that are informed, thoughtful, and nuanced" (Nair, Norman, Tucker, & Burkert, 2011, p. 60) while engaging in socially responsible behavior.

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Social Learning Capabilities in Broward's Black Male Success Task Force: Informing Collective Impact Initiatives

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Abstract: Broward Schools is addressing an achievement gap for Black males with a collective impact initiative. Collective impact initiatives address complex social problems. The social learning capability of the initiative can be enhanced by applying Wenger's (2009) social learning spaces, learning as citizenship, and social artists concepts.

The persistence of the achievement gap where Black children underperform educationally demands more effective solutions (Holzam, 2012). "Organizations have attempted to solve social problems by collaboration for decades without producing results. The vast majority of these efforts lack the elements of success that enable collective impact initiatives to achieve a sustained alignment of efforts" (Kania & Kramer, 2011, p. 39). Broward County Public Schools started a collect impact initiative in School Year 2012 – 2013 to address its achievement gap. As the sixth largest school district in the United States with over 48,000 Black male students, Broward County Schools Black males' graduation rate is only 72%, 11% percent lower than the district graduation rate (Clement, 2012). In addition, almost twice as many Black male students are suspended (25%) versus 13% of the total school population (Clement, 2012). Broward has only achieved small incremental improvement in Black male graduation rates with prior collaborations. Superintendent Robert Runcie initiated the Black Male Success (BMS) Task force by partnering with the Broward Children's Strategic Plan (the Plan), an 11-year old community strategic planning process with over 200 child serving agencies, philanthropic foundations, and community leaders, and the South Florida Educational Research Alliance (SFERA), a collaborative of local faculty and graduate students that provide community based evaluation.

Collective impact includes five strategies to create community conditions of well-being including creating a common agenda, shared measurement systems, mutually reinforcing activities, continuous communication, and a backbone organization to support the work. The collective impact strategies do not explicitly address the social learning capabilities of the collective impact initiative (Hanleybrown, Kania, & Kramer, 2012; Kania & Kramer, 2011). Without explicit delineation of strategies to promote learning on what works, collective impact initiatives miss important opportunities to create new practices and identities to achieve the shared result. Learning capabilities inherent in social systems shift the view of "learning as acquisition of a curriculum to a process inherent in our social systems" (Wenger, 2009, p. 2). Social learning capabilities involve both social practices and participant identity level work. Social learning capabilities in social systems, such as collective impact initiatives, are fostered by explicit social learning spaces, ethical learning citizenship, and effective social artists (Wenger, 2009). The purpose of this paper is to compare the BMS Task Force's collective impact processes with the components that foster social learning capability to identify learning enhancements to the collective impact process. The paper presents the components that foster social learning capability, a description of the BMS Task Force processes and corresponding

opportunities to enhance social learning capabilities, and implications for collective impact initiatives.

Components that Foster Social Learning Capability

Learning capability may be one of the most important characteristics to cultivate in social systems (Wenger, 2010). Learning has both individual and social dimensions. Individually, learning is about "the person as a social participant, as a meaning-making entity for whom the social world is a resource for constituting an identity" (Wenger, 2010, p. 2). For example, BMS Task Force members derive some of their identity from actively participating and making meaning of their efforts to close the achievement gap. Socially, learning in social systems includes producing practices that create social structures and systems and identifying systemic patterns and generating ideas for action (Wenger, 2009). For example, the practice of negotiating a common agenda results in a reified focus to guide the work of the BMS Task Force members. Social learning capabilities, at both the individual identity and social practice level, are strengthened by creating social learning spaces, fostering learning citizenship, and developing social artists.

Social Learning Spaces

Social learning spaces are "social containers that enable participants to learn what works" or do not work by using a high level of rigor in the inquiry of what is working (Wenger, 2009, p. 3). Rigor of inquiry comes from participant accountability and expressibility. Accountability means the work participants do to refine and expand their experience of practice. Practice is a place of knowledge. Accountability also involves participants "ability to become the person who will do the knowing" (Wenger, 2009, p. 4). Participants must learn the knowledge and skills necessary to engage cross-sector partners, discourses, and motivations. This knowledge is different than discourses, motivations, and knowledge found within an organization.

Rigor of inquiry is also evident in participant expressibility. Participants need to be able to bring their experiences of practices into the social learning space and make it accessible to other participants to fully develop the learning capability. Even tacit knowledge will eventually become a shared context of experience from substantial mutual engagement. Both accountability and expressibility can be fostered intentionally and systematically throughout a social system. Knowing as practice means that practice is the curriculum of the social learning space. Overtime, participants refine and expand their experience of practice and further develop the social learning spaces.

Learning Citizenship

Learning citizenship includes four practices and the recognition of identity as a learning resource. The four practices, briefly described here, are engagement, moving on, brokering, and convening (Wenger, 2009). Participants exercise learning citizenship through quality engagement with others in the social learning space by being open, authentic, responsive, and vulnerable. Participants also need to know when and how to move on or unlearn and let go of historical practices that are no longer effective or useful. Participants practice learning citizenship when they "import or export significant insights or challenges across the boundaries between the spaces" (Wenger, 2009, p. 7). And, finally, participants excise learning citizenship by convening partners and creating networks of connections that did not exist previously. These four practices contribute to fostering the social learning capability.

Learning citizenship also acknowledges the role of identity in promoting social learning capability. "As learning citizens, we proceed from who we are – our personal histories, connections, networks, vision, aspirations, and position in the landscape of practice – to find

forms of participation that increase learning capability" (Wenger, 2009, p. 8). Learning citizens are most effective when they participate in a voluntary, authentic and ethical manner. The participation of learning citizens has both local and systemic effects. For example, participant's need to share their own vision of the well-being of Broward's black boys and young men to create a robust shared agenda. Both the practices and identity of learning as citizenship foster social learning capability.

Social Artist

Social artists create the environments that foster social learning spaces and foster learning citizenship (Wenger, 2009). Social artists enable participants to maximize meaningful and effective learning by providing the leadership necessary to create and evolve social learning spaces. Social artists facilitate trust, comfort, and engagement of the whole person to maximize learning. In an often intuitive fashion, social artists navigate the paradoxes of being idealistic yet pragmatic, collaborative yet willful, and social yet intentional (Wenger, 2009). Through delicate balancing, social artists create high-energy social spaces where learning thrives.

Social artists help participants experience themselves as learning citizens, releasing care, vision, talents, and individual resources and channel these qualities into learning (Wenger, 2009). Social artists do not mandate or require learning as citizenship but rather create opportunities for participants to identify their learning as citizenship resources and potential and how to connect them within the social learning space. Opening social learning spaces and fostering learning citizenship identity are two key functions of a social artist. The BMS Task Force and the collective impact practices it uses will be compared to the social learning spaces, learning citizenship, and social artist components to identify enhancement opportunities.

BMS Task Force Collective Impact Processes and Social Learning Capabilities

The partnership between the School District, the Plan, and the SFERA adopted the collective impact approach (Hanleybrown et al., 2012) to solve complex, complicated community problems such as the low graduation rates for Black males, disproportionate rates of juvenile delinquency, and low college completion rates. The Executive Director of the District's Student Supports Initiatives reached out to the Children's Services Council (CSC) of Broward County's Director of Research, Analysis and Planning to re-create the BMS Task Force. CSC is an independent tax district created by Broward voters in 2000 to fund prevention programs such as afterschool and summer, diversion, and family strengthening programs. In addition to providing $60 million dollars for programs, CSC provides the leadership for the Broward Children's Strategic Plan, a cross-sector collaboration of 34 committees that uses Results Based Accountability (Friedman, 2005) to improve the well-being of children and families.

Results Based Accountability (RBA) is one type of collective impact process (Friedman, 2005). The practice has six elements: (1) agreeing on a shared result or community condition of well-being (i.e., children live in safe and supportive families), (2) using specific community indicator data to see how if the community is getting better or worse (i.e., rate of abuse and neglect, rate of children placed in foster care), (3) describing the causes and forces the rate going up or down (i.e., an increase in abuse in Broward was due to the economic downturn); (4) identifying cross-sector partners to help in the work (i.e., Department of Children and Families, businesses, schools, families, etc.); (5) researching evidence based strategies to implement to improve the community condition of well-being; and (6) developing an action plan that delineates the strategies each partner will implement.

In addition, the Executive Director partnered with the South Florida Education Research Alliance to provide an evaluation of the Task Force initiative. Structurally, the task force will

integrate the district's Innovation Zones with the Plan's committees using RBA as its collective impact framework. An Innovation Zone is comprised of elementary schools that feed into middle schools that feed into a high school. Broward School District has 28 high schools and 28 Innovation Zones. Each zone has regular meetings with the elementary, middle, and high school principals and other key school staff. Each zone identified a BMS Task Force Ambassador to lead the collective impact process in his/her zone.

The Plan currently has 34 communities and subcommittees that work on creating five results for Broward's children and families: (1) children live in safe and nurturing families, (2) children are physically and mentally healthy, (3) children are ready to succeed in school, (4) young people successfully transition to adulthood, and (5) children live in safe and supportive communities. Specifically, committees address issues from preventing abuse and neglect in families, to providing quality early education, reducing juvenile delinquency, and supporting youth who are aging out of foster care. Committees are led by program directors /managers from community based organizations and the CSC. The Plan also has a Leadership Coalition comprised of CEOs, local heads of state agencies such as the Department of Children and Families, philanthropic executives, and other community leaders that meet on a quarterly basis to provide oversight, resources, and strategies to the committees. Committee chairs and members have been trained in and use RBA to frame and drive their work in the committees.

Common Agenda

Developing a common or shared agenda for a cross-sector collaboration of partners is difficult. Two primary tasks are involved in developing a common agenda. The first task is to come to shared understanding of the problem (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Due to the multiple perspectives of the partners, the problem may be difficult to define. For example, is the problem of low Black male graduation due to the deficits of students, parents, teachers, and/or community? Is the problem only the result of deficits or has there not been enough attention on developing strengths and talents? Fortunately, the collective impact process can be successful with agreement on the primary goals rather than consensus on all dimensions of the issue (Kania & Kramer, 2011). The desired, shared result of the BMS Task Force is for all of Broward's Black boys and young men to succeed in school, family, work, and life (Black Male Success Task Force, 2012).

The second task is to identify the strategic action framework including the boundary or scope of the issue to be addressed (Hanleybrown et al., 2012). The framework is not a rigid theory of change or an elaborate plan. Rather, it outlines the basic hypothesis of the group of what it will take to create the desired change. The BMS Task Force is using evidence based strategies and RBA as the strategic frame. Innovation Zone committees define a flexible, one page understanding of the geographic scope and key factors using a one-page Turn the Curve report to communicate the data, causes, partners, strategies, actions and accomplishments.

Neither the BMS Task Force nor the RBA framework include an explicit discussion about how to maximize learning about practices that work or participants' identity as learning citizens to create the common agenda. Neither the BMS Leadership nor the Plan's Leadership Coalition are identified as social learning spaces although the discussion often revolves around what is working and what is not working. By identifying the meetings as social learning spaces, accountability and expressibility can be evaluated and improved. In addition, Wenger (2009) recommends participants identify the meaning of their participation in the social system to establish shared motivations, build trust, and highlight unique resources. The discussion to share participant identity does not systematically occur in the BMS Task Force process. While

Hanleybrown et al. (2012) indicate that the process should allow for an "organic learning process" based on trial and error, new learning, changes in the context, and new partners with new ideas and priorities (p. 5), the ideas of an explicit learning space with learning citizens created by social artists would highlight and validate learning opportunities and practices.

Shared Measurement System

Collective impact approaches use data as a focal point for alignment and accountability (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Shared measurement is "the use of a common set of measures to monitor performance, track progress toward goals, and learn what is or is not working." (Hanleybrown et al., 2012, p. 5). Measures for the BMS Task Force include aggregate rates of passing reading and math standardized test scores, school attendance, and internal and external suspensions for each school within an Innovation Zone and in the Innovation Zone as a whole. The school district provides the data to the Innovation Zones on a yearly basis. Eventually, the district will provide student specific data to the Innovation Zone committees to identify needs and opportunities for individualized supports.

The challenge with shared measurement systems in collect impact initiatives is finding the resources (time and money) to produce high quality data, deal with the fear of being judged and punished for low performance rather than learning what is working or not, and competing agency priorities such as providing service rather than collecting and analyzing data. The benefits of overcoming the challenges include establishing a common language (i.e., shared data sets) to focus the efforts, being able to better define which strategies are working or not, and creating confidentiality and transparency for mutual accountability (Hanleybrown et al., 2012). With robust, meaningful data, partners in collective impact work can document progress and learn to find solutions or mutually reinforcing activities and implement or adjust them quickly to maximize success.

A key characteristic of using a shared measurement system is moving the participants from a punishment mindset to a performance improvement mindset. Learning citizenship invites participants to be open, authentic, and vulnerable to let go of what is not working and to broker cross-sector strategies and approaches. Using the concept, "learning citizenship," creates an environment of trust and comfort in which to interact with the data and measurement systems. Learning citizenship also encourages participants to move on from strategies, practices, and identities that are not working or inhibiting success.

Mutually Reinforcing Activities

Each partner in a collective impact initiative brings unique sets of expertise, resources and relationships to the initiative. The objective of the initiative is not to create impact through large numbers and uniformity; rather it is to coordinate and integrate the differentiated expertise and activities into a mutually reinforcing and supportive plan (Kania & Kramer, 2011). For example, in the BMS Task Force, the District's expertise with academic success strategies will be integrated with the Plan's expertise with children with behavioral health needs or children in the foster care or delinquency systems. Each partner's activities and strategies are mapped onto the shared data measurement indicators that inform the partners if the mapped strategies are working. Because the causes of Black male success and failure are complex and complicated, the collective impact solutions must be interdependent and mutually reinforcing (Kania & Kramer, 2011). In some communities, coordinated mutually reinforcing strategies can occur among "hundreds of organizations that simultaneously tackle may different dimensions of a complex issue" (Hanleybrown et al., 2012, p. 6).

In the BMS Task Force, the Innovation Zone Ambassadors will coordinate and align the District initiatives with the work of the Plan's committees to improve results for Black males. Mutually reinforcing activities will be evidence based or evidence informed strategies. Research indicates that high expectations, teacher and administrator education on Black male culture, and parent involvement increase academic success (Holzam, 2012). In addition, the District is implementing changes to the disciplinary matrix to reduce Black male suspensions to increase in time in class (Pope, Personal Communication, 2012). These evidence-based activities will be integrated with the Plan's committee on preventing juvenile delinquency through diversion programs that provide an alternative program so youths do not receive a misdemeanor offense on their record to reduce the "schoolhouse to jailhouse" pipeline for young Black men. The coordination of each partner's expertise maximizes the resources of the schools and the community. It is also anticipated that new activities and new constellations of activities will evolve and emerge over time as the collective impact initiative is responsive to the data (Kania & Kramer, 2011).

Successfully marrying school strategies with the community strategies is not a linear, straightforward process. Inviting the Ambassadors and Plan chairs to act as social artists creates an expectation of artfully synthesizing the resources, relationships, and opportunities of each sector. The Ambassadors and Plan chairs will need to create spaces where members can learn together about how align strategies and maximize resources. As social artists, the Ambassadors and Plan chairs can both create the social spaces for learning using the committee meeting structure and support the members as learning citizens to be open, authentic, and engaged in the learning process. The evolution requires continuous communication, the fourth component of a collective impact initiative.

Continuous Communication

The BMS Leadership group and the Innovation Zones meet regularly and share their one page Turn the Curve reports via a web portal. Cross-sector partnerships and initiatives need trust between stakeholders to effectively act and learn collaboratively (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Trust is established over time by partners consistently experiencing the unique value of their contribution to the initiative and seeing how their piece contributes to the whole and to success. Business, education, non-profit, and community leaders need regular engagement "to recognize and appreciate the common motivation behind their different efforts" (Kania & Kramer, 2011, p. 40). Through dialoguing about the problem, the data, the mutually reinforcing activities, and the changing context, partners will create a common vocabulary and set of principles to guide, align and inform the work.

The BMS Task Force holds monthly meetings in each Innovation Zone and a quarterly meeting for the entire initiative. The meetings reiterate the shared result or common agenda, review any new data, receive an update on the implementation of the mutually reinforcing activities, and reflect on what is working and what is not working. Each Innovation Zone committee will be comprised of cross-sector partners including District staff, Plan chairs and participants, youth, parents, business, municipal, and other interested and passionate partners. Each Innovation Zone committee will generate a one page Results Based Accountability or Turn the Curve report to focus the dialogue and learning opportunities. The Innovation Zone Ambassador will be trained in Results Based Accountability to create a climate of mutual accountability rather than punishment. All documents and data will be available on web-based portal for Innovation Zone, Plan, and community members.

Shared learning spaces can inform the development of continuous communication practices by emphasizing accountability and expressibility. Identifying the BMS task force members as learning citizens can guide the development of the elements of continuous communication. For example, is the communication authentic, responsive and humble? How is cross-sector information being brokered in the process? How each is partner's identity (history, connections, vision, etc.) engaged to promote learning? Conversely, continuous communication may be a practice that social artists use to evolve social learning spaces. The convening of meetings, shared measurement system, plans for mutually reinforcing activities, and communication structures will be supported by the fifth component of collective impact initiatives, backbone organization (Hanleybrown et al., 2012).

Backbone Organization

The Broward Schools and the Children's Services Council have staff dedicated to supporting the Task Force and the Plan committees and act as the backbone organization. Initially, backbone organizations were described as separate organizations with separate staff with specific skills to serve as the backbone or anchor of the collective impact initiative (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Recent research reveals at least six different backbone organization structures including one funder, new and separate non-profit, existing non-profit, government, shared across multiple organizations, or steering committee driven (Hanleybrown et al., 2012). The BMS Task Force has adopted a "shared across multiple organizations" structure with the District, Children's Services Council and South Florida Education Research Alliance assuming different required functions. The functions of the backbone organization include guiding vision and strategy, support aligned activities, establishing and maintaining shared measurement practices, advance policy, and mobilize funding (Turner, Merchant, Kania, & Martin, 2012). Without a backbone organization infrastructure, collective impact initiatives tend to fall apart (Hanleybrown et al., 2012; Kania & Kramer, 2011).

Successful backbone organizations implement adaptive leadership principles (Kania & Kramer, 2011) across multiple levels of collaboration (Hanleybrown et al., 2012). Adaptive leadership principles include

> the ability to focus people's attention and create a sense of urgency, the skill to apply pressure to stakeholders without overwhelming them, the competence to frame issues in a way that presents opportunities as well as difficulties, and the strength to mediate conflict among stakeholders. (Kania & Kramer, 2011, p. 40)

Being an organically emergent process, the original structure of the collective impact initiative may evolve with lessons learned and/or changing community dynamics. Most collective impact initiatives have a leadership level and a workgroup level. The leadership level sets the common agenda and the strategic framework and monitors progress while the work groups implement mutually reinforcing activities, monitor the data, incorporate new partners, and identify the needs and challenges. The BMS Task Force has a quarterly meeting of leaders and updates are also provided to the Plan's Leadership Coalition on a quarterly basis as well. The Innovation Zones are the work groups that will be working in their specific zones to improve results for Black males.

The backbone organization function of the BMS Task Force provides an opportunity for the members to view themselves as social artists working in social learning spaces. The difficult, deeply entrenched challenges of successfully supporting all Black boys and young men require data driven, creative learning processes. The old solutions and patterns of thinking need a fresh application of paint with new designs, new types of media and new energy. Based on the

comparison between the BMS Task Force practices and the components that foster social learning capabilities, the next section will highlight implications for collective impact initiatives.

Implications for Collective Impact Initiatives

Examining the Broward BMS Task Force's collective impact practices in light of the components that foster social learning capability revealed several recommendations to enhance social learning capabilities of other collective impact initiatives. To be effective social learning spaces, collective impact initiatives need to acknowledge the identities and meaning of participation of the participants. The containers of learning in collective impact initiatives such as meetings, reports, on and off line dialogues must have high accountability to learn about what works/does not work and expressibility to insure maximum integration of knowledge.

Collective impact initiatives that foster the mutual recognition of learning citizenship maximize the value of each participant's identity as a learning resource. The learning citizenship framework also provides criteria for evaluating the initiative's ability to engage participants, release old, ineffective practices, broker cross-sector approaches and information, and leverage each other's identity to promote learning. There needs to be an opportunity to learn about the motivation and unique resources of each participant to build trust and align the mutually reinforcing activities. By viewing themselves as social artists, collective impact leaders can promote and evaluate how well they create and evolve social learning spaces and learning citizenship identity and practices. The collective impact literature does not clearly delineate how the social learning will occur throughout the five practices, thus the need to support social learning dynamics using social learning spaces, learning as citizenship, and social artists.

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Increasing Informal Learning Opportunities for Teachers in the School Setting

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Abstract: This paper comprehensively defines how to implement informal learning strategies into the classroom setting using Marsick and Watkins's Incidental Learning Model (2001). Existing barriers that stand between educators and informal learning in the school setting are explained. Implications for removing said inhibitors while increasing learning are explicated.

In the past decade, the public school systems have been under scrutiny due to the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (107th Congress, 2010) and the Race to the Top Program (111th Congress, 2009) that offer funding to schools that excel in performance and achievement in high academic standards. This new attention has placed pressure on teachers and administrators to keep up with rising standards. As school systems attempt to strive for higher test scores, and as the funding crisis continues, schools are continuously re-examining and enhancing teaching strategies. Traditionally, improvement of teaching practices is done through formal learning practices, such as professional development seminars, certification programs, and graduate level courses. However, this traditional formal learning has becoming substituted by informal learning (Lohman, 2000). Informal learning refers to everyday learning that happens either incidentally or by seeking information individually (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Both types of learning, formal and informal, share common desired outcomes for teachers: to develop more job knowledge, to learn new skills, and to enhance understanding of the school function (Lohman, 2000). Lohman (2000) and Stronge (2007) both deduced that informal learning is the key element to becoming an effective teacher in today's public school system.

Research around informal learning in schools is in its infancy and limited mostly to descriptions of informal learning and its triggers and barriers to informal learning (Hoekstra & Korthagen, 2011; Lohman, 2000, 2006). The research lacks a comprehensive description of how informal learning could be facilitated in schools. This paper will suggest how by using Marsick & Watkins's (2001) Incidental Learning Model, school administrators could use teacher teams and e-learning to increase informal learning opportunities for teachers in the school setting. It is imperative that informal learning be clearly defined and expanded upon before applying learning models.

Defining Informal Learning

Informal learning was first described in the adult learning context by Marsick and Watkins (1990) who defined it as learning that is not formal or not in a highly structured, classroom environment. This type of learning can be encouraged by an organization, or it can happen in an environment that may not be the expected place of learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal learning has been described by different authors to come in multiple forms. Bennett (2012) outlined three types of informal learning in a general context: self-directed, socialization, or incidental. *Self-directed learning*, for example, may occur when an employee seeks out information about a work-related topic by using technology or asking a colleague. *Socialization* refers to the hidden curriculum that occurs in organizations when an employee

adapts to the culture. *Incidental learning* is a byproduct of a task or interaction, and the learner may not necessarily be aware that learning is happening. An example of this type of learning is when an employee uses trial and error to accomplish a task. Incidental learning is the focal point of this particular paper.

Marsick and Watkins (2001) later created the Incidental Learning Model as Adapted with Cseh which describes the process of informal learning (See Fig.1). The model is a circle that has the context in the center. The context represents everyday learning that can occur or obstacles that may offer opportunities for informal learning. The outside circle around the context contains the stages that occur within the context of the learning. The outside circle begins with triggers, or actions that begin the learning process. Next, the beginning stages of the learning process can occur which are in no particular order: interpreting the experience, examining alternative solutions, and learning strategies. During this time, the person is reacting to the trigger and beginning to search for a solution or strategy to continue the process. Subsequently, the final stages of the learning model can also occur in no particular order: producing proposed solutions, assessing consequences, lessons learned, and framing the business context. During this time, the person is creating new schema and applying it to everyday life. Although the learning model is not cyclical or inclusive, it depicts that informal learning cannot begin until a trigger occurs. "Informal and incidental learning take place wherever people have the need, motivation, and opportunity for learning" (Marsick & Watkins, 2001, p.28). In the case of increasing informal learning in the school setting, it becomes the administrator's responsibility to create triggers which will allow for informal teacher learning.

Informal Learning and Teachers

Lohman (2006) outlined the informal learning process within the school context as learning that takes place for the teachers and staff in the school district outside of formal in-service days, professional development, and furthering education. There are three types of informal learning in a school-based context: knowledge exchanging, experimenting, and environmental scanning. *Knowledge exchanging* is a shared experience with others, often times reflecting on information given by others. For example, two teachers discussing an article given by a superior can have a knowledge exchange where each sheds a new perspective on the information that causes the other to reflect. *Experimenting* refers to an active experiment similar to that of incidental learning, and is typically a conscious decision by the learner. An example of this learning would be a teacher implementing different behavior charts in a classroom to find which one is most effective with the students. Finally, *environmental scanning* is any type of learning done outside of the school on the teachers' own time (Lohman, 2006). This includes attending a library to do outside research, surfing the web, or using a social media to gain knowledge.

Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011) performed a study on 32 secondary school teachers and deduced that when it comes to informal learning, having supervision of the teacher during the learning process can enhance the experience. Hoekstra and Korthagen (2011) also noted that supervision can create an environment where teachers feel seen and offers the teachers an opportunity to increase awareness of their teaching style and personality in the classroom.

Boud and Middleton (2003) conducted a study that examined informal learning in teacher workgroups in four different settings and discovered is that teachers are more likely to ask another teacher for information before asking a principal or other superior. Additionally, teachers are more likely to ask a teacher with more seniority before asking a teacher with equal or lesser experience than themselves. However, the general conclusion is that there is a large and

diverse group of people that teachers gather information and learn from daily; the people giving information do not have to be superiors or teacher trainers.

Inhibitors of Informal Learning of Teachers

Lohman (2000, 2006) completed studies of inhibitors to informal learning in the public school setting. The results of the studies depicted four main inhibitors of informal learning for teachers: lack of time, lack of proximity to learning resources, lack of meaningful rewards for learning, and limited decision-making power in school management.

The first inhibitor, lack of time, is a result of increased number of students in classrooms, inclusion in the classroom, and additional supplementary nonteaching responsibilities (Lohman, 2006). Teachers reported in the study that they had to spend more time planning and putting together lessons for a large, diverse group of students in the classroom. However, the teachers stated that there was not enough nonteaching time during the school day to work on lesson planning. Some teachers also indicated having nonteaching responsibilities during the day due to district changes and budget cuts (Lohman, 2000).

Lack of proximity to learning resources includes teachers' rooms being physically placed far from one another as well as from administration, lack of technology or up-to-date technology in the classrooms, and lack of access to the school library because of location. Teachers reported having trouble accessing computer labs for students without having a scheduled time. Others also stated being too far from the school library to gather information when there was a question in class (Lohman, 2000). Teachers later detailed that having collaboration with colleagues was preferable when informally learning and being too spread out was inhibiting that process from occurring (Lohman, 2006).

The next inhibitor, lack of meaningful rewards, includes no monetary rewards for attending learning sessions or hosting clubs, no recognition for additional learning, and more time away from the classroom if done during the work day. Teachers reported that although they were urged to take charge of committees and get involved, the monetary rewards were few to none. Some teachers also expressed that as the workload increased in the classroom, the less interested they became in being away from the classroom without any reward (Lohman, 2000).

The final inhibitor is limited decision-making power in school management. Teachers indicated feeling as though they had little say in the decisions made by principals. Some reported that their suggestions were declined while others stated that school policies were made without any teacher input (Lohman, 2000).

Implications for School Administrators

As stated by Marsick and Watkins (2001), a trigger is needed to begin the informal learning process. Although the learning model itself is not cyclical, the desired outcome from the trigger is for the teacher to experience critical reflection through *double loop learning*. Scribner Cockrell, Cockrell, and Valentine (1999) describe double loop learning as "continuous questioning of basic premises to ensure against error" (p. 134). In regards to Marsick and Watkins's (2001) learning model, double loop learning refers to the teacher going through the learning process, bringing the information learned back to other teachers, therefore creating a new trigger, restarting the model, and continuing this pattern. This type of learning can occur if the inhibitors to informal learning as outlined by Lohman (2000, 2006) are eliminated. Outlined below are two possible solutions to utilizing Marsick and Watkins's (2001) learning model while also removing barriers: teacher teams and video learning (or e-learning).

Teacher Teams

One of the most basic informal learning techniques is collaboration in teams or groups in the workplace before, during, or after the work day. Working in teams offers teachers informal learning through knowledge exchange, environmental scanning, and socialization (Boud & Middleton, 2003; Lohman, 2006). The idea of working in teams is reinforced by the studies of Scribner et al. (1999) who shared that working in groups creates an environment where teachers can (a) examine of the values of the school, (b) generate new ideas and knowledge, (c) share information and findings, and (d) build the capacity to use the new knowledge effectively. Therefore, utilizing teacher teams can be the starting point of the informal learning process.

Effective use of teacher teams aligned with Marsick and Watkins's (2001) incidental learning model. The trigger to begin the informal learning process in the case of teacher teams is to establish a clear objective. Crow and Pounder (2000) suggest having "clarity of task requirements and restraints" in regards to teacher teams (p. 221). As a result, the objectives for the meetings must be clearly defined along with the requirements and limitations of topics covered. For example, if the purpose of the meeting is to discuss a lesson that did not work and what the teacher did to recover from the lesson, then the objective could be to have each teacher outline a lesson that did not go as planned and describe the actions taken to recover the lesson using positive language. The objective is clear, yet broad enough for teachers to insert their own creativity. Teachers could write about the experience, act out the experience, include lesson plans and revisions, or simply walk the team through the experience verbally. Furthermore, the positive language portion of the objective places a limitation on the topic and creates clear boundaries.

Continuing with the sample objective, teachers should be given time to work in their teams. Depending on how the group is collaborating, the time frame could be a few days to a few weeks. During this time, teachers are perhaps unknowingly going through the stages of Marsick and Watkins's (2001) Incidental Learning Model (See Fig 1.). The teachers will be sharing stories which interpret their own experiences and interpret the experiences of the other team members. The team members then have the opportunity to give feedback or alternate solutions regarding the lesson that did not go as planned.

The next step depends on the direction in which the teams take the objective. The administrators should be monitoring the activity of the teams either in person or through a program such as *Google Drive.* The desired outcome for this objective would be for the teachers to go through double loop learning by taking the suggestions back to their classroom and returning to the team with new feedback regarding the lesson. Although some teams may do this automatically, others may need assistance. Administrators might need to prompt teams by offering suggestions for lessons and asking them to report back to the team with information about consequences, what the students learned, what the teacher learned, and how it will affect the teacher's planning for the next lesson. All of these prompts align with the stages of the learning model (See Fig 1).

Once teachers become familiar with the process, topics and objectives may begin to evolve. Crow and Pounder (2000) state communication between administrators and teacher teams may change over time, but the focus should remain on the students. It is the administrator's role to ensure that teacher teams are keeping the student knowledge in the foreground while continuing along with the informal learning process. Administrators can do this by maintaining relevant objectives and regularly monitoring and communicating with the team members.

Following teacher teams' alignment with the Incidental Learning Model (Marsick & Watkins, 2001) is eliminating barriers to informal learning and the learning model. Research by Lohman (2000, 2006) in regards to the four main barriers in the school systems are examined in regards to teacher teams.

Key points regarding eliminating barriers using teacher teams. The first barrier to be considered is a lack of time in the workplace (Lohman, 2000, 2006). Teacher teams do not necessarily have to meet in person to be considered a work group. Crow and Pounder (2000) suggest that if a meeting time cannot be scheduled for all parties during the work day, perhaps e-mail groups or group bulletin boards should be created. With the increased technology, having a discussion board similar to those of online classes can also be an effective tool. Additionally, *Google Drive* allows teachers an opportunity to exchange and edit documents online. Accessing *Google Drive* and discussion boards on classroom computers or through mobile phones allows for quick reading and reviewing during a break in the workday, therefore eliminating lengthy meetings.

The next barrier to eliminate is a lack of proximity to resources (Lohman, 2000, 2006). Programs such *as FaceTime* or *Skype* offer teacher teams the chance to video chat for free. If the technology for *FaceTime* and *Skype* is not available in the classroom setting due to funding, many of the programs can be accessed from most personal computers, tablets, and mobile phones. Administrators can be included in these meetings to ensure additional materials are provided to enhance learning (i.e. scholarly articles). If the funding is available, providing each group a room with a computer or *Ipad* allows them access to scholarly articles as well as mediums of social networking that can answer questions. If extra technology is inaccessible, then the administrator could provide printed copies of scholarly articles for all participants to read or review.

Subsequently, the barrier regarding rewards for informal learning is the next to be eliminated. Setting up a rewards system for collaborating in a team does not necessarily have to be monetary. One example may be having a duty (i.e. bus duty or study hall) covered by the administrator for the week for those who have successful group meetings. Rewards can be given for active participation in the team, for completing tasks (given to them or of their own accord), or on a randomized basis. Additionally, stating the perks of teacher teams to the teachers can allow for a more rewarding experience. Some examples may include: no meetings that pull teachers away from the classroom, no obligations for formal learning, opportunities for knowledge exchange between teachers, and possibilities to create change in the school without excessive work outside of the classroom.

The final barrier addressed by Lohman (2000, 2006) is lack of involvement in school decisions. Each teacher team should have a designated leader, preferably decided by the group. Crow and Pounder (2000) found that teams with leaders perform better than without leaders. This allows administrators an opportunity to include the teams in school-wide decisions by having a leader speak on the team's behalf. Not only will this give teachers a greater sense of autonomy, but it also allows for an environment where more change can be accomplished. For example, administrators could offer more opportunities for the teacher teams to speak about how things are decided whether it is regarding school lunches or teacher duties. Additionally, administrators can utilize teacher teams to enhance communication between teachers and school leaders. Once the rapport has been established, the gateway for communication is open for teams to ask questions as well as for administrators to keep ongoing consultation with teams about the

school, school district, legal consideration, and development of students (Crow & Pounder, 2000).

Video Learning or E-learning

Another informal technique that is becoming increasingly popular due to websites such as *YouTube* is video learning or e-learning. This is a process where one watches a video that could be a tutorial or strictly informational and applies it to their classroom. Video learning or e-learning is supported in research by Svensson, Ellström, and Åberg (2004) who stated that e-learning promotes personal development, increases self-confidence, and creates a more proactive work environment. E-learning allows for the teachers to work at their own pace making it optimal for teachers reporting not having enough time during the work day. This type of learning also allows for more teacher autonomy throughout Marsick and Watkins's (2001) learning model.

Effective use of video learning aligned with Marsick and Watkins's (2001) incidental learning model. In the case of video learning, the trigger for Marsick and Watkins's (2001) Incidental Learning Model can include providing a video for teachers to watch or asking teachers to find video resources for a particular topic. Just because a teacher has access to these videos online does not ensure that the teacher will have the motivation to search for videos or tutorials regarding topics that can assist with informal learning. In addition, just showing a video online to a group of teachers does not guarantee that the informal learning process will begin. Therefore, a support system must be set up along with the trigger to ensure that informal learning occurs (Svensson et al., 2004).

The first thing to consider is the topic that is chosen. Regardless of the content of the video, it always needs to be related back to the school in some way. Whether this is done through informal discussion, e-mail, or group discussion, the administrator should incorporate how the video relates to the school or classroom. The more the topic relates to the organization, the more informal learning will lead to better strategies in the classroom (Svensson et al., 2004).

Once the topic is chosen, a location must be specified. Svensson et al. (2004) suggested creating a learning center that includes a television, computer, table with chairs, projector, and copier all in one space. For some schools this may be feasible, but for others placing it in an area where the teacher is apt to be may be the best option. This could be the teachers' lounge or on the televisions in the classrooms. Having an e-learning center creates multiple opportunities for informal learning by supplying the following: a computer with access to relevant information, a space where teachers can share ideas or information, and a space where administrators can share information and communicate with teachers. If placing an e-learning center in the school is not possible, many mobile phones and tablets that teachers own can stream videos.

After these preparations are in place, there are several ways to support teacher learning from watching informational videos. One example would be for the administrator to ask each teacher to watch an informational video about classroom management and to choose one tactic from the video to implement in their class for a week. By having the teachers complete this task, they are looking at alternative solutions to their own classroom management plan and therefore beginning the stages of learning in Marsick and Watkins's (2001) Incidental Learning Model (See Fig. 1). At the end of the week, the teacher could share the results in multiple ways: through e-mail to the administrator, through a face-to-face conversation with the administrator, verbally expressing the results at a regularly scheduled meeting, or by writing a short synopsis that is shared with the rest of the teachers. Through the discussion of the results, the teachers can address consequences of the task along with lessons learned along the way.

It is up to the administrator to follow-up the activity by communicating to the teachers regarding their learning and restarting the learning model by offering a new trigger. In this particular case a new trigger could be a follow-up video activity for the teachers, a discussion individually to the teachers about their experience, or even combining the e-learning experience with teacher teams by having the teachers discuss their findings within their teams.

Following the alignment of video learning to the Incidental Learning Model (Marsick and Watkins, 2001) is the removal of barriers in regards to learning and the learning model. The four main barriers defined by Lohman (2000, 2006) are examined in relation to video learning.

Key points regarding eliminating barriers using video learning (e-learning). The first barrier to eliminate as described by Lohman (2000, 2006) is that of time restraints. Since video learning can be used without a formal meeting, it is practical for teachers. Regardless of where the or how the video learning is accessed, administrators should keep in mind the length of the video or activity so teachers do not feel the e-learning is additional work without supplementary pay as depicted by Lohman (2006). If the video is being shown streaming on a television, then it must be offered at multiple times throughout the day to ensure all teachers are able to view it. If local computers are used, then those computers should be available before and after school for those teachers without a long break in the work day. Options such as streaming a video on a television screen before or after school hours ensures teachers' free periods are not being disrupted. Accessing the video from a personal device allows teachers to watch videos and complete activities on their own time.

The next barrier, limited proximity to resources, can be eliminated by utilizing local computers and televisions, creating an e-learning center in the school, or allowing teachers to access videos from their own personal devices such as mobile phones and *Ipads*. If showing a video, teachers must ensure that the link or streaming video is distributed to all teachers so there is no extra searching involved. If the activity is having teachers search for videos regarding education, then providing search sites specifically for that purpose will aid in the process. Also, the administrator is an active part of the video learning process, therefore becoming an additional resource to teachers.

The third barrier is a lack of rewards for teacher learning (Lohman 2000, 2006). An incentive program could be set up at the beginning of the learning process such as a raffle. For example, if there are five e-learning experiences in the semester, the teachers may receive one entry in a drawing for each learning process in which they partake. Therefore, a teacher who completes all of the learning experiences has a better chance of winning than those who do not. Prizes for such a raffle could include monetary items such as a gift cards or other prizes.

The final barrier to consider eliminating is a lack of involvement in school decisions. The administrator's involvement with the e-learning process can strengthen rapport with teachers. Through this process, the teachers have the opportunity to view the administrator as a resource and can become more comfortable asking important questions. Once the line of communication between administrators and teachers opens, the opportunities increase for teachers to become more involved in the school. Furthermore, the administrator can examine the teacher's feedback from the e-learning to better serve the teachers in the future.

Conclusion

Although there are several potential options for administrators to eliminate barriers to informal and incidental learning in the school setting, teacher teams and e-learning are two low-cost suggestions applicable for any school. Using the information disclosed in this paper, school administrators can create triggers to jumpstart the Incidental Learning Model (Marsick &

Watkins, 2001) and facilitate teachers in recognizing when said incidental learning is taking place. These learning options assist in creating an environment that promotes teacher informal learning without additional spending for formal presentations.

Teacher teams and e-learning are also effective tools in reversing teacher attitudes towards teacher development by demonstrating that learning does not have to take place in lengthy meetings. Additionally, informal learning ultimately leads to double-loop learning and lifelong learning (Scribner et al., 1999). Once the teacher recognizes the learning taking place, more opportunities for continued learning will emerge.

Teacher teams and e-learning create closer ties between teachers and administrators, allowing for better relationships and more understanding of school processes. Teacher teams coerce teachers to work together and engage in knowledge exchange. E-learning creates an opportunity for teachers to become more comfortable with technology that could also be used in the classroom.

It can be predicted that research regarding the benefits of informal and incidental learning for teachers will be refined in the near future as schools begin to explore more options. Using the information from the Incidental Learning Model (Marsick & Watkins, 2001) and the research on barriers to workplace learning for teachers (Lohman, 2000, 2006), it is possible that it will become more commonplace for school administrators to focus primarily on informal learning techniques. Further research may include the effect of informal learning for teachers on teaching techniques and classroom management.

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Figure 1. Marsick and Watkins's Incidental Learning Model as Adapted with Cseh (Marsick & Watkins, 2001)
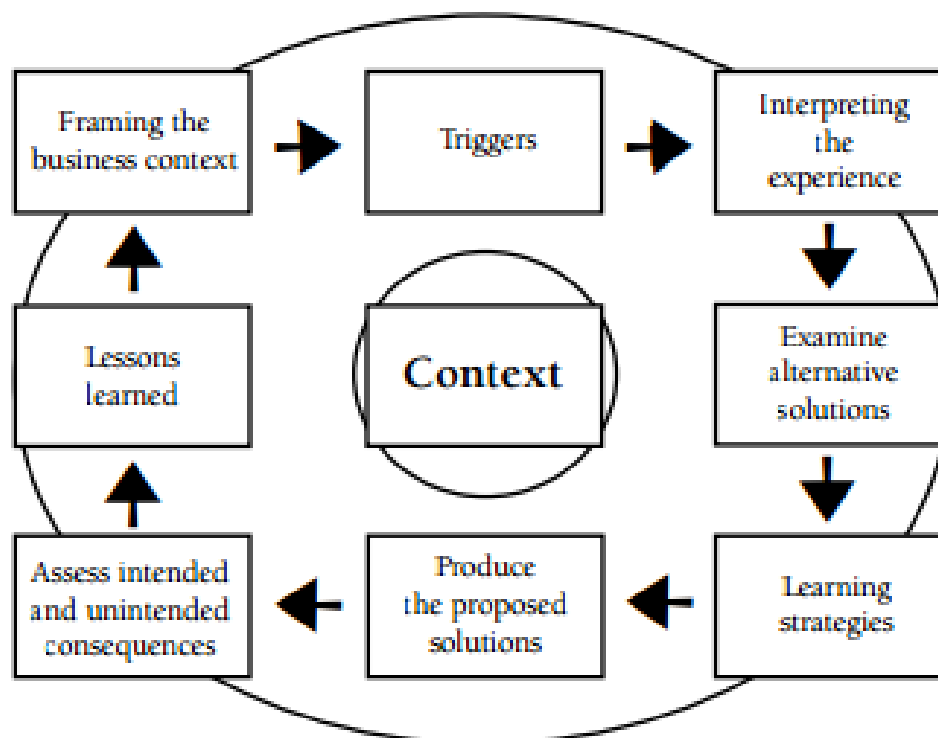
Life, Social Studies, and the Pursuit of Happiness: Using Classroom-based Multicultural Democratic Education to Challenge Conservative Notions of Civic Education

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Abstract: Bok (2010) argues civic understanding could improve student happiness by improving perceptions of politics and government, but the state of civic education in public schools keeps this from happening. This study argues that this notion of civic education is conservative by exploring Bok's premises, social studies, and civic education.

Derek Bok (2010) argues that government can learn from new research on happiness and can help improve the happiness of its citizens through policy and action. Furthermore, the way people perceive government can affect happiness. Citizens can be happier when they understand politics as a sophisticated process they can participate in to improve their government and their lives. Bok suggests that an education based on promoting civic understanding would help make students not only better citizens but happier ones, too. Bok notes, however, that the state of education in schools is such that students receive little civic education and when they do, they receive a fact intensive, two dimensional view of government and politics. The state of education not only limits civic understanding but gives students a negative view of politics and government, and in turn limits their happiness (Bok, 2010).

Civic education is not a stand alone discipline; it works under the umbrella of social studies education. Essentially, social studies is a conglomeration of several disciplines in the social sciences, education, and the humanities with the intent to promote citizenship, cultural awareness, and the examination and resolving of larger social problems (Saxe, 2003). Historically social studies was created to deal with social problems and citizenship issues in the United States. However, the need to look at larger social issues with multiple disciplinary perspectives and to act as global citizens has resurfaced in education (Kirkwood-Tucker, 2001).

Social studies educators have come up with many ways to improve civics. The problem is that this is not widely understood. Students can gain a complex understanding of politics through classroom-based multicultural democratic education (CMDE), for example. CDME promotes an understanding of the history of the United States, democratic notions, identities, and the official mainstream knowledge promoted in schools for citizenship, but is also critical of it (Marri, 2005). Arguably, social studies education and CMDE challenges Bok's relatively conservative view of education and civics by comparison. This challenge could have implications for the promotion of happy lives. The problem is that no one has explored the premises and conservatism of Bok's view of civic education and how CMDE can challenge it.

The purpose of this study is to add to the literature on education, social studies, and happiness by exploring the conservatism of Bok's view of civic education and how CMDE can challenge it. This three part study seeks to answer the following research questions: (a) What are the premises behind Bok's view of the relationship between civic education and happiness? (b) How is Bok's view of the relationship between civic education and happiness conservative? (c)

How can classroom based multicultural democratic education (CMDE) challenge a conservative notion of civic education?

This study is important because the pursuit of happiness along with life and liberty shaped the establishment of the American government and shapes support for its actions. It is also important because the student of today is the citizen of tomorrow.

Theoretical Framework

This study takes the perspective that elements of CMDE can be present in a social studies classroom in Florida and this use of CMDE challenges Bok's conservative notion of education. This paper is organized is organized into three parts to answer the three research questions on the premises of Bok, the conservativism of Bok, and how it is challenged by CMDE. First, this study explores Bok's view on happiness and civic education. Then the premises behind Bok's view on education are discussed. Second, the relationship of social studies education to the perception of the government, and cosmopolitanism is discussed in order to explain the conservatism of Bok's views. Third, CMDE and a south Florida Public School System's use of civic education is discussed along with the methods, results, and conclusion for a study that will answer how CMDE challenges Bok's view of Civic Education.

Happiness and Education

Happiness by definition occurs when a person "experiences life satisfaction and frequent joy, and only infrequently experiences unpleasant emotions such as sadness or anger" (Diener, Suh, & Oishi, 1997, p. 25). Marriage and other stable relationships can improve happiness along with health, income, power and other factors.

Bok (2010) argues that many of these factors can also be supported by the government through policy and action. The government can help resolve, alleviate, or prevent many of the problems that cause unhappiness. Education can also improve happiness in many ways including teaching people ways to prevent or deal with problems, by helping people train for a job that could improve their income which could be used to resolve problems, or by actually educating them on happiness. Bok (2010) also argues that the perception of the government and politics in general is also important. Bok argues that much of formal and informal education promotes pessimism, distrust, and expectations of government that are not in line with what government actually does. Education may discuss the facts and procedures of the political process that occurs in government, but it does not do an adequate job of explaining how politics and the government really works. This makes people disillusioned from the political process, and they opt out and become unhappy with their condition. Bok suggests the possibility that increasing distrust for the government along with unrealistic demands can eventually lead to major problems for the government and the people it governs (Bok, 2010).

Method

In order to answer the first research question (What are the premises behind Bok's view of the relationship between civic education and happiness?) a content analysis was done. Bok's (2010) book "The politics of happiness: What government can learn from the new research on well-being" was purposively selected. The focus was on the elements of the book that mention civic education and happiness. For data collection, note taking was done.

The Premises Behind Bok's View of Education

Three main premises emerged: (a) the distraction premise, (b) the minimal exposure premise, and (c) the more you know premise.

The Distraction Premise

Bok's (2010) critique of education is based on several premises that have implications for this study. Bok argues that part of the problem is that students in college are distracted away from taking civic classes by their vocational coursework and that civics in public schools is diminished by the demands of standardized testing (Bok, 2010). The problem with this premise is that in the public school curriculum students can not avoid learning about civics because it is either an explicit part of a social studies course or embedded with in it. Bok may also be using a narrow view of civic and government courses as the only outlet for civic instruction not in line with the way social studies incorporates civic education through multiple disciplines. This premise also diminishes the impact of teachers who often rise above challenges to teach about the government and the political process.

The Minimal Exposure Premise

In a second premise, Bok (2010) argues that college can minimally improve civic learning even without direct civic instruction through the learning of basic skills and exposure to liberal education. Bok discusses this premise in terms of college but it should apply in public schools where a student may have little or no civic education or skills at beginning of a course but will gain some understanding through the course of a school year. Theoretically, there should be some change in their civic understanding, perception of government, and in turn happiness even if they fail the class.

The More You Know Premise

A third premise Bok (2010) has about education is that learning more about the political process would make students happy about what the quality of their government is or their ability to improve it and in turn happy in general. In contrast, Bok argues that learning more about a profession like law could help a college student figure out if they actually like that profession (Bok, 2010). The political process premise suggests that learning more about an institution or a process would make someone like the institution or process more. The problem with this premise is that theoretically, students could learn more about the political process and still hate politics or be pessimistic about the quality of the government much like a college student may dislike the legal profession after learning about it in college. Educators have noted how students gain a distrust for institutions once they learn the history of it (Chomsky, 2000). It is possible that a complex understanding of politics as a process may promote a negative view of government and of American government in particular in some students. Arguably, a conservative bias may be present in Bok's work and underlying premises.

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Method

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This second research question (How is Bok's view of the relationship between civic education and happiness conservative?) was answered by doing a qualitative content analysis. A purposive sample of literature using the key terms *civic education*, *social studies education, government*, and *citizenship* was done using the search engine GoogleScholar. Bok's (2010) work was also used again. For data collection, note taking was used. Themes were developed from this literature that were constantly compared to Bok's work and reworked to answer the second research question

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How Bok's View of the Relationship between Civic Education and Happiness is Conservative

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Themes were developed from this literature were that Bok's work is conservative because he doesn't understand (a) the nature of social studies, (b) the nature of global citizenship, (c) the nature of students, (d) the nature of government, and (e) multicultural education.

The Nature of Social Studies

Bok's view is arguably conservative because civic education is not limited to civics or a government class. Social studies developed just because the nature of civic issues could not be handled by civic classes alone or limited to citizenship in the United States.

Social studies developed over the course of several decades. It arose during times of crisis when traditional civic education focused on explaining the United States government and its history were not adequate to meet the demands for social and political change demanded by people from their institutions including the government itself. Many definitions have arisen and the make up of social studies has changed. Essentially, it is a conglomeration of several disciplines in the social sciences, education, and the humanities with the intent to promote citizenship, cultural awareness, and the examination and resolving of larger social problems (Saxe, 2003). Many pedagogies and ideas have been associated with social studies including the spiral curriculum (Bruner, 1966) and the expanding communities concept (Stallones, 2004). No matter the discipline or pedagogy used, social studies courses all seek to promote the civic duties of students (Chilcoat & Ligon, 2003). During the progressive era, social studies became associated with the need to solve larger social problems that had negative effects on people by understanding and using complex political action to change institutions that could improve the well being and happiness of people (Chilcoat & Ligon, 2003; Mraz, 2004). Social studies criticism has focused on how much social studies in the past focused on the American government, certain groups in the American culture, and the tendency to be Western centric (Banks et al., 1999). Social studies has faced many challenges in recent years including the questioning of its existence, cuts to its funding, scheduling, and support (Saxe, 2002), interest groups who feel certain disciplines and ideas in social studies should be favored over others (Mraz, 2004), the promotion of materials that do not adequately, fairly, or correctly help all students learn (Kaplan, 2002), and many who feel that social studies in practice lacks focus (Saxe, 2003). However, the need to look at larger social issues with multiple disciplinary perspectives and to act as citizens beyond the United States has resurfaced in social studies and education in general (Kirkwood-Tucker, 2001) and many teachers have overcome the challenges to social studies through their actions (Banks, et al., 1999).

The Nature of Global Citizenship

Bok (2010) is conservative because he does not take into account that civic learning and civic practice is global and informal and not just formal and national. Cosmopolitanism is the idea that citizenship means caring for people beyond the borders of the nation one is in. Cosmopolitanism is an ancient idea that was once only possible in very small city-states. Various communication technologies now make it possible to interact and be affected by more people across geographic and temporal barriers. People can now truly be global citizens. Essential to cosmopolitanism is the need for global citizens to expose themselves to different cultures, dialogue with people, and to think beyond their nation state. The cultures of many nation states borrow from each other in an increasingly interconnected and globalized world, networking is already occurring between people across geospatial borders, and the challenge to meet problems is global. For some people, it can be just a matter of realizing how much cosmopolitanism is already relevant in their lives (Appiah, 2006).

The Nature of Students

Bok (2010) does not realize that many students have too much civic understanding in that they learned it in a home country and arrived here to learn a civic education that is in conflict with what they learned. In a world of increasing classroom diversity, Bok assumes all students are the same mono-cultural empty vessel before civics. The term *sojourner student,* for example,

is part of a taxonomy for categorizing transnational students where in the sojourner student has moved internationally but their only challenge is not limited to learning the norms and language in their host country as is the case for some other students. Sojourner students may have to return to the sending country and thus have to relearn the norms and language of that country too. In the case for students from Mexico who go to the United States and then return to Mexico with experience in American schools, they can find that what they learn in America may not fit the specific needs of their Mexican classroom. For example, a sojourner student who excelled in history in the United States may do terribly in the subject in Mexico since the point of view of the curriculum focuses centrally on Mexico and not the United States. In the United States, that same student may have had trouble with some subject they had excelled at in Mexico because of language barriers. Short term challenges like these can mean that their overall academic career can be set back (Zuniga & Hamann, 2009).

The Nature of Government

Bok's view is conservative because it is based on a traditional view of government as physical formal institutions. In his book, Bok does not discuss government in terms a s*ubgovernment* or a *hegemony,* for example, that must be dealt with by teachers. People make contact with government not just by dealing with the institutions in the three branches of government but in what is often called the subgovernment. These are institutions like think tanks, research centers, associations, leagues, lobbyists, networks, firms and other informal institutions that help set the policy agenda for what eventually is done in government. The formal government is the political process one sees like the top of an iceberg but subgovernment is all the informal institutions that do their work anonymously and whose work slowly makes it way up to the government (Heineman et al., 1990). Government is also an idea that controls people. Government is not just an institution but a hegemony (Gramsci et al., 1971). It is up to public intellectual to challenge hegemonic ideas. The classroom and much of what students learn in popular culture and in official knowledge is part of hegemony. The classroom can be a site of power where students can be subjugated by the ideas of the elite (Freire, 1970). Students are liberated when they are able to create their own knowledge. Teachers as public intellectuals must do this in the classroom as well as outside of it (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991).

Multicultural Education

Bok's conservatism leads him to see a colorblind civic education. A straight forward teaching of civic education is White Anglo centered. Learning the techniques of civics still means that the Puerto Rican students can see the American flag they pledge to as a symbol of imperialism, an African American student can see that they are not equal in early forms of the constitution, and civic problems are no longer limited to the United States. Global citizenship and discussion is necessary to highlight the multicultural dilemmas of democracy and civics (Banks, 2004).

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Method

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In order to answer this research question (How can classroom based multicultural democratic education challenge a conservative notion of civic education?) a brief literature review was made using the key terms *civic education* and *the name of a south Florida school district* in order to explain what is available. That public school system will be referred to under the alias of south Florida public schools or (SFPS). SFPS was chosen because it is emblematic of what is possible in south Florida. A literature review was created of SFPS system's resources for civic education by using the terms Civic education, Florida, and the school districts' name in several search engines. This literature review and the work of Marri (2005) and Bok (2010)

were also used. For data collection, note taking was used. After data analysis, a list of resources in SFPS system for civics that could fit into a list of elements of CMDE was developed through content analysis and compared to the previously discussed premises and elements of conservatism in Bok's work. CMDE themes were developed by constantly comparing the different resources and answers theorized for the research question.

How Classroom based Multicultural Democratic Education Can Challenge a Conservative Notion of Civic Education

This study takes the perspective that elements of CMDE can be present in a social studies classroom in Florida and this use of CMDE challenges Bok's conservative notion of education. CMDE, SFPS, and CMDE elements are explored to answer the third research question.

Classroom-based Multicultural Democratic Education

Marri (2005) developed a framework for a model of classroom-based multicultural democratic education (CMDE) after observing good secondary social studies teachers promote an understanding of the codes of power, promote skills for effective citizenship, and teach a curriculum extended beyond the limits of official knowledge. Good social studies teachers do this by using multiple resources to study an issue, promote deliberative democracy through classroom discussion, behavior and cooperative learning. The CMDE model links multicultural and democratic education by promoting thorough disciplinary content, community building, and critical pedagogy. Thorough disciplinary content must include both mainstream academic knowledge and transformative academic knowledge. A community must be built in the classroom that promotes respectfully relationships, conflict resolution, and group work for problem solving. Finally, teachers must promote a critical pedagogy that allows critique and meaning making of democracy, cultural, socioeconomic, and political diversity, and agency through critical thinking, individual social action and group social action. Good teachers can promote most of aspects of the CMDE model without prior knowledge of CMDE (Marri, 2005).

Civics Education in the south Florida Public Schools System

In Florida, K-12 students are mandated to learn local, state and federal government before high school graduation usually through a one half credit, one semester course called American government. Standardized testing often ignores civics, government, or citizenship. Florida college students have complained that American government in public schools is too limited, that the system does not prepare them for democracy, and a lack of contact with political leaders in the classroom exists (Pitts, 2000). South Florida Public schools (SFPS) however is becoming influential at the local, regional, state, national, and international level when it comes to civic education. This district's social studies teachers and social science division promote civic responsibility and activism through a required social science competency based curriculum that promotes democratic principles, community service, and voting. SFPS requires an annual civics course in middle school and uses voter registration drives, required community service, values based character education initiatives, and law and civic elective classes. SFPS uses partnerships with various entities to create co-curricular opportunities including mock trials, moot courts, a youth ethics initiative, and school violence prevention demonstration programs. In election years, certain students participate in presidential debates and mock elections at the local, state, and national level using computer software. SFPS uses student government associations. Support from partnerships with the state legal system, civic education groups, and legal associations help some students attend congressional conferences on civic education and collaborate with voting rights leaders and groups (Doyle & Shenkman, 2006). SFPS has oral history projects where students study communities, conduct, archive, and transcribe interviews

with community members and create various project related essays, photographs, and artwork. These projects have focused on community, civil rights and veterans' issues and allow students to learn and do historical research at local university libraries, special collections, and museums (Hersh, 2008).

Thorough Content Knowledge

Civics is imbedded throughout the different disciplines in social studies in the SFPS system. CMDE teacher could put the content in the various contexts available to gain the bigger picture. For example, voting is not just a civic act but a geographical, sociological, legal, and psychological act too. SFPS has the advantage of allowing students to create knowledge.

Deliberative Democratic Praxis

Every civic act could be thought out, talked out, acted out, and the consequences played out and reflected upon in SFPS with a multicultural lens.

Community

A democratic community can be created in the classroom where students respect each other and solve conflicts through voting and links to other communities. SFPS resources allow a classroom democracy to link to student government and beyond.

Social Action

SFPS students do both individual and cooperative learning. Individual students can create election posters but they can also collaborate for voter registration drives for example.

Going Beyond Official Knowledge

CMDE teachers can use multiple resources to teach beyond the textbook. SFPS students can go beyond official knowledge by creating their own knowledge such as the work done in the oral history projects. Conservatism limits civic acts to civic classes and contexts and limits diversity and participation. The results show CMDE, Social Studies, and SFPS resources can create a multidimensional use of civic learning that challenges these limits.

Implications for Future Research, Practice, and Conclusions

Future research should focus quantitatively and qualitatively on the long term impact of CMDE on students as they move from K-12, college, and beyond. Banks (2004) argues that multicultural and democratic education may be helped by global learning and citizenship. CMDE can help promote this at the K-12 level in south Florida schools. The implication for practice is the realization that elements of CMDE should occur purposely and not incidentally in all civic education, that SFPS resources and strategies should be shared through out the state to support CMDE, and that viewing these resources, strategies, and goals conservatively does not lead to better student happiness or civic understanding. By exploring Bok's work and CMDE, this study showed that civic education can be limited by how it is perceived as well as practiced.

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Promoting an Operation Cease Fire Approach in Classrooms

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Abstract: This study explores the problem oriented and public health models of youth crime prevention and how to better promote it in the average classroom through strategies and interventions in order to reduce gun violence.

Gun violence amongst teens is a major problem in American cities. Much of this violence stems from gang activity (Braga & Weisburd, 2012). In Boston, a program to reduce gun violence called Operation Cease Fire has shown success. This model has been promoted in other major cities in the United States (Piehl, Kennedy, & Braga, 2000).

Operation Cease Fire uses a problem based public health approach to the prevention of gun violence amongst gang members. The problem of youth crime is often resolved with the help of community organizations, government agencies, and the police (Piehl et. al., 2000).

While education is important and parent teacher organizations and school police have a part to play in Operation Cease Fire (Braga, McDevitt, & Pierce, 2006), the problem is that classroom use of this project is very limited (Project MPACT, 2006). What is not clear are ways to ground the approach in the practices of an average public school classroom. This study explores the ideas behind Operation Cease Fire in order to theorize ways to support the program through the classroom, specifically through the context of Miami Dade County.

The purpose of this study is to explore a way to minimize youth violence amongst students and other youth through classroom strategies and interventions. The main research questions in this study are: What are ways that can be theorized that the average classroom can be better used to reduce gun violence in an Operation Cease Fire approach? How could these ways play out in a Miami Dade County Public Schools classroom to support the youth crime task force?

This study is important to school stakeholders such as students, teachers, and administrators because youth crime and gun violence leads to the deaths of dozens of school age youths every month in the United States of America. This study begins by exploring gun violence reduction, gun violence as a health problem, Boston's Operation Cease Fire, and the public health and problem solving models that support it. Then the methods and findings are discussed.

Firearms Violence

The murder of young adults ages 5 to 14 has spread throughout the country and is the third leading cause of death (Edelman, 1994). For young adults 5 to 24 years old, it is the second leading cause of death. If the young adults are Black, it is the leading cause of death. More Black teens are killed by guns annually than Black teens in the past were by lynching historically. Every few days the total of individual teen deaths by guns equals the average size of a classroom. There are no national requirements for training, licensing, registration, or safe storage of guns. There is no product safety requirement for guns arguably because guns are meant to harm. There is a lack of data on gun injuries and secondary markets of guns. Self defense and recreational uses for guns could be protected while reforming national gun policy. Critics of the self defense use of guns argue that guns are often used to escalate private conflicts by people untrained in dispute resolution and often when they are angry, annoyed, tired, drunk,

or afraid. Actual use of a gun in self defense is very rare. It is more common and effective in terms of preventing injury for people to call the police or run away. At home, most people use a non firearms weapon such as a bat to protect themselves. Many people will never have the opportunity to use their guns against actual robbers, burglars, or intruders. Often guns in the home lead to the coercion and intimidation of other household members (Hemenway, 2006). Each day, guns are used in the commission of about 1000 crimes, about eight people are killed using a gun, and about sixteen people are wounded with guns (Braga &Weisburd, 2012). The U.S. rates of death and injuries due to firearms, and the rate of crimes committed with firearms, are higher than in any other high-income country with its income wealth and development.

Gun Violence as a Public Health Problem

Gunshot wounds do not always lead to death or minor wound (Braga & Weisburd, 2012). Gunshot wounds result in many devastating nonlethal wounds, including traumatic brain injury and spinal cord injuries. Spinal cord injuries related to gunshot wounds tend to be more traumatic than those caused by other factors such as car accidents and falls. Gunshot wounds lead to permanent disabilities and are more likely to lead to paraplegia and complete spinal cord injury. Gunshot wounds also promote long term psychological trauma. Gunshot wounds are more likely to lead to the development of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) in children. More than half of patients treated for a gunshot would develop high levels of PTSD within a year or two of being shot. Eyewitnesses also report suffering from trauma. Economically, more than six million dollars a day are spent treating gunshot wounds nationally and the average individual gunshot wound costs 17,000 dollars to treat. Most of those costs are taken up by the U.S. tax payers. Gunshot wounds also lead to various long term costs.

Operation Cease Fire Project

Now known as Operation Cease Fire, the Boston Gun Project was a problem solving policing initiative aimed at reducing homicide victimization among young people (Piehl et al., 2000). Sponsored by the National Institute of Justice, it was designed to assemble a system of an interagency working group of largely line level criminal justice and other practitioners. The project applied quantitative and qualitative research techniques to create an assessment of the nature of, and dynamics driving youth violence in Boston, developed, implemented, and evaluated an intervention designed to a have a substantial near term impact on youth homicide. The project incorporated the help of the district attorney, juvenile corrections, Boston police, departments of probation and parole, school police, the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms and many others in the system.

The murder problem was quickly tied to a small percentage of gang members who did most of the murders and their access to new semiautomatic guns that were bought in the state through illegal trafficking (Piehl et al., 2000). Authorities used knowledge of the gangs and extensive records to go after illicit gun traffic and to stifle the gang beefs that often started violence. Gangs were informed that violence would not be accepted and that they were under constant focus by police, special mediation workers who met them on the street, and by other stakeholders through formal meetings, police contact, and individual meetings. Disputes and issues amongst gang members were settled through the help of parole officers, social services, and street mediators. When gang members committed violence, gangs were challenged on all legal fronts through custom interventions for particular individuals and groups. The long sustained attention put on gangs could involve minor as well as large violations such as arrests for drinking and using unregistered cars. The message was sent that if they wanted the attention to stop, gangs would have to stop the violence. This strategy led to several fewer murders each

month. The working group running Operation Cease Fire would meet regularly to improve the intervention (Piehl et al., 2000). With the Boston Gun project, a central idea emerged that gun violence worked in self perpetuating cycles. After frequent cycles of street violence, a small number of youth at risk were using protective behaviors such as attaining a gun, using a gun, forming a gang, using violent behavior, and other behaviors that could spur another cycle of street violence. A meaningful period of substantially reduced youth violence might serve as a "firebreak" and result in a relatively long-lasting reduction in future youth violence. Interrupting the cycle meant that a less violent period could emerge and it was possible that less energy and resources could be used as deterrents. It was easier to keep the peace once the violence cycle was interrupted. Long term, it could lead to a lasting reduction in violence (Braga et al., 2000).

The Boston Gun Project served as a template for other communities grappling with gang violence (Tita, Riley, Ridgeway, & Greenwood 2005) including Sacramento (Wakeling, Gilbert, Dunham, & de Leon, 2012), Los Angeles and Indiana (Braga & Weisburd, 2012). The working group in Operation Cease Fire Los Angeles served as a forum for different private and public agencies to collaborate and to pool effectively the different resources they had. Operation Cease Fire in Los Angeles had community support in part because it focused on the crime and not necessarily on young people being in a gang. Mapping out where the gangs were and understanding the networking of the gangs was important. Understanding and learning about the gangs and their relationship to violence was critical. In Los Angeles, it was clear that there were hot spots or places where violence would build. As a deterrent to violence in those areas, uniform police would do weekly patrols of target area parks, housing developments, and communities. A fence was placed in the alleyway of a regular shooting scene so that entry and escape from the area was made more difficult, and speed bumps were placed to slow down traffic. The housing authority inspected properties violent gang members were prone to use as hideouts (Tita et al., 2005). Critics of the Boston Gun project argue that Boston gangs were relatively small and structured compared to Los Angeles and Chicago and that Operation Cease Fire took credit for many business as usual raids they did not initiate (Piehl et al., 2000). Operation Cease Fire has been acclaimed for the reduction in gun violence in Boston, but researchers feel that since it uses a quasi experimental approach to evaluate their work, it is hard to determine how much gun violence reduction is due to the project and how much is due to other factors. It is difficult to create a randomized control trial group to test against (Braga & Weisburd, 2012). Operation Cease Fire is based on two models: The problem solving model and the public health model.

Problem Solving Model

The problem solving model of policing uses an understanding of the environment and factors of a problem to solve a problem with the use of traditional and non-traditional resources (Braga, et. al., 2006). An understanding of local gangs and associated gang violence is needed, for example, so that responses can be logically linked to the nature of the youth gun violence problem. A major factor in solving the problem is in determining how the problem is understood. Unfortunately, research has demonstrated that problem analysis is usually shallow. Police officers often conduct only a superficial analysis of problems and then rush to implement responses based on their own experiences. Police are good at identifying problems but have difficulty clearly defining problems, dissecting problems, properly using data sources, incorporating non police information resources (such as hospitals, schools, and businesses), conducting comprehensive analyses, and implementing analysis driven responses .

The Department of Justice uses funding to support community outreach effort by hiring prosecutors, investigators, and trainers to address problems (Braga et al., 2008). District attorneys can hire and work with academic research partners to help understand and address serious gun related problems in their districts. In the city of Lowell, Massachusetts, a U.S. District attorney hired researchers from Harvard University and Northeastern University to work closely with criminal justice practitioners in Lowell to assess the nature of the city's homicide and serious nonfatal gun violence problem. The research finds that homicide and serious gun violence is highly concentrated among a small number of gangs involved and highly active youth offenders. An interagency criminal justice working group, with support and involvement from social services and the community, was developed to focus prevention, intervention, and enforcement resources on this risky group of individuals responsible for the bulk of Lowell violence. The problem analysis research also revealed that most gang conflicts were personal and vendetta-like. Money issues and drug business did not cause as much violence as much as a cycle of retaliation amongst groups with a history of antagonism. There was also an ethnic dimension as Asian and Hispanic gangs had different kinds of disputes.

The Public Health Model

Traditional medical practice and traditional law enforcement model is reactive and deals with one person at a time (Braga & Weisburd, 2012). Doctors treat the patient after they have the disease. Police officers often try to solve the crime after it has been committed to an individual. Although prevention is part of law enforcement, much of its energy is focused on apprehending and arresting someone after a crime. By contrast, the goal of public health is neither to determine fault nor to punish perpetrators or curing a disease after a patient has it. Public health focuses directly on prevention--eliminating the problem before something bad happens. Epidemiology is about identifying the risk factors, trends, and causes of health problems. The public health approach then tries to organize the community into an effort of public interest to apply scientific and technical knowledge to address the causes of these health problems. With a public health approach, gun violence could be the health problem and epidemiology is used to identify the causes and the community is used to solve the problem before it manifests itself. In public health, prevention is preferable to treatment, alterations in the environment are more likely to be effective than attempts to change individual behaviors, and multiple strategies directed toward different risk factors are necessary to solve the problem. Changing the environment where firearms violence is triggered can mean promoting policies that improve parenting skills, channel anger, or reduce racism and injustice. Policies that reduce alcohol and drug problems can help prevent both intentional and unintentional gunshot injuries (Wakeling et al., 2012). Pulling all the levers is a phrase that describes the use of multiple strategies to deal with violence (Braga & Weisburd, 2012). In Sacramento, targeted groups of probationers and parolees were also urged to take advantage of a range of social services and opportunities including employment, mentoring, housing, substance abuse treatment, and vocational training (Wakeling et al., 2012).

Miami Dade County Public Schools

In 2000, the Miami Dade County Public schools (MDCPS) system pushed to be declared a unitary district having arguably eliminated all de jure segregation, equalized facilities and transportation, and complied with the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Although schools were legally desegregated as they could be by the school system, many schools remain racially isolated due to residential segregation. A huge degree of White flight from south Florida communities occurred just as a Cuban population was growing and avoiding many issues that other Hispanic groups

face. Minority students such as Blacks and (non Cuban) Hispanics generally experience higher poverty rates, suffer from a variety of health problems, endure greater learning difficulties due to limited English proficiency, encounter school values and behaviors that often conflict with their minority community, and have lower levels of academic achievement and educational attainment compared to the White population. Blacks and Black Hispanics suffer from a higher degree of spatial separation. This isolates them more from mainstream culture. Isolated Black and Hispanic communities have a greater risk of experiencing poverty, unemployment, teenage pregnancies, and educational failure (Moore, 2004). According to Collier (1998), MDCPS schools have had cultures of denial when it comes to violence and crime in schools. Miami gangs are small in number but they are growing. Few females are in gangs. Most gang members stop their activity at 18 when they could be treated as an adult. Schools with violent cultures allowed the bad crime environment around school to enter the school itself. In the eyes of students, a teachers' authority in a larger school disciplinary process is often limited, marginalized, and undermined by school security and administration leading to more classroom misbehavior (Collier, 1998).

Miami Youth Crime Prevention

In 2010, the Miami Police department street gang section identified 261 Gang members, conducted 659 field interviews, arrested 42 Gang members, recovered 7 firearms, seized $10,701 in U.S. currency, and produced 20 Flyers/Intelligence Bulletins through a Gang Information Clearinghouse (MDPD Narcotic Bureau, 2011). A Multi Agency Gang Task Force conducted 12 sweeps and made 145 arrests that included 72 felonies, 60 misdemeanors, 15 warrants and 4 traffic violations. 16 weapons, 301.3 grams of marijuana, and 166.5 grams of cocaine were also seized.

Miami Dade County's version of Operation Cease Fire is a system of stakeholders, agencies, and services that work around the Youth Crime Task Force ([YCTF] YCTF, 2012). The YCTF worked as an independent institution but in recent years was transformed into a kind of advisory board to local government. Miami Dade County offers its troubled youth various programs that could be of assistance. The 12 and Under Project for example provides services to identified high-risk boys with special issues and needs who have been assessed at the Juvenile Assessment Center as being under twelve years and in conflict with parents and the law. Family Intervention Services provides community- and home-based Functional Family Therapy, targeting children age 17 years and under, who are diverted from Juvenile Court and under the supervision of the Juvenile Services Department. Juvenile Weapons Offender Program is for under age 18 youths adjudicated on non-violent weapons charges. These offenders are confronted by the traumatic physical, emotional, and financial consequences of violence on victims and their families. The Improving Community Control program for adjudicated youths under age 18 is designed to improve self-esteem, school performance, and pro-social bonding through institutions such as Concerned African Women and Regis House. Alternative programs include: Family and Child Empowerment, Post Detention Girls' Program, Serious Habitual Offender - Sibling Model Program, and the Teen Drug Court program.

The Miami Partnership for Action in Communities task force ([MPACT] MPACT, 2006) is a school based gang intervention program. They gather resources to combat gang violence into the school of a targeted area. The project demonstrates that students given an opportunity to become productive citizens will be less likely to turn towards crime. Their minds are cultivated with the learning and application of marketable job skills. An on the job training program allows at risk youths to learn carpentry theory in school and then work for hourly wages at a

construction site. Youths learn a trade that bolsters self esteem, the builder gets free labor since a local agency funds the work while mentoring and teaching them, a low income family get to own a home for the first time and the community is enhanced. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Comprehensive gang model has been used in other states. Schools use five strategies: social interventions, opportunities provision, organizational change, suppression, and community mobilization. The district is also trying to get these students to do the maintenance, building, and repairs of schools in the school district.

Method

This conceptual study explores the problem oriented public health model of youth crime prevention and how to better promote it in the classroom through strategies and interventions in order to reduce gun violence.

Data Collection

The focus was on literature related to the way Operation Cease Fire was used in Boston, Sacramento, Los Angeles, and Miami Dade County. Literature was collected using databases such as Google scholar and Eric with the key terms "Operation Cease Fire" and "Boston Gun Project". The websites and available documents of these specific programs were also studied. The sample was purposively limited to these projects because these projects represent the work of a metropolis similar to Miami in terms of environment, demographics, size of school district, and access to social services, these projects specifically deal with Operation Cease Fire, and because these projects are role models for the work of other cities. Data was collected through note taking

Data Analysis

The data on the Boston Gun Project and Operation Cease Fire in Los Angeles, Sacramento, and Miami were analyzed for common themes. The data on Miami was also analyzed in order to list what resources were available. Then through a brainstorming process notes were taken on how these themes could lead to the use of classroom strategies and interventions. Lists were developed and made into themes that were used to theorize an answer to the main research question: What are ways that can be theorized that the classroom can be better used to reduce gun violence in an Operation Cease Fire approach? The common themes were then constantly compared to available resources in Miami's Operation Cease Fire project and brainstorming was done again for the second research question: How could these ways play out in a Miami Dade County Public Schools classroom to support the Youth Crime Task Force?

Findings

Nine themes were developed. The theme *defining problems and solutions* refers to figuring out of what is wrong and what can be done to correct or prevent the wrong. The theme *triggers* includes the issues or events that make violence happen. The theme *violence alternatives and violence consequences* refers to the options to avoid violence and what happens after violence. The theme *communication* includes the dialogue and information sharing that is needed throughout the community to stop gun violence. The theme *focus* refers to the depth of attention put to an action and the consequences that follow. The theme *geographies* includes the contexts and environments where gun violence occurs. The theme *social services* refers to the resources available to help anyone in the community. The theme *community response* includes how various institutions and individuals respond to violence and work to prevent violence from reoccurring.

What are ways that can be theorized that the classroom can be better used to reduce gun violence in an Operation Cease Fire approach?

Schools need better links to the violence prevention community at this stage. They are often asked to help solve a problem after police have defined and solved it themselves. Micro acts of conflict happen in classrooms everyday. Schools should have mechanisms for sharing knowledge of individual student behaviors and their triggers with counselors and staff but also with people in the crime prevention loop. As an alternative, schools should have a one stop center of information about after school programs such as the YMCA and the public library. Activities should round out the calendar so that there is no time for mischief. Violence consequences can be mapped out through graphic organizers. Schools should have anonymous ways students and staff can discuss gang issues in school and through out the community without fear of retaliation from gangs. Schools should record graffiti, tagging, phrases, and other paraphernalia instead of just discouraging it. It may be gang related and useful information. Students should research and learn about different surrounding communities including gang areas. Schools should work with partners to maintain a list of available social services and explain them to parents and students. Schools should be involved in rallies and protests against gun violence.

How could these ways play out in a MDCPS classroom to support the YCTF?

MDCPS and YCTF should have better links to the academic community at the problem and solution stage and throughout all stages of the crime prevention process. This means not only a link to students and teachers in the classroom but researchers at the university level too. A teacher can discuss problem identifying and solving with students through think aloud strategies. A way to speak with anonymity is needed for school workers since there is a culture of denial of violence in MDCPS that could lead to retaliation against people who speak out. Workers who mediate gang violence should discuss violence triggers in the classroom. MDCPS should partner with other institutions to train these workers and staff and students who may be able to help out in their community in an informal way. Former gang members and doctors that deal with gunshot wounds should speak at all classrooms. Discussing gang activities should be done regularly and not as a one time event. Better information is gained if students are allowed to own the conversation and open questions are used. When the YCTF asks the community to focus attention on gang members after a crime, someone from the school of each member should be having a talk with those students. If the student is frequently out of the school, a representative of MDCPS should go to the home along with other YCTF partners. Schools can map out hot spots of delinquency as a project and share this knowledge. Classes can map out factors in the community that lead to violence such as high poverty areas as a lesson. MDCPS should promote a one stop center for social services by having institutions come to the schools at times working parents are free to attend. MDCPS should partner with institutions to offer gang related services such as tattoo removal. Project MPACT should improve the schools but also surrounding areas.

Conclusion

This study offers ways that youth crime prevention can be better linked to the classroom by exploring some projects and available local resources. This study highlights the issue and sets up an informative base for future work. More detailed work is needed on how these ideas can come to practice in the challenging contexts of local schools. Future research should focus on how well specific schools handle youth crime prevention. In conclusion, this study explored ways to use the classroom, MDCPS, and YCTF to prevent gun violence in a better way.

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The Framing of the Aftermath of the Chicago Teacher's Strike

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Abstract: The study explores the framing of the Chicago teachers strike in the media. The study uses content analysis of text from major media sources to find major themes in frames, theorize their purpose, and explore the reaction to them of teachers as public intellectuals.

Teachers can learn many things through teacher unions in many different ways (Moe, 2001). Teacher unions can have values that support or hinder teachers (Poole, 2000). However teachers can learn from critical events, past histories, and role models about the value involved in joining and participating in a union. Being in a union is a highly political act (Bascia, 1998).

Educators have to be politically savvy in debates with other educational stakeholders outside the classroom to have political victories (Itkonen, 2009). Teachers are public intellectuals who find themselves increasingly attacked by conservative forces (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991). There is usually a lot of data and information in a political event. A frame takes out information and lets some information in so that a story could be told that is understandable (Armoudian, 2012). Framing refers to the process through which people develop a certain conceptualization about an idea or reorient their thinking as it pertains to an issue (Chong & Druckman, 2007).

Recently, teachers in Chicago went on strike. The teacher's union hoped to get its members a pay raise and to negotiate several other points with the school district including merit pay programs. The strike was widely publicized and eventually ended with a new contract for the teachers (Rossi, Esposito, & Fitzpatrick, 2012; Spielman, 2012). There is a lot of information and data about the strike. The problem is that the framing of the teacher strike in Chicago has not been explored in depth.

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore the framing of the Chicago teacher's strike in order to understand what can be learned from it. This study answers the following research questions: How was the end of the Chicago teachers strike framed into larger themes through the headlines of the texts used by major media sources reporting on the strike? What can be theorized about the purposes of these frames by looking at what information is imparted or hidden by these frames? How can teachers as public intellectuals react to these frames?

This study is important because unions and their members affect all stakeholders in education whether or not they are in the union and frames in the media affect how problems are viewed and resolved. This study begins with an exploration of teacher unions. Then the Chicago teacher strike is described. Then the teacher is explored as a public intellectual. Then framing theory is discussed as well as the methodology, discussion of finding, and implications.

Teacher Unions

Teacher unions have an immense amount of power and influence in the United States through broad collective bargaining activities that work to affect every aspect of school. Teacher unions also have a broad influence through political activities (Moe, 2001). Unions push incremental reforms and often fear short term market oriented attacks on teacher unions and public education (Poole, 2001). Unions play out in a context where teachers, administrators, and other stakeholders hold varying degrees of trust for each other and their programs (Currall, 1992). Unions can be considered a major barrier to the dismissal of an incompetent teacher because firing

a teacher is a long process (Painter, 2000). Because of their day to day power of operations, however, superintendents of schools cause more damage to the rank and file of teachers than what the teacher union can do to the superintendent (Currall, 1992).

No one national union exists in the United States like in other countries (Johnson et al., 2007). In the past there were only a few major unions and some of them were more centered on other stakeholders such as administrators. In many states, teachers were not allowed to strike. The advent of collective bargaining laws in the 1960s and 1970s made it possible for teacher unions to grow. Some unions could amass huge amounts of power because they were made the only union recognized as representing teachers in a district. Many unions are affiliated to a few major unions recognized nationally like the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). Teacher unions differ from public sector unions. They focus entirely on the teacher and not everything else in education. Unions are often against merit pay because homogeneity in the teacher ranks makes everyone an equal. The way they promote standardization sets the stage for a defacto lobbying for national laws. Unions get into political causes outside of education because of power they get through networking with other groups. Employees doing collective bargaining create a lack of competition (Moe, 2001). Teacher unions and their members can be caught up in paradoxical issues. Balancing long term and short term interests such as professional development, economic welfare, quality of education, and social justice issues can lead to conflicts (Poole, 2000). Teacher unions promote fewer and larger school districts in order to maintain power (Kenny & Schmidt, 1994). Teacher unions across the world arguably have helped the government maintain its power (Govender, 2004). Mexico and Argentina are decentralizing education unions. Unions cooperate by making concessions to keep power and help the national economy (Murillo, 1999).

Unions around the world face unique issues including their demographics. Women have had a growing influence on unions. Identity issues and bias make women unionize (Bascia, 1998). Issues such as disease can affect teacher union gender ratios especially in places like Africa (Govender, 2004). Florida union presidents are leading two main generations of teachers. One generation is the new people who may see no future in education or are not concerned about retirement. These new teachers maybe out of the profession in 3 to 5 years. The other generation of teachers is older veterans who are in the school system for the long term and have incentives like pensions to protect (Johnson et al., 2007). What usually makes a teacher join a union is a critical incident, a family history with unions, a personal sense of entitlement or empowerment, or a history of leadership activities. There is a lot of formal and informal learning in unions through conferences, workshops, and a socialization process that sets up the norms that governs a teacher's day, gives them respect, legitimacy, expectations, and a desire to take on issues. Unions contribute discourses of teaching. Unions concern themselves with matters beyond their district (Bascia, 2001). Many unions in Florida used professional development program based on the AFT (Johnson et al., 2007). Committee groups in unions can have different expertise within the unions (Bascia, 2001). Unions have subcommittees to help in the bargaining process for example (Johnson et al., 2007).

Chicago Teacher's Strike

The Chicago teacher's strike was the first teachers strike in Chicago in 25 years. It started in mid-September 2012 and lasted about seven days. It was a highly watched event in Chicago and nationally and caused a national discussion about how teachers are treated. Various issues caused the strike including several years of salary cuts and animosity amongst the negotiating parties. Chicago Public Schools, the Mayor of Chicago Rahm Emanuel, and various stakeholders

including charter school promoters were hoping to get teachers to sign up for a contract that would have substantially put their jobs and salaries on a merit system based on evaluations substantially tied to standardized test scores. The Chicago Teachers Union (CTU) was able to keep lane and step salaries in check meaning that teachers could expect raises based on the level of their degrees and their seniority in the school system. CTU was also able to keep the merit system as a small part of salary and teacher evaluation. The CTU was not able to get the salary increases it wanted, but over the course of several years teachers could expect a substantial increase in salary under the new contract. Teachers were also allowed to use their own lesson plans and not be obligated to use a strict lesson plan format used by the system. The contract would mean that several low performing schools would be shut down and students bused elsewhere (Rossi et al., 2012; Spielman, 2012).

Teachers as Public Intellectuals

Educators have to be politically savvy in debates with other educational stakeholders outside the classroom to have political victories (Itkonen, 2009). This is important today as teachers find themselves increasingly attacked by conservative forces (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991). Language can help support hegemonic structures that hinder democracy and it is up to public intellectuals to help the masses resist it (Gramsci, Hoare, & Nowell-Smith, 1971). Intellectuals, for example, have exposed how narratives in the press can help manufacture consent (Herman & Chomsky, 2002). The teacher can also maintain power relations through curriculum and pedagogy with languages and codes that oppress students (Freire, 1970). Teachers can fight power with language and discourse in the classroom and outside the classroom to help liberate students (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991). Power is manifested in the elements of discourses. Through their expression, they display power relations (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). Education stakeholders face many real and manufactured crises in speaking truth to power (Berliner & Biddle, 1995).

Framing Theory

Framing refers to the process through which people develop a certain conceptualization about an idea or reorient their thinking as it pertains to an issue (Chong & Druckman, 2007). Framing theory explains that an issue can be viewed from more than one perspective based on its presentation, thus multiple inferences can be drawn from a single issue. Many definitions of framing exist (Kohring & Matthes, 2008), but Entman (1993) provides one that is more widely accepted "to frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating context, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described" (p. 52). There is a lot of data and information in an event. A frame takes out information and lets some information in so that a story could be told and made understandable (Armoudian, 2012). Armoudian (2012) argues that in order to tell a story a frame uses some information and eliminates other information. This study uses the perspective that the Chicago teacher's strike was framed in the media and something could be learned from the data left in and out in order to tell the story through the frame.

Method

This qualitative study uses content analysis of several online and print newspaper and news media articles in order to explore how the Chicago teacher's strike was framed. Content analysis is any "technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages" (Holsti, 1969, p. 14). Content analysis was used because it is a

practical way of sifting through a lot of data to examine trends and patterns in the documents. It is also a commonly accepted way of exploring texts in the media that may shape public opinion.

Sample

This study focused on major print and online newspapers, online news blogs, and online news sites that addressed the strike in articles in the immediate aftermath of the conclusion of the strike. The end of the strike was chosen because that was the point national attention would shift away from the strike and the framing of the end of the strike would have long lasting power. Major newspapers, blogs, and sites meant media sources that served large metropolitan areas or were known nationally, thus having an impact on other major public school districts. Over 40 of these sites were explored. The newspapers and sites explored included the Chicago Sun Times, The Miami Herald, The Washington Post, The Daily Nexus, The New York Times, The Huffington Post, The Wall Street Journal, The Associated Press, Foxnews.com, CNN.com, and The Sacramento Bee. Newscasts, Tweets, and other sources of media were not explored because their work is already highly influenced by the work of the major sources explored in this study. Many local papers in fact reprinted articles from the Associated Press and many local stations cited larger newspapers, for example. The sources used in the study also had to have printed text of the story (as opposed to audio or video only). This was also done in order to keep the scope of the study to a manageable area.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected by using several search engines including Yahoo, Bing, and Google to look for news articles. The search terms used were Chicago teacher's strike, strike ends, and resolution. Only articles written during the end of the strike and a two week aftermath were used. Online articles were cut and pasted in a Microsoft word document or printed into a hard copy or printed out from the computer when print versions were not available. All articles were read and note taking and coding was used to isolate headline and subheadings in the texts. The data from the headlines and subheadings was analyzed for themes using note taking in order to answer the first research question: How was the end of the Chicago teachers strike framed into larger themes through the headlines of the texts used by major media sources reporting on the strike? Five main themes developed.

The second research question was: What can be theorized about the purposes of these frames by looking at what information is imparted or hidden by these frames? In order to answer this question, the articles with headlines that fit each of the five themes that developed was analyzed thematically to see what was enforced by the headlines and what was rendered invisible. The themes developed by comparing the articles to the headlines and the five main themes of frames were used to theorize an answer to the second research question.

The third research question was: How can teachers as public intellectuals react to these frames? In order to answer this question, the researcher used note taking and theorized ways to counter these frames using the data available in the articles that revealed what was being obscured by the frame.

Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study are presented in accordance to the three research questions. Five main themes were developed: the individual, winners and losers, children return to school, what now?, and it could happen here. Each theme is briefly described and a few examples show what is happening.

Research Question 1

The question asked, How was the end of the Chicago teachers strike framed into larger themes through the headlines of the texts used by major media sources reporting on the strike?

The individual. This theme reduced the story of the strike into a focus on one individual or a personification of the event into the form of one individual. Rahm Emanuel as the main political figure fighting the strike, for example, was mentioned in many headlines. *The Chicago Sun Times*, for example, declared that Rahm Emanuel is both the winners and losers of the strike (Spielman, 2012). Another way the importance of the individual was magnified over the event or masses of people in the event was to have the individual make pronouncements about the issue. In the headline of another *Chicago Sun Times* article, for example, Emanuel judges that the deal is an honest compromise with no mention of the union, schools, or even what the deal is all about (Rossi et al., 2012). The individual was also emphasized by another individual proxy and by making the opposition an anonymous group. In *The Chicago Tribune,* Stone (2012) mentions Emanuel's (the individual) adviser Bruce Rauner (the individual proxy) fighting the Chicago Teachers Union leadership (the anonymous group).

Winners and losers. This theme reduced a negotiation process and important event into a contest where there is absolute victory and absolute defeat and nothing in between. The *Washington Post,* for example, had a headline that asked who won the strike (Strauss, 2012) while the aforementioned *Chicago Sun Times* had put Rahm Emanuel in both camps (Spielman, 2012).

Children return to school theme. This theme focused on the students returning to class, including how it affects them as human beings and how very little is actually discussed about the event that created their absence from school. In the *Chicago Sun Times,* for example, we are told that students will be able to make up for lost school days (Rossi, 2012).

What now. This is a theme that acknowledges the end of the strike but makes the future and the consequences seem mysterious and uncertain. *The Huffington Post,* for example, had the headline: "Chicago Teachers Strike Implications? After Strike's End, Questions Remain" (Webber & Tareen, 2012).

It could happen here. This theme was a way to tie what was happening in Chicago to what is happening in the local community a media source targets. In the *Miami Herald,* for example, the head of the local teacher's union offered lessons from strike to the community of Miami Dade county (Aronowitz, 2012). A headline from *Quad Cities Online* offers an explanation about why the end of the strike mattered downstate from Chicago (Reeder, 2012). Another reporter declared in another headline that Chicago issues are local issues (Hobbs, 2012).

Research Question 2

The questions asked, What can be theorized about the purposes of these frames by looking at what information is imparted or hidden by these headlines?

The individual. This theme refers to the idea that the individual stands out in comparison to a group. This made the teachers union invisible. Putting Rahm Emanuel as the main political figure fighting the strike, for example, was mentioned in many headlines, making the story a personal issue and making the story national because he is well known, and also linking him to the White House because he was previously a cabinet member allowing for a larger discussion to be had about education and union reform.

Winners and losers. This theme reduced a negotiation process and important event into a contest where there is absolute victory and absolute defeat and nothing in between. A compromise is the best solution in a negotiation and in a compromise all parties give up something to gain something. The purpose of this was to render the event a competitive almost militaristic battle and not an incremental move toward education reform.

Children return to school. The purpose of this frame was to appeal to families of children and to in a sense paint them as victims of a strike. While an argument could be made that the strike would improve conditions for them at school in the long run, the frame makes it look like they are being hurt in the short term.

What now theme. This is a theme that acknowledges the end of the strike but makes the future and the consequences seem mysterious and uncertain. This is a needless mystification of the political process because in a negotiation and a contract everything is made clear and all arguments are made. Any one closely following the strike understands what could happen before a deal is even made.

It could happen here. The purpose of this theme frame is to scare people in their local communities into avoiding what happened in Chicago. It makes a strike and a negotiation seem like something to avoid when it is just a tool in the political process. It also makes the strike seem like a quagmire when it could be argued that in some communities a strike might be the best way to get reform. In many communities, teachers cannot strike. Also many industries with few strikes are industries where unionization has been stifled, so in a sense this theme brings out a fear of unionization to readers.

Research Question 3

This question asked, How can teachers as public intellectuals react to these frames?

The individual. One approach is to counter an individual frame with the making of another individual frame. A Rahm Emanuel can be countered by the individual union leader. The problem is that the individuals do not get equal attention or have equal power. While the union leader may be a local celebrity, the mayor is a national figure, for example. Creating a villain is another approach as a straw man to deal with. What public intellectuals have to do is challenge these individual figure public while also showing the importance of collective action. Union members have to become faces people know and not an anonymous crowd.

Winners and losers. Public intellectuals have to assert what bargaining is and how compromise is about fairness. They also have to show that teaching is a constant struggle and does not end or begin with the signing of a contract.

Children return to school. This theme focused on the students returning to class as human beings victimized by being absent from school. What public intellectuals have to do is describe how the students' school environment is improved by the strike and how the students were victimized by the staus quo of the environment before the strike. This may mean explaining what a teacher being treated fairly by the district as a professional does for the teacher as a role model and leader of students and how that manifests itself in teaching and as a life lesson.

What now. Public intellectuals should make everyone aware of all the implications of a strike. They should highlight what changes and what does not.

It could happen here. The public intellectual has to highlight what changes and stays the same about the struggle in the context of the local community. Importantly, teachers need to demonstrate why a union exists and how circumstances would be different without one for students and parents. Many people were not around when injustices were done to teachers by district leaders and administrators that spurred the need for teachers to unite in a union and protect themselves. For example, many people are not aware of teachers in the past who fought racist bosses for desegregated classrooms and the struggles they deal with today.

Implications

Herman and Chomsky (2002) argue that the stories the press make into public spectacles feed narratives that distract people from larger structural issues. Arguably, the themes revealed in

this study that seem to promote fear, competition, and individualization may play into the larger structural issues promoted by neoliberalism. Headlines are important because they grab attention and commonly frame the content of read and unread stories. The focus of this study was primarily on the strike aftermath and certain resources. Future studies should look at frame development over a larger stretch of time and through various mediums and its impact on other strikes. More in depth research is needed which includes qualitative and quantitative data from participants.

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Using LatCrit, Autoethnography, and Counterstory to Teach About and Resist Latina/o Nihilism

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Abstract: Nihilism caused by inequalities and injustices hurts students of color. Educators can help these students with Critical Race theory and storytelling. Latina/o students also face nihilism but there is no clear solution. This study explores a way to use LatCrit in the K-12 classroom to fight for justice and equality.

Race is a major problem in America's schools. African American students find themselves in inferior schools. Students of color find that images and stories that represent them are not in the texts they use in school (Smiley, 2011). West (2009) argues that race matters in America; students of color can develop a sense of nihilism that is tragic when structural forces deny their value, and fighting this nihilism is also central to the democratic process (West, 2011).

Public schools unfortunately can be coercive and controlling to the point of stifling critical thinkers (Chomsky, 2000). Critical Race theory (CRT) seeks to explore how students can give voice to their experiences and stories in a culture that oppresses them (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Concerned educators have begun to use the story telling in CRT to critique the racial inequalities of the educational system (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Role models including teachers especially those of color are important for helping students of color become more positive and strive toward success (Smiley, 2011). Caring, hopeful teachers help students better themselves, see a better future, and reach their goals through education (Van Manen, 1990).

The struggle to fight nihilism goes beyond color and affects other oppressed people who need to become part of our democracy (West, 2011). Latina/o students also face an educational system where images and stories about themselves do not appear in school texts (De Varona, 1996). Education can help Latina/os turn the straw of the everyday challenges of facing inequality into the gold of a better future (Cisneros, 1987). Role models such as educators especially Latina/o educators can be critical to the success of Latina\o students (De Varona, 1996). Latina\o Critical Theory (LatCrit) also offers a form of resistance to Latina/o students who do not all fit into the racial categorizations in CRT. LatCrit uses testimonios as a form of counterstory to resist injustices (Solorzano & Bernal, 2001). However, Latina/o educators (De Varona, 1996) who seek to fight nihilism in their K-12 classrooms have few resources and few examples of how LatCrit stories can be created and used specifically by K-12 educators to help students resist nihilism and succeed in the K-12 educational system.

The purpose of this study is to outline a specific way in which a Latina\o educator can create a counterstory to resist nihilism based on their own experiences through autoethnography and use it in the classroom to help Latina\o students find their voice. This study seeks to answer the main question: How can Latina/o educators use LatCrit to create counter stories specifically in the K-12 classroom to resist nihilism? These secondary questions will be used to answer the main question: How can autoethnography be used by a Latina\o Educator to create a counterstory? How can a Latina\o teacher's counterstory be used as a resource in the classroom? This study is important to educators and researchers because Latina\os are a growing population in the United States and their education is important to the future. Knowing how to use LatCrit

in the classroom is important to theorists because the various critical theories intersect within the diversity of cultures, issues, identities, and demographics that are within a classroom. This study begins with an exploration of nihilism, democracy, and CRT. Then Latina/o issues, LatCrit theory, and LatCrit tools including testimonios and counterstories are explored. Then the methods and findings of a study are discussed.

Nihilism and Democracy

Nihilism is a resigned hopelessness based in part on frustration over the persistence of racism even after the end of slavery and the passing of Brown vs. Board of Education (West, 1993). West (2004) argues that this nihilism has mutilated democracy and is fostered by three nihilistic dogmas. First, market-fundamentalism is the corporate-dominated political and economic system and its effects on popular culture such as materialism, consumerism, and the worship of wealth and greed. Aggressive militarism is another dogma that promotes imperial motives and war mongering. The dogma of escalating authoritarianism is the loss of our freedoms. Nihilism can be fought by strengthening and deepening democracy with four traditions. First is the reemergence of a Socratic questioning of ourselves, the nature of authority, and dogma. The second is a prophetic pursuit of justice in the tradition of the major religions. The third is a tragicomic hope, which is the ability to laugh and enjoy life and not succumb to nihilism because you sense that a better time is coming. A fourth tradition is called American imaginative self creation where one reinvents oneself through reflection to survive and succeed (West, 2004). Mott (2008) argues for the necessity of students to do personal writing to tackle the big issues in America and uses West's ideas to do so. CRT is one way of using personal writing to counter nihilism and promote democracy.

Critical Race Theory

CRT grew out of a social science critique of the law and civil rights legislation that argued that while classical racism was outlawed, racism in more mundane forms continued in the law and in society that supported a White majority and their ideology, culture, and epistemology (Parker, 2004). Solórzano and Yosso (2002) developed critical race methodology in terms of its utility as an analytical framework to ask research questions, review literature, analyze data, and form conclusions and recommendations. Tenets of a CRT methodology have emerged: Placing race and its intersectionality with other forms of subordination at the center of research, using race in research to challenge the dominant scientific norms of objectivity and neutrality, having the research connected with social justice concerns and potential praxis with ongoing efforts in communities, making experiential knowledge central to the study, and linking this knowledge to other critical research and interpretive perspectives on race and racism. The final tenets emphasize the importance of transdisciplinary perspectives that are based in other fields for enhancing an understanding of the effects of racism and other forms of discrimination on persons of color (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002).

CRT has evolved from its early focus on African Americans and the impact of the law on Black-White European American relations to examining how issues related to the law and immigration, national origin, language, globalization, and colonization relate to race. This line of critique formed the LatCrit and critical Asian American legal studies movement that called for a type of CRT specific to these groups of color. For example, LatCrit has drawn similarities with CRT regarding racism within U.S. law. Yet the LatCrit movement sees itself grounded more in documenting through narrative storytelling how other aspects of race, ethnicity, language, and national origin converge to make it so that Latina/os are seen as the other within the U.S. racial context (Iglesias, 1999). Asian American CRT uses the power of narrative voice to inform the

law regarding the Asian American experience. For example, Chon (1995) and Chartier (2001) stress the importance of narrative and storytelling in critically exploring the use of language and discourses that make Asians honorary Whites whose fears can be played against other groups of color. These groups can also have the law used against them (Parker, 2004). CRT and LatCrit are closely related and can be used in the classroom through the use of storytelling. Revilla (2001) used a fictional dialogue between a professor and a student to discuss problems with education. In order to explore LatCrit, some understanding of Latina/o issues is important.

Latina\o Issues

West (2004) argues that nihilism occurs in Black students when years after Brown v. The Board of Education very little has changed in schools and society in terms of certain forms of discrimination. Lopez (1998) argues that just as important as Brown v. Board of Education is for Black students is the case Hernandez v. Texas for Hispanics and Latina\os in America. The facts of this case may be as marginalized as much as Latina\o education is. In 1954, the Supreme Court in Hernandez v. Texas decided that the equal protection clause of the fourteenth amendment applied to Mexicans (and in turn Hispanics, Latina\os, and other groups) because they were discriminated against. The verdict was not based on color or race but on being a class distinguishable on some basis and different from a community norm as measured by the attitude of the community (Lopez, 1998). If discrimination exists for Latina\os in education after these landmark cases, conditions exist for Latino nihilism. Students continue to be educated to accept ideologies that serve the needs of the dominant class (Chomsky, 2000). Recent education reform has not changed Latina\o conditions. LatCrit and CRT research has been used, for example, to explore how Latina\os students continue to be marginalized in the Chicago public school system in recent years (Davila & de Bradley, 2010).

The Latina/o population has a high growth rate: Close to a million Latina\os are added to the population, and more than two thirds of them are due to birth and the remainder is due to immigration (Nunez, 1999). Latina\os are expected to be at least 24% of the entire national population by 2050. In the field of education, dominant ideologies of meritocracy, individualism and color-blindness can mask the complex struggles of students of color and the systems of oppression that create the conditions for those struggles (Nunez, 1999). In academia, ideological beliefs maintain White superiority rooted in Western epistemologies that produce knowledges that are deemed legitimate. Other epistemologies are slowly made illegitimate by comparison. An apartheid of legitimate and illegitimate knowledges keeps students of color subordinated and maintains racial, ethnic, and other divisions (Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002). The years of biased knowledge production have several consequences: An institutional Anglo-Saxonism develops and moves beyond democratic institutions to racial Anglo-Saxonism where some Whites see themselves as superior to Latina\o people. In the minds of many there was a linking of Mexicans and other Latina/os together in one group that works in a way to neutralize their individuality and voice. The Mexicanization of Latina\os is also a downgrading of Mexicans in particular and of Hispanics in general because much of the anti-Mexican fervor is based on stereotypes in general. There is also a linking of Spanish ancestry to the historical enemy of Britain Spain making all Hispanics villains by proxy and Britain as a historic homeland of Whites in America. This belief system also holds that the Latina\o miscegenation with Indian people in the past and the racial mixing caused by the moor invasion or attitudes about slaves validates the distortions created by past sciences of race and identity. The Anglo-Saxon norm is part of institutionalizing racism and other prejudices as tests and other assessments, activities, languages, and processes are based on an Anglo-Saxon norm bolstered by White privilege that

works against minority students. Cultural, intellectual, environmental, genetic, and social deficit theories are promoted by scientists to explain Latina\o conditions (Nunez, 1999). Ironically many Latina/o immigrant students may have too much knowledge or conflicting knowledge because they not only mastered the work in their home country but are now asked to master the same knowledge through a White biased point of view (Zuniga & Hamann, 2009). American White culture paints the Mexican national character as deficient, too full of machismo, and too full of a family cohesion that works against the White patriarchal norm. The Mexican character becomes a proxy for all Hispanics (Nunez, 1999). After years of marginal visibility and relative docility, Latina/os now are made the scapegoats of Anglo choice as Anglo-American society is racked by failures. Recent assaults on Latina/os are mounted as part of the larger civil rights rollback and serve to suppress Latina/o growth as well as to consolidate Anglo power and White privilege more generally. Immigration for Hispanics is defined and feared in the way affirmative action for Blacks is. The political issues are part of a larger minority majoritarian struggle that occurs in the intersection of culture, identities, and nationalities in the space the various critical theories try to explore. Backlash politics and nativistic policies echoes the malevolent motives that produced the racist and ethnocentric architecture of Anglo American legal education and law practice earlier this century (Valdes, 1997). In the middle of this are the K-12 students who are taught biased, marginalized images of Hispanics and lack the resources, models, and literacies in being Latina\o to counteract the biased messages sent to them (De Varona, 1996).

LatCrit Theory

LatCrit theory emerges from CRT in the sense that Latina/o issues are in the intersection of various issues people face. LatCrit addresses four concepts: opposition, justice, structuralism, and particularity. LatCrit theory explores the Latina\os historical engagement in constant opposition and seeking justice as an honorable, an inevitable tradition now set up to understand and change a U.S. socio-legal system that presents a disabling environment for Latina/os social development via new nativism and racism. LatCrit theory's social structural critique explores how long term interests have shaped the Latina/o world. LatCrit's preference for particularity or perspectivism over universalism is useful for social development because it highlights individual and group experiences that are often masked by universal notions that are not objective and that make Latino communities into monoliths (Carrasco, 1997). LatCrit's four functions are to promote knowledge production, a practical advancement of transformation leading to praxis, an expansion and connection of struggles so that elevation of the Latina\o condition in the United States also elevates the Latina\o condition everywhere, and finally the cultivation of communities and coalitions of scholars and activists so that they can share and collaborate. These functions require LatCrit resistance of essentialist assumptions (Valdes, 1997).

LatCrit Tools

LatCrit tools include testimonio, cultural intuition, autoethnography, and counterstory. While testimonio and cultural intuition are more particular to LatCrit and autoethnography and counterstory intersect with other theories, the idea here is that tools should intersect different boundaries of identity, geographies, and culture. This is necessary because the Latina\o educator teach a diverse population of students and not just Latina/os. This allows non Latinos to also tell their stories and teach in classroom. While other tools are available, this list is not meant to be exhaustive put practical. Understanding these tools makes it easier to understand how and why they are combined for the framework, methods, and pedagogy of a study to be discussed later in this paper.

Testimonio

Testimonio is "a verbal journey of a witness who speaks to reveal the racial, classed, gendered, and nativist injustices they have suffered as a means of healing, empowerment, and advocacy for a more humane present and future" (Huber, 2009, p. 644). In LatCrit, a person can use cultural intuition to create testimonio.

Cultural Intuition

There are four sources of cultural intuition researchers draw upon during the research process – personal, academic, professional, and the analytic process itself. Personal experience includes the researchers' background and personal history, which shape the ways they understand, interpret, and make sense of events, circumstance, and data during the research process. Academic experiences inform how they make sense of related literature on their research topic. Professional experiences provide them with significant insight into the research process. The final source of cultural intuition lies in research experiences (Delgado Bernal, 1998).

Autoethnography

Autoethnography is a reflective and reflexive process of telling, performing, constructing, analyzing, representing, and rigorously studying one's own stories for what they offer others (Fine, 1994). Autoethnography challenges our assumptions of normalcy, instructs us about forms of socialization, explores our participation in school socialization, and in turn, teaches one about the self. Second, it may teach one to write to practice and share emotions with audiences and to improve the craft for its own sake. Third, autoethnography may also teach one to inculcate and model by exploring self-critical attitudes, offering self-disclosure in teaching and learning, and checking inequity and oppression in our classrooms (Denzin, 2003). Adams-Wiggan (2010) used autoethnography and counterstory in researching the experiences of Black professional women (Adams-Wiggan, 2010). Collective autoethnography allows a group of researchers to analyze and interpret each other's work while creating a space for class members to respond to that work. Participants write individual narratives based on critical moments that allows for responses to each other (Lapadat, 2009).

Counterstory

Counterstorytelling is both a technique of telling the story of often untold experiences and a tool for analyzing and challenging the stories of those in power that is often a natural part of the dominant discourse (Delgado, 1989). Counterstory has been used in CRT and LatCrit (Solorzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). A fictional counterstory can be powerful because it tells a truth that can be tragic and sometimes comic. Derrick Bell's (1992) fictitious "Space Traders" story, for example, dealt with the idea of Blacks in America being traded away by political leaders to aliens offering a truth of how Blacks were valued politically. Delgado (1989) created the Rodrigo chronicles as a counterstory on Latino issues. Counterstorytelling was used to examine student resistance in the 1968 East Los Angeles school walkouts and the 1993 UCLA student strike. Interviews were done with participants in the events and then a counterstory that briefly listens in on a dialogue between two data-driven composite characters was created to illuminate the concepts of internal and external transformational resistance (Solorzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). Counterstories can build empathic communities among those at society's margins by putting a human face to educational theory and practice; challenging conventional wisdom from society's center; revealing opportunities; using stories and reality to create a better world, and providing a space for challenging established belief systems (Delgado, 1989).

Method

This study used content analysis. Content analysis is any "technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages" (Holsti, 1969, p. 14). The researcher created and sampled his own work and experiences to create data for his cultural intuition, testimonio, autoethnography, and counterstory. Data collection was done through notetaking. For a month, the research kept a journal where daily ethnographic sketches were made related to Latina/o issues and nihilism. At the month's end, the journal of ethnographies were categorized by the thematic categories of cultural intuition. In cultural intuition, the thematic categories are personal experiences, professional experiences, academic experiences, and research experiences. Because the methods are part of answering the research questions, the analysis is further explained with examples in the results and findings section of this study.

Findings

This is an excerpt from my autoethnography related to my professional experiences: "The conquistadors are big part of the curriculum I am asked to teach and then there are huge gaps in the appearance of Hispanics…". Within each cultural intuition thematic category, the data was analyzed for larger themes. This was used to create a testimonio as I expanded on themes with a fervor for justice. This is an excerpt from my testimonio related to the autoethnography excerpt: "Latina\os are not considered equal in the present if they are rendered invisible from history…".

How can autoethnography be used by a Latino Educator to create a counterstory?

The content from the testimonio was analyzed to create a counterstory. The process used was to look at a point in my testimonio and then make the opposite point in my couterstory in a satirical way. For example, if I testified that most national holidays were not Hispanic, my counterstory would have a Hispanic national holiday. The following is an excerpt from my counterstory: "The school was empty for the Cesar Chavez national holiday. I had spent the night worrying that my White Anglo students' lack of bilingualism was hurting them on the SAT. Anglos don't get how we improved the English language with Spanish masculine and feminine word forms. Everyday I say: A male teacher is a teachero. A female teacher is a teachera…".

How can a Latino teacher's counterstory be used as a resource in the classroom?

The researcher then used analysis of his counterstory and how it was made to brainstorm ways in which the data could be used for teaching. My pedagogy consists of having students do what I did at a much smaller scale after I had role modeled it in the classroom and follow that with a discussion. The only change would be a brief discussion of other forms of discrimination and critical theories because Latina\o educators do not just teach Latina\o students. Tools like testimonio must adapt to fit those changes. Using satire creates fun which promotes engagement.

How can Latina/o educators use LatCrit to create counter stories specifically in the k-12 classroom to resist nihilism?

Data used to answer the secondary question can be used to answer the main question via brainstorming. Teachers can discus nihilism, have students respond with autoethnographies, and then use collaborative learning to have student groups create collective autoethnographies. The class can decide on a class testimonio document. Learning can be extended by having them fight nihilism through their counterstories that could be posted on a wall or electronically.

Conclusion

In sum, concrete action, reflection, recognition, democratic, and multicultural practice is promoted. This study challenges nihilism because students are forced to question their

experiences, pursue justice, express tragic comic hope, and reinvent themselves through counterstories and discussions. For this study, the presentation of my work had to be abbreviated. In class situations, students would have full access to all my writing to learn from. Future researchers may use this approach and pedagogy on specific issues or events.

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Development of a Game-Based Mathematics Curriculum for Preschool

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Abstract: America's deficiency in mathematics can be benefitted by an emphasis in mathematics from an early age. An effective math curriculum for preschool should consist of the most important aspects of early childhood mathematics, including number writing and identification, one-to-one correspondence, cardinality, number comparison, ordinality, number sequence, and number bonds.

Since Sputnik was launched into orbit in 1957, the United States commenced the Space Race and promoted a general emphasis on mathematics and science. This was, at least, very short-lived (Bybee, 2007). Some even argue that although many efforts are being made to reform education in the United States, there has been no substantial evidence that our students are learning more or that our society is any better (Bunting, 1999, p. 213). In other words, this reform has been deemed by some to be ineffective.

The Bush administration (2000-2008) has made an effort to address the call for educational reform by implementing the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). This has ultimately led to a system based upon prescribed teaching to meet the expectations of high stakes testing (Guisbond & Neill, 2004). The "narrow scope" of the standardized tests was summarily imposed by this law. The strong sanctions attached to it induced teachers to participate in "teaching to the test," which is said to undermine reform efforts (Guisbond & Neill, 2004, p. 13). Moreover, scholars argue that the framework of NCLB has not done much to remedy the problems and challenges faced in American education in all areas, including mathematics.

Mathematics underachievement in American education has far-reaching effects that may adversely affect the national economy and subsequently society at large if no viable solution is sought. Research conducted by The National Research Council (2007) on this matter has noted that the state of America as an international competitor on a level economic and technological playing field is one of "quiet crisis" (p. 25), brought on directly by an insufficiency of achievement in the fields of mathematics and the sciences. The authors argue that education in America is full of problems that require a long-term commitment from educational policymakers. They believe that the issues in American education are slowly spiraling and should not remain unaddressed until the bubble bursts. In order to prevent this from happening, the public education system must lay the foundation for developing future workers who are literate in mathematics and science, as well as other subjects. Such an approach should be implemented immediately in order to deter the imminent effects of generations well into adulthood that have suffered through a deficient educational system.

Addressing this problem would help the United States maintain its competitive edge in technology and industry on an international scale. The authors of *Rising Above the Gathering Storm* write that for now, the United States is still the leading worldwide competitor in the performance of basic and applied research, but if the educational system in America continues to decay as it has until recently because of the problems in mathematics education, this may not be the case much longer, since many of our researchers are imported from other countries and other nations are emulating the American system of research to attract and develop their own scientific minds (National Research Council, 2007). This brings the competition to a new level, since the

United States will cease to be the only dominant innovator, and the playing field will become leveled. If this becomes the case, and there are already visible signs of this occurring, America may actually be at a disadvantage, since it lacks the educational infrastructure to foster the types of mathematical and scientific thinking in its own constituents to overcome the gap of the expanding field.

To address these needs, it is important to start from an early age. As with many educational issues, early intervention is the key to success, and produces results with more long-term impacts, as can be seen in the example of the Head Start program (Deming, 2009). Young children are capable of learning substantial mathematics, but too many of them begin from a disadvantaged point and progress in the wrong direction in this discipline (Clements & Sarama, 2011). Interventions in mathematics education for children aged 3 to 5 have a strong positive effect not only in their immediate context, but many years later (Clements & Sarama, 2011). For this reason, preschool is deemed an adequate age to intervene and implement such a curriculum that could give disadvantaged students a key lead in their education.

Mathematics has long been considered a towering educational obstacle, before which many students crumble in fear and despair. This may be due to an inadequate foundational structure in mathematics from an early age, which in turn affects student motivation with respect to the subject. In a Belgian study, characteristics of the learning environment, such as the extent to which the teacher motivates students to learn mathematics, were positively correlated with student enjoyment of mathematics (Vandecandelaere, Speybroeck, Vanlaar, De Fraine, & Van Damme, 2012). Another study found a positive correlation between mathematics attitude, academic motivation, and mathematics achievement (Moenikia & Zahed-Babelan, 2010). Games can provide students with motivation and arm them with a positive disposition toward mathematics, which can help increase their academic achievement in this subject area.

Purpose

Given this, the purpose of this research is to suggest the development of a game-based mathematics curriculum for preschool that will effectively move children from a counting principle to a number principle, as based on research by Chi, Slotta, and de Leeuw (1994). A counting principle limits children to very concrete mathematical experiences based on sets they can see, and often inaccurate representations of numerical magnitudes. On the other hand, when children move towards a number principle, they carry out more abstract functions with numbers because they have an internalized notion of numbers and their meanings. It becomes possible for them to reason about numbers and more readily perform more elaborate calculations with them. Overall, it helps them to lay a great foundation in mathematics that they can carry with them throughout the rest of their education.

The development of game-based preschool mathematics curriculum on the basis of one-on-one interventions is proposed. Such a curriculum should focus on ways to reach not only regular preschool students, but also those who are at risk for low performing because of the achievement gap and the gender gap associated with mathematics. It must develop their number sense and other important early math attributes. It is expected that the students who participate in such a program would not only benefit from it academically, but will also develop a love of learning in the area of mathematics, as well as an acute awareness of mathematical concepts in their immediate environment.

Significance

The significance of this study is multifold. The implementation of an effective game-based preschool mathematics curriculum could have a large impact on student motivation and

acceptance toward learning mathematics. It also serves to lay a strong foundation in mathematics, which will serve as a scaffold for further learning in this area. This should be a goal of any education in early childhood. Early intervention has been found to have positive effects on children at an international level (Nores & Barnett, 2010), which means that this is an intrinsically human feature, not tied to any particular race of culture. Since this curriculum is designed for young children, it maintains the same properties of early intervention studies, which tend to have a greater positive effect than interventions performed at an older age.

Targeting students from a low socioeconomic background would have implications for helping to bridge the achievement gap (Tucker-Drob, 2012), which is one of the aims of legislations such as the NCLB. If the proposed curriculum is successfully implemented, it can help raise the standards of American education in general because it would help the lowest achievers to become better-achieving.

The implications of the implementation of a curriculum like this should be widespread. It is important for this problem to be addressed as soon as possible, since the long-term societal effects of these interventions tend to be cascading and do not show positive effects, except for the immediate classroom ones, until years later.

<div align="center">**Framework for the Curriculum**</div>

The proposed game-based preschool math curriculum is designed to be both age-appropriate and teacher-friendly, which is more likely to ensure its implementation. Support for game-based mathematics curricula can be found in numerous studies. The topic has been trending in the past decade. Games as simple and Chutes and Ladders have an enormous impact on the way young children comprehend mathematical concepts (Cavanaugh, 2008). This is even more so when they play games designed to foster development of specific areas of mathematical understanding according their age and developmental stage.

An effective math curriculum for this age group must be fairly comprehensive, and should consist of the most important aspects of early childhood mathematics, including number writing and identification, one-to-one correspondence, cardinality, number comparison, ordinality, number sequence, and number bonds. These concepts are all interrelated and cannot easily be distinguished from each other, but together, they all make up the important conceptual and procedural framework for learning mathematics in the preschool age. They have been grouped into five cohesive categories that correspond to strands of standards from several different organizations, including the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), and the Florida School Readiness Performance Standards for 3 and 4 years old children. These five components and their importance are described in further detail as follows.

Number Writing and Identification

Number identification is one of the most crucial tasks that young children must learn to establish early numeracy. As a matter of fact, number identification is commonly found as a curriculum-based assessment measure of early numeracy, and there is a relatively high validity for this measure with respect to essential math skills, such as number sense (Lee, Lembke, Moore, Ginsburg & Pappas, 2012). Given this, number writing is considered an important aspect of early mathematics learning that helps children learn to identify the numbers. However, the task of number writing goes beyond simple number identification, but also influences their concept of number. A study by Zhou and Wang (2004) comparing Chinese and English children's early conceptualizations of number found that "children's ability to represent written number symbols closely relates to their cardinal concept" (p. 253). Number writing is one of the

most elementary tasks in any preschool curriculum, but its importance cannot be undermined. When it is assigned purposefully, it can be very beneficial to the development of young children's mathematical abilities.

One-to-One Correspondence, Cardinality, and Ordinality

One-to-one correspondence is an integral component of early mathematics education. As a principle, it states that one number-word corresponds to only one object. This principle was identified by Gelman and Gallistel in 1978 and, although it is in opposition to Piaget's theory early mathematics with respect to number conservation, the concept of one-to-one correspondence has been shown to be implicit in children's ability to learn to count, and has laid the foundation for preschool mathematics work since then (Sophian, 1988). This principle, in combination with some of the other ones mentioned, is a key for young children to learn to count and establish cardinality.

Cardinality is an extremely important concept that is critical to establish in the minds of young children. In fact, the first impression that comes to mind when thinking about young children's conception of numbers, counting, and early mathematics is tied to the concept of cardinality. Cardinality refers to the amount of items in a set. Although seemingly simple, this concept is actually quite complex in the minds of children aged three to five. It not only involves attaching the quantity to the last number-word corresponding to a given set, but also works together with one-to-one correspondence to ensure that the last number-word is representative of the actual amount represented (Bermejo, Morales & Garcia deOsuna, 2004). With time and practice, children can move through the set of stages described by Bermejo et al. (2004) to achieve an accurate conception of cardinality through counting.

Ordinality, as the name implies, refers to the "operational understanding and significance of ordering, the principle of a numerical reference to position" (Bruce & Threlfall, 2004, p. 7). Ordinality as a principle of early understanding of numbers does not limit itself to learning the ordinal number names. In fact, Piaget's work on ordinality supports the notion that children acquire an understanding of the ordinal aspect of number without knowledge of the ordinal names. However, other studies have shown that the use of ordinal names is great aid in helping children understand the concept of ordinality (Bruce & Threlfall, 2004). Ordinality plays an influential role in the development early concepts of number.

Number Comparison

Number comparison in early childhood math is important because it helps to establish an understanding of numerical magnitudes. Number comparison is the means by which children understand how big a number is in comparison to another. A solid understanding of numerical magnitudes may lead to improved performance on other numerical tasks (Sophian, 1988). Interestingly, number line comparison studies among kindergarteners have found that they tend to exaggerate differences among smaller numbers and compress differences among larger ones. This appears to be a developmental trait since they no longer tend to do this in second grade (Laski & Siegler, 2007). In order to aid in the proper development of this skill, it is essential to provide practice in appropriate activities to foster its advancement, since it is a skill that is important to the overall development of the concept of number.

Number Sequence

Number sequence is related to the concept of ordinality in the sense that it deals with the order of the number-words used, but not in a positional manner. Here, it refers most importantly to a type of mathematical skill often called "counting on." The skill of counting on is considered the best predictor of performance on other numerical tests and plays a key role in the

development of children's arithmetic performance (Johansson, 2005). Providing children practice with number sequence tasks is fundamental to the movement from a counting principle to a number principle.

Number Bonds

Number bonds refer to known combinations of numbers that occur frequently. This is part of what is more broadly termed "number sense." For example, when a child intuitively knows that two and two make four, this is a number bond that he/she has learned. Children can develop algorithms based around known number bonds to achieve understanding of different problems (Tall, 1978). Knowledge of number bonds comes from dealing with numbers and their bonds to develop a rule of thumb. This is a more advanced task that helps move children closer to a number principle because it is based on abstraction. Mastery of number bonds would signify making the shift towards a number principle.

<div align="center">

Conclusion

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The implementation of a preschool curriculum that includes all of these core aspects of early mathematics promises to produce great results and be very beneficial to American mathematical education overall. Since it would lay such an extensive foundation in mathematics, extending towards all the basic areas that make up the conception of number in young children, it would promise later success in mathematics education as well, hopefully producing a new generation of learners that do not suffer the hindrances of the current one and giving America a more competitive edge on a global scale.

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The Lived Experiences of African American Males in an Urban University Setting

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Abstract: The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore lived experiences of African American males who have advanced into higher education. The goal of the study was to identify reasons African American males attend college so higher education institutions can work toward increasing the number of African American males in higher education.

With the economic shift downwards, voluminous numbers of institutions of higher education have sustained unfortunate trends of declining enrollment. Amongst the degeneracy in student population, African American (AA) males attending colleges and universities have disproportionately low numbers (Frierson, Pearson & Wyche, 2009; Stoops, 2004). An aggregate of AA males attending and completing college is lagging behind males in other ethnic and cultural groups (Roach, 2001). According to Jackson (2003), total enrollment of AA males was 4.0% and 31.0% for white males. Because of the minute integers of AA males in higher education, it is critical to explore their experiences and rationalizations for attending colleges and universities.

African American males have an array of perceptions on higher education due to their lived experiences (Pouncil, 2009). Although some AA males have positive attitudes about attending colleges, other AA males experiencing mitigating circumstances that hinder progression (Laing & Robinson, 2003). Understanding their experiences and the notions of valuing higher education is vital in assisting colleges and universities in increasing the number of African American males matriculating in colleges and universities (Ballard & Cintrón, 2010; Frierson et al., 2009). By recognizing and discovering justifications for attending universities, educators have captious information to champion AA males' academic and professional endeavors in higher education. Colleges and universities will inevitably become supporting agents and attract an augmented number of AA males to their universities. Most importantly, AA males pursuing higher education have a discourse platform for sharing analogous and/or disparate experiences.

Research about African American males in higher education is a sparse topic (Jackson, 2003). Although there has been some research on AA college students in general, there is minimal information that perorates specifically about experiences of AA males at colleges and universities (Green, 2010). African American males' experiences in colleges and universities are not explicitly represented in literature reviews and studies in academia (Ballard & Cintrón, 2010). Because past studies have examined AA males' experiences in higher education through lenses of multifarious topics (i.e., sports, gender relations, racial comparisons and Historically Black Colleges and Universities), it is eminent to conspicuously concentrate on the experiences of AA males in higher education to identify some cardinal factors they enroll in colleges and universities. Two facets, the experiences of AA males in high school and AA males in higher education, presented in this literature review converges the connections that exist between the effects a high school preparation has on AA males' experiences in higher education.

African American Males in High Schools

Tucker, Dixon and Griddine (2010) disclosed family support was contributory to AA high school males' drive for success academically and professionally. Essentially, AA high school males needed the reinforcement from their families and the feeling of mattering that helped build a solid groundwork for self-efficacy and assurance. These AA high school males had intrinsic motivation that lucidly directed their drive for success. It is pertinent to establish an environment with mentors, educators and administrators to cultivate a didactic atmosphere that has aggrandized representation AA high males in gifted and talented academic programs. Unfortunately, many AA males remain overrepresented in special education classes (Irving & Hudley, 2008; Tucker et al., 2010). In many special education environments, AA males exhibit a positive relationship between oppositional cultural attitudes and cultural mistrust. There also appeared to be evidence of an inverse relationship with outcome expectations, outcome value, and academic achievement. Factors such as school failure, high dropout rates, low standardized test scores and low university enrollment were related directly to educational underachievement among African Americans.

As AA males' mistrust increases, their academic outcome expectations decrease. Doubt and oppositional cultural attitudes have direct correlations (Irving & Hudley, 2008). Students with oppositional cultural attitudes, high cultural mistrust, and depreciation for the value of educational outcomes have lower expectations for the benefits of their educational outcome (Irving & Hudley, 2008). Consequently, more and more AA males have lower achievement and are recommended for interventions.

Duckett (2009) explicated students were not exposed to academic information about their cultures. Essentially, there should be lessons to develop AA boys into men through responsibility. The exploration of culturally responsive activities for AA boys cultivates knowledgeable AA males who are ready to enroll in colleges and contend with the pressures of balancing their personal lives. Academic achievement appears to improve the opportunity to pursue higher education (Harper, 2009). Students who begin to prepare for higher-level courses in high school will become students who have better high school and university experiences. Comeaux (2010) examined strategies that help AA males prepare to enter colleges and universities. Ballard & Cintrón (2010) researched strategies AA males deemed effective and/or enhanced academic achievement in college.

African American Males and Higher Education

Dancy II (2010) revealed commonalities in AA males' spiritual beliefs that influenced pursuit of education and their inner drive toward to complete higher education. Findings also delineated a fervent foundation and dependency on God. AA males' religious beliefs increased their persistence toward completing higher education. Partnerships between churches and colleges could have a positive effect on the engagement and completion of higher education.

Campbell (2009) concluded parental influence, positive high school culture, college access, perceived returns on college investment, and peers influenced enrollment of AA males in higher education. Ballard & Cintrón (2010) highlighted AA doctoral students who attended majority White institutions had negative perceptions of the campus environment. Many AA males attributed their success in university to family, mentors, friends, faith, mentors and other AA students (Johnson, 2004; as cited by Ballard & Cintrón (2010). These researchers highlighted that AAs need to share their stories with society to help institutions create policies that increase the success of AA students.

Theoretical Framework

Understanding how AA males feel about their academic and personal experiences furnishes pertinent information needed to help educators develop an awareness of issues existing in the lives of these underrepresented population. It is essential for educators to implement ameliorated programs at the university level to attract students and to retain AA males at their schools.

Research Questions

The following research questions revealed the importance of understanding the lived experiences of African American males in higher education: (a) What are the most common reasons African American males identify for attending university? (b) What experiences impacted the decisions of African American males to enroll in a university setting? (c) What major influences (family, role models) contributed to their enrollment in university?

A phenomenological qualitative research was chosen for this study. According to Creswell (2008), phenomenological qualitative research allows for systemic exploration of some portion of human experience. This study is designed to discover common, emergent themes presented by those interviewed (Donalek & Soldwisch, 2004).

Population and Sample

The university on the south side of Chicago, Illinois was chosen to conduct the study. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2010), 85% of the enrollment listed for this campus was AA. The university is a fully accredited, public, commuter and residential institution committed to meeting the needs of urban community. This university offers programs of study designed to meet an array of academic and professional needs for undergraduate and graduate candidates. Although this university is not recognized as a Historically Black College and University (HBCU), the majority of the student population is AA. Although the university is considered a Predominately Black University (PBU), only 29% of the AA student population is male.

A sample of 18 AA men enrolled at this university participated in the study. This study was conducted at a university. Interviews were administered on campus in the university library. AA males interviewed were full-time undergraduates and at least 19 years old within the first two years of college. In addition, participants were identified from the database in the aforementioned AAMRC at the university. The data was collected from responses to questions on the open-ended survey.

Interview Questions

The interview questions were developed as the researcher explored and examined reasons, factors, themes and/or individuals that encouraged and impacted participants to continue in higher education (Davis, 2008). Acknowledgment of this information gave insight into changes and/or innovations needed in the educational system to encourage more AA males to enroll in college. The list outlines questions asked to each participant.

Data Collection and Analysis

The interviews were recorded by audio to ensure all responses were documented. Interview transcriptions were analyzed utilizing NVivo 9. The researcher highlighted key points to ensure quick recall or further data analysis. The data allowed the researcher to see all information on a theme summarized together. The researcher tracked ideas and steps, allowed annotations to jot down thoughts, created memos and captured detailed observations and similar themes.

Once data was collected and placed in the Nvivo 9 software program, the researcher searched for similarities and themes revealed by the participants. The researcher clarified and

charted themes in order of most common to least common experiences. Correlations around common themes were made and outliers were identified.

      To minimize any limitations, the information gathered from participants was received as true and valid. Having participants sign the consent form further validated data disclosed was true and for study purposes only.

<h3 style="text-align:center">Discussion of the Major Themes</h3>

      There were seven themes based on the responses provided by the participants in the study. Each participant identified the person or persons who they hold responsible for their educational standing. Responses were explored for commonalities and to give insight on AA males' lives and perspectives on education.

Reasons for Attending College and Degree Choice

      Out of 18 participants, 16 responded that attending university was essential to their lives. Participants were attending university for several reasons, including better job prospects, better quality of life, and economic gain. These results are similar to those of Schultz and Higbee (2007), who indicated career preparation and acquiring knowledge are the most significant motivation for attending college. Other reasons participants noted included monetary and personal fulfillment. Phinney, Dennis, and Osario (2006) found ethnic minority students often reported they attended university to be of assistance to their family and reaffirm self-worth. This study confirmed AA males had self-determination and personal goals to enroll in higher education. Data revealed the majority felt college is an important factor to have a better life.

Reasons for Choosing Specific Degree Programs

      The second interview question was degree choice and the reasons for choosing the preferred degree. Business was chosen as a degree for 6 of 18 participants. Four participants mentioned family members owned businesses and they, too, wanted to run a successful business. Physical Education and recreation was chosen by 3 participants. Biology and Criminal Justice were chosen by four participants (two chose each); two participants chose general studies. There was only one of each of the following degrees: engineering, communication, education, and political science. One commonality for seeking a particular degree was a desire to become a role model and/or activist in the community.

Role Models

      Mothers and pastors were the most common. Eight participants out of 18 mentioned their fathers as role models. Other participants mentioned President Obama, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., and Malcolm X, and coaches (i.e., football or basketball). Findings may hold significant implications for a student's educational goals and aspirations. Being rejected by a father could trigger an array of feelings in AA men (Hunter et al., 2006). President Obama's exposition in his autobiography about his own father can help young AA men move toward closure with this area of their lives. Stereotypical imagery distracts young AA men who desire to see exemplary males (Aymer, 2010). As a result, positive representations of AA men such as teachers, professors, mentors, doctors and lawyers can be overlooked or not highlighted in the public eye. Role models relate to the reduction in violent behavior and the person's attitudes toward violence (Hurd, Zimmerman, & Reischl, 2011). Most parents provide unconditional love and support. Parents were viewed as role models of individuals who pushed students because of their lack of success in their own lives.

Hardships

      AA males shared some challenges encountered as youth, including poverty stricken living conditions, violence and drug affected environments. Financial limitations were also

mentioned as an ongoing barrier to success in higher education. The majority referenced problematic difficulties served as motivation until graduation. Participants considered themselves fortunate to have survived arduous conditions.

African Americans proportionally identified atrocious hardships, including distress and culture-related barriers, than did Caucasians (Douglas, 2003). Using coping and survival skills learned from mentors such as perseverance, long-suffering, patience, endurance and internal drive has alleviate other grueling hardships. In fact, some hardships were stimuli for seeking a better life for themselves and their families.

Elementary School and High School Experiences

Elementary experiences did not appear to be as meaningful for AA males to desire higher education. The relationships built outside of school in their neighborhoods with friends and family was deemed inspirational for learning and individual achievement. Elementary school students who appeared to be self motivated experienced a "point of passion," and "anchor" relationships which facilitated intrinsic inspiration for pursuing an education (Crow, 2011).

Support Systems

Participants were asked to who or what they attribute their current educational standing. The information shared demonstrated the roles people, religion, mentors, families and personal motivation play in the lives of AA males. Family members were mentioned as influential in the study participant's desire to attend college. This is similar to findings of Whitaker et al. (2012) in that neighborhood and family characteristics are significant determinants of inner-city schoolchildren's inspiration for learning. Relationships inspire learning. Understanding the connection with family further reiterates the impact family has on individual achievement.

Perspectives on the Value of Education

Participants suggested their own intrinsic motivation for success was a principal reason for pursuing higher education. Intrinsic motivation plays a decidedly intricate part in the completion of educational pursuits (Charlton, Barrow, & Hornby-Atkinson, 2006). They have an individual purpose that impels them to continue their education. Extrinsic motivation is also instrumental in the initial decision to enroll in higher education (Charlton et al., 2006). The environment surrounding a person can cause him to change or be changed. Poverty-stricken areas, gangs and violence, drugs and unemployment become impetus for some participants to break the poverty cycle.

Implications

Results suggest AA males are more successful in higher education when provided with better information and guidance throughout high school experiences. This academic management should include: test-taking skills, preparation for standardized/ college entrance exams like the ACT, application processes for university entrance and financial aid and college/university tours. High schools might also work to increase the ratio of AA male teachers in the high school setting to allow for visible role models for AA male students. High schools must create environments to promote preparation for life after high school.

Educators should be conscious of their role with AA males in order to ensure all students, including AA males, have equitable opportunities to excel academically. Holding high expectations for all students and encouraging students to seek the resources and interventions necessary for their success may be crucial in encouraging more underrepresented groups to seek higher education opportunities. Educators need to deliberately target AA males during high school to present key requirements for college enrollment and guidelines for mentoring programs. Educators should share academic expectations through assemblies, university prep

courses, and seminars to allow AA males to have access to materials on college readiness and programs that abet AA males successfully enroll into college. It is imperative for college administrators to monitor attrition, academic progress and transition issues. Faculty, chairs, deans, especially AA males, must be the catalysts in launching mentoring programs.

African American males who have graduated from college should serve as mentors. Mentorship is a key responsibility to encourage other AA males to seek educational advancement, lead moral lives, and give back to their communities. It is imperative for AA males to have accessibility to mentors, specifically AA male mentors. AA males must mentor those seeking higher education. Milner (2007) rationalized the importance of empowering AA males regardless of their educational background. The experiences shared by AA male mentors about dealing with life barriers serve as stories for future generations. In short, mentoring programs could create a stronger community for AA males and initiate a new trend to portray positive images for AA males as leaders.

Conclusion

There is an impetus need to understand reasons some AA males appear more motivated and resolute in their desire to seek higher education opportunities (Green, 2010). By identifying key factors, pertinent rationale and significant lived experiences of AA males have for attending institutions in higher education have critical information that can lead to better programs for AA males entering college. By providing an awareness and acknowledgement of the lived experiences of AA males who have entered college, those AA males undecided about higher education have valuable information of overcoming obstacles. The shared experiences of AA males offer optimism for enhanced opportunities academically and socially. In the end, there will be cultural responsiveness in the AA community leading to increased statistics in higher education. Consequently, this study is one of the few catalysts in the movement to increase visibility of research, specifically, focused on the experiences of AA males in higher education.

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Table 1.

Themes Identified Based on the Responses to Interview Questions

Theme	Elaboration of Themes
Reasons for attending college	Better job prospects
	Better quality of life
	Economic gain
Reasons for choosing specific degree programs	Family connection
	Community activists
Role models	Fathers and parents
	Political leaders
	Coaches
Hardships	Poverty
	Gang and violence
	Unemployment
Elementary and high school educational experiences	Outside relationships (i.e. family and friends)
Support systems	Other AA males
	Family
Perspectives on the value of education	Intrinsic motivation
	Extrinsic motivation

Interrogating Place, Space, Power and Identity: An Examination of Florida's Geography Standards

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Abstract: In this paper, we examine Florida's sixth-eighth grade geography standards to determine the potential for teaching critical geography, a field that interrogates space, place, power, and identity. While 57% of the standards demonstrated evidence of critical thinking, only six standards foster higher levels of critique consistent with critical geography.

Current conversations about 21st century learners stress the importance of skills necessary to function in a global society. These conversations have raised awareness of the interconnectedness of economic issues, problematized notions of citizenship, and complicated political and cultural boundaries (Castles, 2007; Suarez-Orozco, 2004). In the United States, the social studies curriculum at the K-12 level builds a foundation to help students address these issues. However, as reading and math are privileged in the current high-stakes testing environment and research initiatives encourage Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) disciplines, social studies education is marginalized in American school systems (Boyle-Baise, Hsu, Johnson, Serriere, & Stewart, 2012). As a result, social studies is taught only when it is tested, and these tests usually only feature American history and civics knowledge. A global perspective requires knowledge, skills, and dispositions addressed within geography-related material (Hanvey, 1982), yet geography courses are virtually non-existent in primary and secondary schools.

In this paper, we examine the importance of, and potential for, geography as a discipline to prepare global citizens. In order to do this we feature data from a larger cross-case analysis of geography standards. Our analysis uses a lens that privileges critical geography, a field that interrogates the intersection of place, space, power and identity. Florida Department of Education's (FLDOE) Next Generation Sunshine State Standards (NGSSS, FLDOE, 2008a) at the middle school level were analyzed to determine where there is potential to have conversations facilitated by critical geography. We argue that a foundation in this field helps individuals develop an inclusive global perspective and higher level critical thinking skills.

Conceptual Framework

One cannot understand the complexity of global issues without an understanding of geographic concepts. Critical geographers are scholars interested in interrogating space, place, power, and identity, arguing that distinctions over location are never neutral (Allen, 2003; Helfenbein, 2009). This vein of inquiry was developed in response to traditional geographic literature dominated by racism, ethnocentrism, and paternalism (Harvey, 2001). Critical geography analyzes the relationships and intersections between place and space, in regards to how these concepts operate within domains of power or contribute to identity formation (Helfenbein & Taylor, 2009).

A key distinction must be made between how traditional and critical geographers theorize *space* and *place*. *Geography for Life: National Geography Standards* (Boehm & Bednarz, 1994) favors a traditional notion of absolute space defined by location and distance. Place represents a

set of relationships between environmental and human characteristics. Critical geographers problematize the notion that space is bounded, objective, and temporal (Massey, 2005). They argue space as traditionally conceptualized is actually socially constructed. However, spaces overlap and interact and are not restricted by time. "For (critical) geographers, place is the localized community – filled with meaning for those that spend time there" (Helfenbein, 2009, p. 306). Because place is influenced by human components, it is political and cultural.

Gruenewald (2003) outlines a framework for what he calls place-conscious education. This framework outlined five dimensions of place that can aid in the analysis of geographic education: the perceptual, sociological, ideological, political, and ecological. Gruenewald (2003) reminds educators that

A multidisciplinary analysis of place reveals the many ways that places are profoundly pedagogical. That is, as centers of experience, places *teach* us about how the world works and how our lives fit into the spaces we occupy. Further, places *make* us: As occupants of particular places with particular attributes, our identity and our possibilities are shaped. (p. 621)

This approach helps students consider multiple perspectives as they recognize that place consists of more than just physical features and is influenced by identity, ideology, and power.

Consider the following scenario as an example of how place is political. In April 2012 Ozzie Guillen, the manager of the Florida Marlins baseball team, was suspended due to public out-cry over statements he made indicating he admired and respected Cuban dictator Fidel Castro (Thompson & Macur, 2012). While Guillen's statement may have shocked or angered baseball fans throughout the U.S., his words were particularly offensive to Marlin fans. In order to understand the reaction to these statements individuals, need to understand the historical roots of the controversy within this specific location, as well as the political and economic influence of Cuban individuals within this particular place. The team is attached to the city of Miami, which has a large Cuban population. Many of these inhabitants immigrated to the U.S. during the Fidel-led coupe that installed a pro-communist government in that nation. Finally, a large percentage of the business and political leaders of the city have personal or familial ties to Cuba.

As demonstrated in this example, we argue it is essential for students to understand that their worldview is not universally shared because the "place" they occupy is political. Global educators stress the importance of these skills as they advocate for perspective consciousness and cross-cultural awareness. Critical geography can help prepare individuals for global citizenship by providing a framework to examine the complexities of people and places around the world. This analysis remind us that the term "culture" often conflates space, place, and identity (Helfenbein, 2006) without accounting for differences and change within places or addressing those who live on the margins (Anzaldúa, 2012; Gupta & Ferguson, 1992).

Place-based and global citizenship educators also agree that students need skills to link issues and solutions they find in their local community with issues and alternatives found at the global level (Maguth & Hilburn, 2011; Merryfield & Wilson, 2005). Critical geography can help students develop the ability to engage in multiple scales of analysis, investigations that range "from the body to the global capital and then back again" (Helfenbein, 2009, p. 304) using a cyclical process of recursive analysis (Martusewicz, 2009). This form of critical inquiry requires that individuals compare and contrast positions in order to analyze or evaluate multiple perspectives and alternatives. Therefore, state curriculum must be open towards helping students critically analyze information.

Theoretical Perspectives

Educators' often privilege Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of cognitive domains when developing standards and objectives. Critics, however, caution against simply designating an action as "critical thinking" based on specific verbs (Hess, 2005). Instead, individuals are encouraged to analyze the nature of processes involved within the action. This study employs two frameworks for determining the level of critical thinking a standard might promote: Webb's (2002) depth of knowledge level and Alessio's (1996) framework for critical thinking.

Instead of providing a hierarchy of cognitive domains, Webb's (2002) depth of knowledge examines the number of cognitive processes an individual must use in order to perform a function. At level one, recall of information, students are asked to recall basic facts, names, or events in ways that only require one cognitive process. Level two, basic reasoning, requires that students engage in at least two mental processes. For example, they might be asked to compare and contrast two geographic aspects. At this level they might also be asked to not only describe but to explain how or why something may occur. Level three, complex reasoning, requires that students use multiple forms of evidence to justify their thinking. They might have to draw conclusions, explain misconceptions, or propose solutions. Finally, level four, extended reasoning, usually asks students to create something utilizing the skills needed to organize, apply, and analyze information within and across disciplines (Hess, 2005). For Webb (2002), critical thinking was promoted through reasoning processes found within the second, third, and fourth levels.

In order to examine the potential for promoting critical geography within the standards' discourse we needed to go beyond Webb's pragmatic identification of cognitive processes. Alessio (1996) outlined a framework that results in a paradigm shift, distinguishing between three levels of critical thinking. This framework was an effort to push-back upon a Western education that Alessio (1996) felt supported critical thinking without critique and was too "narrow, exclusive and ethnocentric" (p. 2). Level one, critical thinking as logic, uses skills like analysis, synthesize, evaluation, observation, and experience based on traditional Western notions of logic and reason. While the author recognizes that this stance offers valuable components for thinking, he argues that it is difficult to achieve any paradigm shift when operating within the traditional archetype. Level two, critical thinking as critique, is the practice of constantly calling into question how we know what we know, as well as the means through which we come to know it. "Researchers and teachers should make revealing and studying the consequences of values an integral part of all their work" (Alessio, 1996, p. 4). Finally, level three, is labeled critical thinking as critique and multiculturalism. As argued in current scholarship, in order to eradicate ethnocentrism, it is not enough to just insert new voices (Nieto, 2010). It is imperative that we critique the bias perpetuated within Eurocentric methods used to arrive at given information (Banks, 1993, 2012). In order to see the world in a more holistic manner, we should utilize methods that are used by marginalized voices.

Subjects of Analysis

The following manuscript offers data from a larger content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) of the language embedded in state geography standards, primarily the states which are found on the border of the United States. The research presented below outlines data derived from the State of Florida's NGSSS (FDLOE, 2008) for social studies within the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. While we chose Florida for its physical proximity to international borders, the populations within Florida represents an excellent sample of a case study to expound on Gruenewald's (2003) place-conscious analysis due to its complex racial and ethnic variations.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2012) the total number of Florida's non-White students in 2010 was 1,505, 487 exceeding the White population by 367,627. Out of the non-White population Hispanics constituted the largest group totaling 740, 786, which is more than three times the United States average. The population of the category Black and Two or More Races is two times the national U.S. average. Florida, offering an instance where the nation's minority culture exceeds the majority, therefore calls for an examination into state standards to determine whether they reflect the population's diverse world views.

Issues found within Florida mirror the ethnic complexity described in Andalusia's (2012) la frontera/borderlands as she "remaps" our understanding of what borders mean. In cities like Miami, Orlando, and Jacksonville there are complex political, socio-cultural relationships between Cubans, Venezuelans, Nicaraguans, Puerto Ricans, Colombians, Peruvians, Dominicans, Haitians, African Americans, and Caucasians. Rather than borders serving a dualistic perspectives, us/them or here/there, the issues within Florida renders an understanding of the dynamics surrounding malleable borders, dynamics that expand and problematize the social and cultural terrain with which we live (Anzaldúa, 2012). The history of these relationships, as well as contemporary interactions within these cities, directly impact how power and oppression is manifested in public schools.

Critical social theorists in education examine the ways in which social structures play out in the classroom (Rogers, Malancharuvil-Berkes, Mosley, Hui, & Joseph, 2005). State standards are shaped by ideological forces because, as Gee (2004) asserts, all discourse is social and ideological. As teachers are mandated to follow state curriculum frameworks, standards serve as an ideological conduit between the state and the classroom. It is our position that the state's curriculum should reflect the diverse demographics of the pupils attending Florida schools. As educators we also believe in a social studies curriculum, which encourages critical thinking. Therefore, we feel that a critical analysis of the discourse within geography standards can indicate whether or not state curricula encourage students to interrogate place, space, power, and identity as a form of critical thinking for global citizenship.

Methods of Analysis

Using a structural coding framework (Saldaña, 2009), influenced by a critical analysis of discourse (Gee, 2004), we analyzed the NGSSS to determine the extent to which the standards were open to promoting critical geography. Webb's (2002) depth of knowledge and Alessio's (1996) framework for critical thinking were used to examine the extent to which a standard promoted critical thinking. Instead of looking at specific verbs in the standards the researchers analyzed the number and nature of cognitive processes suggested in the standard's language. Before engaging in an in-depth analysis, we first identified and removed standards that promoted only level one cognitive processes (i.e., recall) as these do not promote critical thinking. For example, we immediately classified the following standard as level one recall: NGSSS SS.6.G.1.3: Identify natural wonders of the ancient world (e.g., the seven natural wonders). (FLDOE, 2008). This standard only requires that students locate specific information such as physical features or the natural wonders of the ancient world. Students are not asked to answer questions that might promote more than one cognitive process simultaneously. They are also not asked to critique criteria used to determine how something is considered an ancient wonder of the world.

After determining that a standard met our conditions for critical thinking, in that it met Webb's criteria for basic, complex, or extended reasoning, we analyzed the nature of critical thinking promoted in the standard's language. This analysis recognizes that while it is important

to examine, which cognitive processes are encouraged within the text, it is also important to examine the social and cultural models tacitly embedded in the discourse (Rogers et al., 2005). Therefore, we applied Alessio's (1996) framework for critical thinking, looking for language that would explicitly encourage processes utilized in critique and in critique and multiculturalism. In adhering to Alessio's (1996) notions of critical thinking as critique and multiculturalism this research reflects an epistemological view that research cannot produce a single Truth; all research is subjective at some level. We include our categorization of the standards (see examples in Appendix) in order to make our analysis transparent to the reader.

Findings and Discussion

Out of 25 geography standards at the sixth grade level, 10 (40%) standards included phrasing that did not lend students to think critically, 14 (56%) standards encouraged critical thinking as logic, and 1 (4%) standard had terminology that promoted critical thinking as critique. In seventh grade the breakdown of 12 geography standards is as follows: 7 (58%) standards were labeled not critical thinking, 5 (42%) standards as critical thinking as logic, and 0 (0%) standards were found to promote critical thinking as critique. Finally, of the 17 standards at the eighth grade level, 6 (35%) did not provide opportunities for critical thinking, though 6 (35%) standards encouraged critical thinking as logic and 5 (30%) standards included processes that fostered critical thinking as critique.

Overall our analysis of the NGSSS geography standards demonstrated that the majority either did not specifically mention critical thinking outcomes, or only mentioned goals related to critical thinking as logic. Only 11% of the standards, 6 of 54, promoted critical thinking as critique, and none demonstrated critical thinking as critique and multiculturalism. We conclude that students are not asked to analyze the intersection of space, place, power, and identity. In other words if teachers translate the standards verbatim into their instruction, there will be minimal opportunities for students to engage in critical thinking past the first level (i.e., logic).

While the discourse did not explicitly outline processes for critical thinking as critique, and critical thinking as critique and multiculturalism, some standards were worded in ways that had the potential to promote these high levels of critical thinking. Standards that addressed issues that can be examined through a critical lens offered opportunities to engage in higher level cognitive thinking. These include issues such as cultural diffusion, religion, cultural regions, human elements, and political boundaries. Yet, many standards included specific examples that might narrow the range of study. For instance, examples of cultural landmarks that were provided, such as, the Statue of Liberty and the Golden Gate Bridge, lead to assumptions that privilege Anglo American and Western cultural achievements. We argue cultural achievements of minority groups that are not proposed in the examples are equally important.

While an analysis of the NGSSS geography standards demonstrated few opportunities for higher level thinking, we do believe there is a potential to extend critical thinking. Take for example NGSSS SS.6.G.2.7: Interpret choropleth or dot-density maps to explain distribution of population in the ancient world (FLDOE, 2008d). This standard requires students to engage in multiple processes at once, applying the information that they know about ancient civilizations while interpreting maps as visual images. This would require traditional Cartesian logical-reasoning skills. Savvy teachers might help students question the authenticity of data, or why these areas are privileged as culture hearths. Yet, the standard asks to interpret and not to examine or question. There is no indication that students should develop hypotheses about why some cultures became extinct while others remained intact. There is also no evidence that teachers should help students interrogate assimilation, or include the impact of cultural diffusion

from civilizations from East Asia or the Americas prior to European contact. An analysis of this nature would help students understand that the places the state deems important to study are also political. In this instance, ancient civilizations that are privileged, as stated in the examples (e.g., Phoenicia Greece and Rome), are the civilizations widely known to have contributed to Western ideals. Indigenous knowledge is disregarded.

Another example is SS.6.G.6.2: Compare maps of the ancient world in ancient times with current political maps (FLDOE, 2008d). This standard asks students to engage in more than one cognitive process as they have to compare historical projections of various spaces with our current geospatial orientation of the world. While not specifically stated in the standard, there is a potential for helping students recognize the socio-political forces that shape global perspectives. Wood, Kaiser, and Abramms (2006) remind us that "every map serves a specific purpose. Every map advances an interest" (p. 4). Students can be asked to examine what is missing from, and what is included in, historical maps in order to determine the map-maker's original intent. When teaching this standard there is potential to ask: "Why do we have specific projections for maps?", "Why are some areas privileged over others?", and "Are there examples of maps from other perspectives?" Yet, there is no specific verbiage in the discourse indicating the potential to disrupt presented notions of place by interrogating the subjectivity of historical, as well as current maps.

Similar standards with the potential to encourage critical thinking as critique and multiculturalism were found at the seventh and eighth grade levels. Consider SS7.G.4.2: Use maps and other geographic tools to examine the importance of demographics within political divisions of the United States (FLDOE 2008c). The language in this standard requires students use multiple cognitive processes. They have to utilize map skills while, at the same time, drawing upon their knowledge of sociological concepts, such as population demographics and political division. There has potential to promote critical geography if students are asked to question why some groups of people have power while others do not and how the distribution of power may be dependent upon specific places. In one project students could examine the intersection of power and identity through the issue of bilingual education, a practice that is supported in South Florida, but generally rejected in Texas and California (Nieto, 2010; Sleeter, 2010). These policies are impacted by spatially diverse political and ethnic divisions.

Our analysis indicated that the eighth grade standards included more opportunity for students to engage in critical thinking as critique. Examples ask students to analyze the effects of migration throughout the U.S., both on the place of origin and destination (SS8.G.4.2), and analyze case studies of regions that have had critical economic or political ramifications (SS.8.G.2.2). There are even opportunities for students to use narratives to illustrate geographic issues (SS.8.G.6.2, FLDOE 2008b). Teachers could satisfy this standard while incorporating multiple perspectives from a variety of multicultural sources. Unfortunately, the eighth grade course is primarily geared towards the study of American history. Teachers might not devote as much instructional time to highlight the non-western geographic knowledge and skills, which these standards can potentially promote.

Conclusion

During an era of high-stakes testing and conservative educational reform, it is important to continue analyzing the equity in standards using a variety of theoretical lenses. Conversations about 21st century learners claim that it is imperative to educate youth for globalization. We proposed that the processes promoted through critical geography have the potential to facilitate important aspects of global citizenship education: global and spatial awareness, perspective

consciousness, critical analysis, and decision-making. This set of knowledge, skills, and dispositions is vital to a democratic education committed to serving diverse learners in a globalizing world.

Our results indicated that there is not much room within the current NGSSS geography standards for students to acquire the knowledge or develop the skills necessary for interrogating power and identity within an examination of space and place. The pressures of high-stakes testing, as well as teachers' own reluctance to discuss controversial issues, may result in strict interpretation of standards' discourse (Epstein, 2009). Therefore, many teachers may not go beyond the specific examples included in these documents. Rather than projecting our frustration over the lack of critical geography in social studies education today, we offered small snapshots of possibilities to demonstrate how such dialogue can occur. We see conversations over geography standards as an opportunity to add to the academic discourse, as well as support a platform on which to advocate for the importance of geography in preparation for global citizenship.

<div align="center">References</div>

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Appendix

Table 1

Analysis of Geography Standards by Level of Critical Thinking

Grade Level n = Number of Standards Analyzed	Phrasing Does not Lend itself to Critical Thinking	Level 1 (Logic)	Level 2 (Critique)	Level 3 (Critique & MC)
Sixth Grade	10	14	1	0
n= 25	40%	56%	4%	0%
Seventh Grade	7	5	0	0
n= 12	58%	42%	0%	0%
Eighth Grade	6	6	5	0
n= 17	35%	35%	30%	0%
Total	23	25	6	0
n= 54	43%	46%	11%	0%

Table 2

Florida's Sixth Grade Social Studies Standards

Social Studies, Grade 6, Geography (SS.6.G)		Phrasing Does not Lend itself to Critical Thinking	Level 1 (Logic)	Level 2 (Critique)	Level 3 (Critique & MC)
	SS.6.G.1.1. Use latitude and longitude coordinates to understand the relationship between people and places on Earth.		X		
	SS.6.G.1.2. Analyze the purposes of map projections (political, physical, special purpose) and explain the applications of various types of maps.		X	(P)	
	SS.6.G.1.3. Identify natural wonders of the ancient world (e.g., Seven Natural Wonders of Africa, Himalayas, Gobi Desert).	X			
Understand how to use maps and other geographic representations, tools and technology to report information.	SS.6.G.1.4. Utilize tools geographers use to study the world. (e.g., maps, globes, graphs, charts and geo-spatial tools such as GPS, GIS, satellite imagery, aerial photography, online mapping resources).	X			
	SS.6.G.1.5. Use scale, cardinal, and intermediate directions, and estimation of distances between places on current and ancient maps of the world.	X			
	SS.6.G.1.6. Use a map to identify major bodies of water of the world, and explain ways they have impacted development of civilizations. (e.g., major rivers, seas, oceans).	X			
	SS.6.G.1.7. Use maps to identify characteristics and boundaries of ancient civilizations that have shaped the world today. (e.g., Phoenicia, Carthage, Crete, Egypt, Greece, Rome, Kush).	X*			

Category	Benchmark	Phrasing Does not Lend itself to Critical Thinking	Level 1 (Logic)	Level 2 (Critique)	Level 3 (Critique & MC)
Understand physical and cultural characteristics of places	SS.6.G.2.1. Explain how major physical characteristics, natural resources, climate, and absolute and relative locations have influenced settlement, interactions, and the economies of ancient civilizations of the world.		X		
	SS.6.G.2.2. Differentiate between continents, regions, countries, and cities in order to understand the complexities of regions created by civilizations. (e.g., city-states, provinces, kingdoms, empires).		X		
	SS.6.G.2.3. Analyze the relationship of physical geography to the development of ancient civilizations. (e.g., Tigris and Euphrates [Mesopotamia], Nile[Egypt], Indus and Ganges [Ancient India], and Huang He[China]).		X		
	SS.6.G.2.4. Explain how the geographic location of ancient civilizations contributed to the culture and politics of those societies. (e.g., Egypt, Rome, Greece, China, Kush).		X		
	SS.6.G.2.5. Interpret how geographic boundaries invite or limit interaction with other regions and cultures. (e.g., China limits and Greece invites).		X		
	SS.6.G.2.6. Explain the concept of cultural diffusion, and identify the influences of different ancient cultures on one another. (e.g., Phoenicia on Greece and Greece on Rome).		X	(P)	(P)
	SS.6.G.2.7. Interpret chloropleth or dot-density maps to explain distribution of population in the ancient world.		X		
Understand the relationships between the earth's ecosystems and the populations that dwell within them	SS.6.G.3.1. Explain how the physical landscape has affected the development of agriculture and industry in the ancient world. (e.g., terracing, seasonal crop rotations, resource development).	X			
	SS.6.G.3.2. Analyze the impact of human populations on the ancient world's ecosystem. (e.g., desertification, deforestation, abuse of resources, erosion).			X	(P)
	SS.6.G.4.1. Explain how family and ethnic relationships influenced ancient cultures		X		
	SS.6.G.4.2. Use maps to trace significant migrations, and analyze results. (e.g., prehistoric Asians to the Americas, Aryans in Asia, Germanic tribes throughout Europe).		X		
Understand the characteristics, distribution, and migration of human populations	SS.6.G.4.3. Locate sites in Africa and Asia where archaeologists have found evidence of early human societies, and trace their migration patterns to other parts of the world.	X			
	SS.6.G.4.4. Map and analyze the impact of the spread of various belief systems in the ancient world. (e.g., Buddhism, Christianity, Judaism).		X	(P)	(P)
	SS.6.G.5.1. Identify the methods used to compensate for the scarcity of resources in the ancient world. (e.g., water in the Middle East, fertile soil, fuel).	X			
Understand how human actions can impact the environment	SS.6.G.5.2. Use geographic terms and tools to explain why ancient civilizations developed network of highways, waterways, and other transportation linkages.	X			
	SS.6.G.5.3. Use geographic tools and terms to analyze how famine, drought, and natural disasters plagued many ancient civilizations. (e.g., flooding of the Nile, drought in Africa, volcanoes in the Mediterranean, famine in Asia).		X		
Understand how to apply geography to interpret the past and present and plan for the future	SS.6.G.6.1. Describe the six Essential Elements of Geography (The World in Spatial Terms, Places and Regions, Physical Systems, Human Systems, Environment, The Uses of Geography) as the organizing framework for understanding the world and its people.	X			
	SS.6.G.6.2. Compare maps of the ancient world in ancient times with current political maps.		X	(P)	(P)

"Learning the Ropes": An Exploration of BDSM Stigma, Identity Disclosure, and Workplace Socialization

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Abstract: Relationship development is a key factor for workplace socialization. People with stigmatized identities often choose to (not) disclose experiences or identities due to potential consequences. A perceived need to not disclose stigmatized, BDSM-related activities or identities can restrict relationship development at work, which should concern human resource development professionals.

Imagine that you are in the middle of a divorce, and your partner is suing for sole custody of your children. She/he has argued that you are an unfit parent because you like to beat your sexual partners. Though you both know that in all circumstances your sexual partners have consented to the abuse during sex, your partner attempts to argue that you are sick and abusive—you should not be raising children. Your coworkers have offered to be a support system for you. How much detail about your situation would you provide?

Organizational socialization, or the process of "learning the ropes" (Schein, 1988, p. 54), refers to how new employees are taught what is important in their new organization and how they learn the values, norms, and expected patterns of behavior (Schein, 1998). Socialization shapes personal relationships in the work place and establishes guidelines for everyday conduct (van Maanes & Schein, 1979). Organizational socialization provides a framework through which employees come to identify with their new organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and can make or break an individual's career (Schein, 1998). Relationship building can be the primary driver of the socialization process, and work groups are the primary context in which it takes place (Korte, 2009). Relationships develop through the sharing of details about personal experiences, dispositions, past events, and future plans (Derlega & Grzelak, 1979). Such personal sharing is generally referred to as disclosure and may be restricted if an individual feels stigma regarding the information they choose to share.

Stigma is "an undesired differentness from what [is] anticipated" (Goffman, 1963, p. 5). This sense of "differentness", which is encouraged and perpetuated by society, can become internalized by individuals labeled as "other." Identities that are stigmatized can become a source of conflict and tension, perhaps marked by failure, shame, or abnormality (Goffman, 1963). Individuals who are members of stigmatized groups, and who therefore experience stigma themselves, must often decide whether to disclose personal information to other people.

In order to participate in relationship development, individuals with stigmatized identities must often decide whether to explain their experiences and identities to others or to hide, mislead, or lie about their experiences. Considering that organizational socialization is crucial to an organization's success, that relationship building is a driving force of the socialization process, and that relationships are developed through personal sharing, the choice to not disclose personal information could have a negative impact on organizational success. This would be of interest to supervisors, managers, and human resource development (HRD) professionals.

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The mission of HRD has been described as intended to provide employee development focused on performance improvement related to a current position, career development focused on performance improvement for future assignments, and organizational development focused on optimal utilization of human potential and improved human performance (Gilley & Eggland, 1989). Laura Bierema (2009) suggests that the dominant philosophy, practices, and research of HRD negatively affects female practitioners and recipients of HRD and argues that a focus on performativity has "clouded HRD's focus on human development and sharpened its focus on productivity, performance, and profit" (p. 73).

Workplace socialization, through which workers learn expected patterns of behavior, and a focus on performativity, productivity, and profit instead of human development, situates employees with stigmatized identities in environments where they must perform well while appearing "normal". Their concentration may be on performance and hiding stigma, instead development. The purpose of this paper is to explore factors related to BDSM stigma and reasons for (not) disclosing BDSM-related interests, identities, or behaviors to others at work. An aim is to demonstrate why human resources professionals should be aware of the factors.

Background

Some adults engage in non-normative sexual behaviors and, as a result, experience stigma that affects their ability to develop relationships with others. One such preference or identity relates to bondage (B), domination (D), submission (S), sadism (S), and masochism (M), collectively known as BDSM. Engaging in BDSM is a lifestyle choice that places practitioners outside of heteronormative standards (Weinberg, Williams, & Moser, 1984; Langdridge & Barker, 2008). Historically, BDSM practitioners have been marginalized and stigmatized by mental health professionals and society (Klein & Moser, 2006) as being both pathological and anti-feminist (Dworkin, 1974; Linden, 1982). Individuals who engage in BDSM may experience discrimination, violence, loss of child custody, and loss of jobs and promotions due to sexual activities (Wright, 2006). BDSM practitioners strategically determine whether to disclose their involvement in BDSM (Bezreh, Weinberg, & Edgar, 2012; Brown, 2010; Wright, 2008).

As employees develop relationships at work, they choose what to disclose, often knowing that disclosure of a stigmatized identity or behaviors may lead to discrimination and/or harassment. HRD professionals should be concerned with fairness and equal treatment in the workplace for all employees, and seek to discourage harassment and discrimination. Furthermore, because HRD professionals should be concerned with the relationship development, team dynamics, and the overall socialization of their employees, it could be helpful to understand if, and why, employees choose to disclose or not disclose personal information with colleagues and supervisors.

BDSM

Researchers estimate that approximately 5-10% of the U.S. population "engages in sadomasochism for sexual pleasure on at least an occasional basis," most of which is either mild or lacks "real pain or violence" (Reinisch, Beasley, Kent, & Kinsey Institute, 1990, p. 162). Studies have estimated that 14% of men and 11% of women have experienced sexual sadomasochism (Janus & Janus, 1993). Another study of students at a Canadian university estimated that 65% have fantasies about being tied up and 62% of tying up a partner (Renaud & Byers, 1999).

BDSM is a sexual orientation, dynamic, or activities among two or more consenting adults, which typically includes the use of physical and/or psychological stimulation that produces sexual arousal and satisfaction. Bondage refers to restraining someone's movements or

the material used to restrain. Domination and submission, or Ds, refer to a relationship based on power exchange, where an individual gives to someone else a negotiation level of control, perhaps over decisions, actions, or attire; the submissive partner gives up the control and the dominant partner accepts it. Ds is considered by many to be the psychological and emotional underpinnings of BDSM. Sadism and masochism refer to the utilization of pain, sensation, humiliation, and/or power exchange for erotic enjoyment. An individual who likes to give the pain, humiliation, etc. is perceived as a sadist; the person who likes to receive it is a masochist. The terms "S/M" or "S&M" are often used in place of BDSM and practitioners often use "kink". This paper uses BDSM as much as possible, and often refers to individuals as practitioners.

BDSM-related behaviors span a wide range of activities and roles, such as the use of blind folds, spanking, bondage, role play, voyeurism, urination, leather fetish, and many more; however, there are some common themes. Weinberg, Williams, and Moser (1984) perceived five features that tend to be present in most BDSM interactions. One is dominance and submission, or the appearance of rule and obedience, usually of one partner over another. Another is consensuality, or the voluntary agreement to enter into a BDSM interaction and to abide by established limits (ground rules). Yet another is sexual content, or the presumption that the activities will have a sexual or erotic context. The other features are mutual definition, or the assumption of a shared understanding that the activities are somehow BDSM-related, and role playing, or recognition that the roles assumed are not reality. Although BDSMers are not a homogeneous enough group to be considered a unity (Stoller, 1991); there appears to be enough commonality to suggest that BDSM has a frame within which individuals distinguish their actions and behaviors as pretend, and which has some basis in the credo of "safe, sane, and consensual" (Weinberg, 1987).

Safe, sane, and consensual is considered by many to be essential guidelines in BDSM activities. Safe means being knowledgeable about and acting according to the techniques and safety concerns related to the activities. Some people have compared BDSM to other potentially risky activities, such as wearing protective gear when playing competitive sports and having a partner when scuba diving. Sane means being knowledgeable about the difference between fantasy and reality and distinguishes between mental illness and health. One type of relationship dynamic is known as a master/slave relationship, where one partner has a certain (high) level of control of a partner's behaviors and activities; yet, these relationships are consensual and can be ended by either partner at any time. Consensual means respecting the limits established by each participant at all times. The type and parameters of the control and activities are agreed upon by everyone, and the consent must be ongoing; just because consent for an interaction was given once, that does not imply continuing consent. Many people consider consent to be a key difference between rape and consensual intercourse and between abuse and some BDSM activities or dynamics. Because children are not considered able to give consent, consensual BDSM activities must be between adults. As in any population, risk, mental illness, and abuse exist in the BDSM population, but in itself, consensual BDSM is not a sign of psychiatric concerns. It is voluntary, consensual, informed, negotiated, enjoyed, and as safe as possible.

Sexual Stigma

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 the societal norm (Foucault, 1984; Rubin, 1984). Sex is institutionalized and shapes society by establishing expected patterns of expression and performance; a sexual hierarchy exists, which created a metaphorical line dividing "good" sex from "bad" sex (Rubin, 1984). Good sex is heterosexual,

married, monogamous, procreative, and non-commercial, in pairs, in a relationship, within the same generation, in private, without pornography, and with bodies only. Bad sex is homosexual, unmarried, promiscuous, non-procreative, and commercial, alone or in groups, casual, cross-generational, in public, with pornography, with objects, and sadomasochistic (Rubin, 1984). Sexuality is "organized into systems of power, which reward and encourage some individuals and activities" and punishes and suppresses others (Rubin, 1984, p. 171). Legislation, moral expectations, and social norms establish how sexuality, and even desire, should be performed, experienced, and monitored.

BDSM Stigma

BDSM practitioners have been marginalized and stigmatized by mental health professions and society as both pathological, criminal, and anti-feminist. Although no significant differences have been found between BDSM practitioners and the general population on measures of psychopathology, depression, anxiety, or OCD (Connolly, 2006), involvement in BDSM can have an impact on individuals' personal and professional lives. No scientific evidence indicates a reason for refusing employment, adoption rights, custody rights, or other social rights to BDSMers; however, BDSM discrimination occurs in the workplace, criminal court, and family court (Klein & Moser, 2006; Weinberg, 2006; White, 2006; Wright, 2006). Many BDSM practitioners experienced stigma in four distinct ways: through negative public portrayal, value diminishment, mockery or shunning, and discrimination (Brown, 2010).

In his work as a sex therapist and a doctor, Charles Moser (1999) found that patients reported recurring types of problems related to BDSM. The most common issue his patients asked was, "Am I normal?" They were often anxious that their BDSM interests indicate pathology and the potential to commit heinous crimes. Another issue his patients often asked was "Can you make these desires go away!" as a more mundane sexual lifestyle might be easier to handle. Couples who engage in BDSM behaviors commonly blamed the S/M aspect of their relationship for their problems, leading to the issue of "The S/M is destroying our relationship". Patients also frequently experienced a sense of "I cannot find a partner," especially when it is hard to identify who else might have similar interests. While Moser found that BDSMers are not interested in BDSM activities unless their partner is willing, anxiety still exists regarding "Is it violence or S/M?" particularly related to questions about sexual harassment, abuse, and rape.

Fear that discovery of their sexual preferences might result in the destruction of current relationships, along with a general fear of discrimination often prompted BDSM practitioners to become secretive, such as having pseudonyms and post office boxes, and to living a double life (Moser, 1999). The stress and dissatisfaction resulting from such behaviors, and denial of BDSM interests, can lead to dissatisfaction with their non-BDSM lifestyle and a feeling of "I cannot lead this double life anymore". Another potential consequence is that BDSMers might hesitate to discuss health concerns with a health care provider, such as a woman who has vaginal tear from fisting or a man who develops numbness and weakness in his arms from bondage (W. & Wright, 1999). In spite of this all, Baldwin (1991) wrote about a kinky "second coming out".

BDSM Stigma Management and Disclosure

BDSM practitioners manage stigma through techniques of disengaging from mainstream society, reappropriating negative labels, concealing, and disclosing (Brown, 2010). Some people who engage in BDSM do come out and, in fact, live out, while others do not. Although no recognized "coming out" model exists for BDMS practitioners, research is being done to explore when, why, and how they come out about, or disclose, their interests or involvements in BDSM (Wright, 2006; Brown, 2010; Bezreh et al., 2012).

Self-disclosure involves sharing personal information about oneself to another person, who can then disclose that information with others. Disclosure may also result in an expectation of reciprocal sharing at the same level of intimacy (Derlega et al., 1993). Sharing such personal information implies a level of trust that the information will remain confidential (Derlega, Metts, Petronio, & Margulis, 1993). Additionally, when people disclose information in certain ways, the recipient of the disclosure may be expected to redefine the nature of their relationship with the discloser (Derlega et al., 1993). In a recent study of BDSM disclosure and stigma management, Bezreh et al. (2012) found that respondents often considered BDSM as central to their sexuality and that, in the absence of information to reassure them that they were not alone, some experienced a phase of anxiety and shame. Not surprisingly, respondents expressed that disclosure was integral to dating situations. Outside of dating, decisions to (not) disclose were complex, "balancing desire for appropriateness with a desire for connection and honesty" (Bezreh et al., 2012, p. 37). One consideration was integrity, "Being myself and exploring myself without shame and encouraging others to do likewise" (p. 47). Others included: that life is easier and has less angst if you don't have to worry about keeping a secret; being asked directly; being able to talk about a relationship with a friend; and political activism. Respondent's worried about unwanted or inappropriate disclosure, which might be burdensome to the recipient. Most expressed resignation in relation to the norm of not talking about BDSM.

BDSM in the Workplace

BDSM practitioners have been denied leadership positions, jobs, and promotions after someone expressed disapproval of their sexual activities (Brown, 2010). How the disclosure of a stigmatized identity is received, perceived, and acted on by people with more power can make a difference in how someone approaches a new learning opportunity or work situation and seeks relationships, including mentorship (Chelune, 1979). Wright (2008) reported data about the prevalence of violence and discrimination experienced by BDSMers and polygamous individuals. Many of the 3,058 respondents were employed: 1,417 (46%) full-time, 344 (11%) part-time, and 639 (21%) self-employed. Of the 2,893 respondents who answered "Are you out about your involvement in BDSM/Leather/Fetish practices?" 1,651 (57%) said yes. The 1,242 (43%) who said no provided reasons such as: family disapproval (68.2%); job repercussions (58.1%); public disapproval (52.2%); friend's disapproval (47.7%); fear of harassment (37.8%); loss of child custody (11.2%); and partner's disapproval (9.3%). However, responses to the question "Who are you Not out to?" indicated that even some of the people who answered "yes" about being out are not out in all environments. The 3,058 respondents who answered "Who are you Not out to?" listed several responses: job 1,825 (59.7%); family 1,820 (59.5%); non-BDSM friends 1,262 (41.3%); BDSM community 239 (7.8%); and other 357 (11.7%).

Stigma Disclosure in the Workplace

Disclosure in the workplace of a deviant, and therefore stigmatized, identity such as being lesbian, gay bisexual or transgender, involved in BDSM, a convicted felon, or having a disability, can be required, forced, or chosen, or the option of nondisclosure may be possible (Rocco, Collins, Meeker, & Whitehead, 2012). Disclosure would be required when the individual must disclose in order to be hired or for other human resource functions, such as if it would come up in a mandatory background check. It can happen by choice when the individual voluntarily discloses, such as when establishing or maintaining a relationship, seeking medical treatment or counseling, or when desiring a sense of openness. It might be forced if someone is "outed", as when a picture or a video is seen which reveals the individual's identity or if the individual is arrested for an alleged crime. Nondisclosure is an option when the individual

chooses to be silent about their stigmatized identity, such as when choosing to avoid stigma, loss of livelihood, potential harm, or negative effects on personal relationships.

BDSM Disclosure in the Workplace

People who participate in BDSM experience discrimination, harassment, lawsuits, and criminal proceedings based on their BDSM interests and identities. A recent example of how consensual BDSM can cause problems in the workplace occurred when Royal Canadian Mount Police (RCMP) Corporal Jim Brown was placed under investigation for possible misconduct after photos on a social networking site for kinky people showed him holding a knife to a woman who was naked and bound. Calls for action were made regarding the violent and pornographic images. Richman RCMP Assistant Commissioner Randy Beck stated that "While we must strike a balance between an individual's rights and freedoms when off-duty and the RCMP code of conduct, I am personally embarrassed and very disappointed that the RCMP would be, in any way, linked to photos of that nature" (RCMP officer, 2012, "Investigation underway", para. 5). Interviews with other people, including psychologists, professors, and community members refer to the images and Brown's behavior as severely degrading, shameful, and abnormal, even if they are consensual. Erica Pinsky, who has conducted training in another branch of RCMP and who teaches about respect in the workplace, said that an officer's deviant sexuality, as in Brown's case, can become the employer's business (RCMP officer, 2012). One of her concerns, echoed by many in the community, is that Brown's role playing involves violence against and degradation and sexual abuse of women; how then can he perform his job, when it involves investigating the same?

Another situation was when Harvey John "Jack" McGeorge II was outed publically for his BDSM involvement. McGeorge was a munitions analyst for the United Nations Monitoring, Verification and Inspection Commission and a high level leader and advocate in the BDSM community. In 2002, the Washington Post (Grimaldi, 2002) printed an article highlighting McGeorge's involvement in the BDSM community, in what he believes was an attempt to discredit himself and/or the agency for which he worked. In a presentation titled *Weathering the Storm of Public Controversy* (2003), McGeorge mentioned lessons learned through his experience. One lesson was that "Being out is philosophically comfortable but fraught with personal and professional risk". Another was that a lack of criminal allegations is significant in aiding crisis management. Two more were realizing the importance of identifying sources of emergency funding and people willing to and capable of coordinating the actions of other people on your behalf. McGeorge was fortunate in having resources available. However, not all BDSMers have the same background, knowledge, or support networks.

These two situations demonstrate many of the fears that BDSMers have regarding their activities and identities. For individuals who want to live authentically and develop relationships through shared stories – or who just don't want to lie about who they are – disclosure is an option fraught with professional, financial, personal, and spiritual risks.

BDSM Stigma and Disclosure in the Workplace: Implications for HRD

This paper began with a scenario in which an employee going through a divorce had to choose what information to share about their case, particularly regarding BDSM activities, which may be seen by coworkers as abusive and violent. In another scenario, imagine that a colleague sees you on your lunch break reading the book *Fifty Shades of Grey* and asks what you like about the book. The answer is the hot sex scenes, which have opened your eyes to a new world of physical and psychological possibilities. How much would you share? How much would you share if it was your boss asking? How can HRD professionals be proactive and better-prepared

for handling such scenarios, while supporting work environments that are safe and welcoming for all, and which discourage harassment and discrimination?

Since self-disclosure contributes to relationship development and team dynamics, it makes sense that employees, including those with stigmatized identities, would want to disclose information in the work place. Since HRD professionals work to promote organizational success, they would want to encourage relationship development and positive team dynamics, which might include creating environments where employees can safely, and appropriately, share personal information. HRD professionals can also support the mission of HRD by helping employees to develop as professionals in their own wright.

HRD professionals can support employees by encouraging skill development in terms of understanding when, how, and why to (not) disclose personal information. They can provide diversity training initiatives in the workplace; not just surface level discussions, but by using current events and popular media to prompt realistic conversations about what is appropriate – legally, professionally, and culturally within the organization. HRD professionals can also seek ongoing training on topics related to stigma and disclosure, and how to address such issues when they arise in the workplace. Additionally, employee assistance programs can be promoted in the workplace, including opportunities for confidential counseling.

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Cultivating a Community of Practice Among Student Teachers and Cooperating Teachers

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Abstract: This study examined the experience of four student teachers and their supervising teachers who participated in a Community of Practice (CoP) during their internship semester. Their experience can be separated into the four key components of a Community of Practice: (a) structure, (b) processes, (c) content, and (d) conditions.

On July 2009, President Obama and Secretary of Education Arne Duncan announced a $4.35 billion dollar fund to support the Race to the Top initiative. These competitive funds are geared to reform American schools. States are competing for these funds. The 19 states that have received these funds have created reform efforts to improve teaching and learning (White House, 2013). With the Race to the Top reform, the focus of education has fallen on four key efforts: (a) accountability, (b) individual quality, (c) technology, and (d) fragmented strategies (Fullan, 2011). According to Fullan (2011), these are the wrong drivers. "A 'wrong driver' is a deliberate policy force that has little chance of achieving the desired result, while a 'right driver' is one that ends up achieving better measurable results for students" (Fullan, 2011, p. 3). The right drivers focus on: (a) capacity building, (b) group quality, (c) pedagogy, and (d) systematic strategies. In summary, the right drivers work directly on "changing the culture of school systems" (Fullan, 2011, p. 5). Changing the culture involves building social capital. Social capital consists of a network of relationships where trust and norms are key (Coleman, 1988). Everyone in the group benefits from its structure and their participation (Coleman, 1988). In the world of education, social capital has to do with the relationships among teachers and administrators.

Communities of Practice (CoP) help cultivate social capital. "Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (Wenger, 2006, para. 3). People are the most important resource of an organization. Communities of Practice provide people an opportunity to share their wisdom and learn from one another. The focus of Communities of Practice in education is student learning (DuFour, 2004; Kruse, Louis, & Byrk, 1994). Research indicates that teacher involvement in communities of practice is positively correlated with student achievement (Vescio, Ross, & Adams, 2008).

The concept of Communities of Practice was originally used to describe the relationship between a novice and the more advanced apprentices (Wenger, 2006). Pre-service teachers as novices in education can gain a great deal from becoming members of a Community of Practice. In this study, a group of pre-service teachers participated in a Community of Practice during their internship semester. Their cooperating teachers were also members of the Community of Practice.

Purpose of Study and Research Question

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the experience of four student teachers and their supervising teachers who participated in a Community of Practice during the internship semester. The research question was: What do student teachers and their cooperating teachers draw from their experience in a Community of Practice?

Conceptual Framework

Communities of practice (also referred to as professional learning communities) are everywhere (DuFour, 2004; Wenger, 2006). They exist within and across organizations. In the field of education, Communities of Practice have been referred to as Professional Learning Communities, Critical Friend Groups, Curriculum Learning Communities, and many more. CoPs have three crucial characteristics: (a) domain, (b) community, and (c) practice. Domain is the shared interest of the group. Community refers to the interactions and relationship built among the members. Practice refers to the shared practice of the members. In other words, the members are bound by what they do together. A Community of Practices is cultivated when all three elements are developed.

A Community of Practice has several stages (Wenger, 1998). The first stage is potential. In this stage people face similar challenges. Sumsion & Patterson (2004) observed the emergence of a community in a preservice teacher education program. The initial bond was instigated by the challenges the group faced in a course. The second stage of a CoP is coalescing. In this stage, the members get together and start to see the potential in bonding. The 3rd stage of a CoP is when the group is actively engaged in sharing their practice and wisdom. This is the peak stage of a CoP. The final two stages, dispersed and memorable, occur when the members no longer meet regularly but still remain in contact, yet remember all the lessons learned.

During the active stage, there are five critical elements of a CoP: (a) reflective dialogue, (b) de-privatization of practice, (c) focus on student learning, (d) collaboration, and (e) shared norms and values (Kruse, Louis, & Byrk, 1994). Reflective dialogue is carried out through the use of protocols. A protocol is a structured guidelines for conversations that help the members of the group discuss issues collaboratively (National School Reform Faculty [NSRF]). De-privatization of practice refers to making the teaching practice public. Teachers tend to work in isolation rather than share their practice. Working in isolation is sometimes perceived by teachers as safer and preferable to working together (DuFour, 2004). The third critical element, student learning, needs to be the key of communities of practice and part of the group's shared vision (DuFour, 2004; Kruse, Louis, & Byrk, 1994). Teachers need to work collaboratively and build trust and respect among each other. Conditions of trust and respect are created through shared norms and values. Community agreements help set the norms of the group. They may include being open to outcomes and surfacing assumptions. CoPs make explicit the agreements, in order to create the conditions needed to freely share wisdom and learn from each other.

Communities of Practice provide an alternative to the "sit and get" professional development model. Through ongoing, collaborative meetings, the members of the group share their wisdom and learn from each other. They "uncover" content that is relevant to the group. There is no leader, rather a facilitator. Facilitators guide interaction, instead of directing learning. Listening is key in facilitation. The goal of the facilitator is to nurture community and to create a safe space of its members to learn from each other (Killion & Simmons, 1992).

Method

Participants

The participants for this qualitative study were four student teachers from the Pro-Teach program and their four cooperating teachers from the UF Graduate Program.

Student teachers. The four interns were students from the University of Florida's ProTeach program. This 5-year program includes earning a Master's degree at the end of the 5th year. During the final semester, the students decided to do their internship in Miami, a more diverse school system (over 300 miles away from campus or the "brick and mortar" they attended).

Cooperating teachers. Three of the four cooperating teachers are involved in the University of Florida's Teacher Leadership for School Improvement (TLSI) graduate program. Through online and some face-to-face courses, the cooperating teachers have grown in the program's three goals: Master Teacher, Teacher Leader, and Teacher Researcher. The fourth cooperating teacher has been an active member of the UF Professional Development opportunities offered in her county. All four cooperating teachers are active members of an inquiry program called Teacher Fellows. All four cooperating teachers have worked closely with the two researchers throughout their program.

Professor in residence. The two researchers are Professors in Residence in Miami. The role of the Professor in Residence is to support and pressure their students (Poekert et al., 2011). Although they are UF faculty, they work with 47 partner schools in their respective county to help support the graduate program and the other support services. The Principal Investigator was also the supervising teacher for the four interns.

Data Collection

Data was collected over the course of semester. Data sources included:

Meeting Artifacts

Meeting agendas, notes, documents, and other related materials collected from biweekly meetings.

Participant Observations of Collaborative PD Sessions

Teachers were engaged in biweekly meetings designed to develop learning communities and promote collaboration around improving student achievement, teaching practice, and school culture. Field notes were collected at these meetings to document the nature of the activities conducted in these groups, examine interactions among teachers, and provide examples of what job-embedded professional development looks like in action.

Interviews

Semi-structured interviews lasting approximately 30-60 minutes were conducted to gain insight on teacher/prospective teacher learning and growth. Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

Gains Survey

A Gains survey was administered at the end of the semester to capture the participant's overall experience.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed by a team of researchers consisting of university faculty and Lastinger Center for Learning personnel who are all engaged in the work with the schools and have established relationships with the teachers and principals in each school. Data was not analyzed until the completion of the student teachers' internship (after grades have been posted). The data was inductively analyzed using a priori codes. The codes used to analyze the experience of a CoP were based on the key components of a Community of Practice (structure, process, content, and condition). Pseudonyms were assigned to all participants, and any reference to students or

their work was deleted to protect student confidentiality. IRB was obtained from the University of Florida.

Discussion

The experience of the student teacher can be separated into the four key components of a Community of Practice: (a) structure, (b) processes, (c) content, and (d) conditions (see Figure 1)
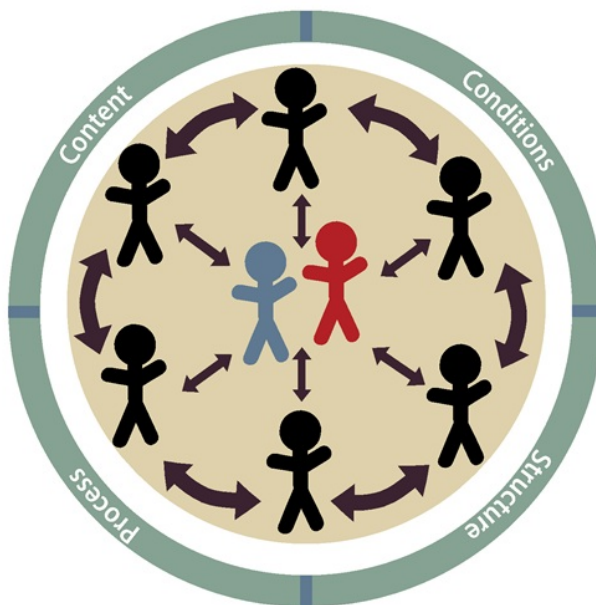
Figure 1. The four components of a Community of Practice: structure, process, content, and condition.

Structure

The structure of a CoP consists of the space, time, and frequency in which the group meets. The student teachers met every other Monday after school during the internship semester for a total of five meetings. The meetings were held in one of the cooperating teacher's classroom. The meetings lasted up to two hours. The cooperating teachers and the second researcher attended three meetings.

The student teachers enjoyed having the cooperating teacher with them. "It was nice to have her (my cooperating teacher) there because we never stop to discuss our teaching during the day. Setting aside time to discuss success/challenges was great."

Another member mentioned the following:

When my cooperating teacher came to the seminars, it helped me because we were both able to explain our issues and we were both able to listen to new strategies. It helped us because we were both able to vent and to come up with ideas from the comments provided in the meeting.

Processes

National School Reform Faculty (NSRF) protocols were used to support and sustain the collaborative work among the members of the group. As mentioned earlier, protocols are structured ways to have reflective dialogue. Through the use of protocols, time is used efficiently and all members are given equitable time to participate. Team building protocols, text-based protocols, and looking at student work protocols were used.

Team building protocols. Every session began with a team building protocol. For example, the first session began with a protocol called Life's Little Suitcase. Each member in the group found three items in their purse (suitcase) that were meaningful to them.

Text based protocols. Text based protocols were used to help uncover the meaning of the readings that were used. During one session, the participants read an article on Communities of Practice and then did a Three Levels of Text. During the Three Levels of Text protocol, the group is divided into triads. Each member of the group selects a passage of the text that resonates with him/her. Then they explain why they selected the text and what implications it has for their practice (NSRF).

Looking at Student/Teacher Work Protocols. The final kind of protocol involved looking at their practice. A Collaborative Assessment Conference protocol was used to examine a student's work. Through careful observation and probing, the CAC protocol provides the presenter an opportunity to take a deeper look at his/her student's work.

Members of the group tended to see the benefits of protocols. "I loved the collaborative assessment conference protocol! It was so helpful and I really liked that we all had different perspectives, opinions, and experiences to share. I really hope we helped them (the presenting teachers)! I love all these protocols!!!"

Another member stated, "I liked the brag protocol! Sometimes it is important/valuable to look at what you are doing right, when at the end of the day, you feel like you are doing a lot wrong. Very motivational seminar!"

Content

The content of the meetings varied. Initially, the content was on introducing the key components of a Community of Practice. As the group evolved, the content was adapted to meet their needs and concerns. Some topics included: the lesson plan, the observation process, parental involvement, motivating students. The group defined the content (Killion & Simmons, 1992).

Content was shared through text, but also through the use of protocols where teachers shared their wisdom:

> I am taking away new ways to deal with a student who is not engaged in the classroom. I liked the idea of keeping a motivational log with the student where he/she receives a personal reward for staying on task. This way the student is motivated and the student also realizes that you care for him.

Members appreciated learning from each other:

> PLC (Professional Learning Communities) are effective even though confusing at times. They serve as a learning tool. I liked this new approach at collaborating together and learning from each other. It is no longer the supervising teacher and teacher observing, but all of us learning from each other as a group.

Even the cooperating teachers gained content through their participation in the Community of Practice. "I learned that years of teaching doesn't mean you know it all. I've learned that interns come in with good ideas and I've learned to be open."

Conditions

Cultivating the conditions of trust and safety are necessary in order to have a successful Community of Practice. Through the use of norms and team building activities, the group created a bond where they felt safe to discuss their dilemmas. One of the norms created by the group was "Vegas Rules": in other words, confidentiality was maintained. Every member of the

group felt safe to discuss issues about their practice and felt comfortable to share their wisdom. Members of the group shared successes and challenges. Collaboration is key.

One teacher wrote, "The most important thing I learned (this semester) is to know that you can confide in others in order to vent and gain new perspectives in finding a solution to a problem."

Another teacher stated the following:

I think a CoP is a good way for teachers to collaborate and provide one another with support and feedback. Teaching is a career that really benefits from communicating and working with fellow colleagues. Having a CoP in a school gives teachers support and an opportunity to also share what they've learned.

Implications

Implications based on the study revealed two things: (a) the importance of setting conditions for teachers to feel comfortable in making their practice public and (b) the importance of having a skilled facilitator who helps cultivate the necessary conditions.

Power of Setting Conditions

"A group within which there is extensive trustworthiness and extensive trust is able to accomplish much more than a comparable group without that trustworthiness and trust" (Coleman, 1988, p. 101). Without a sense of trust and safety, the members of the CoP would not feel safe to use the structure and processes to gain content. Social and human resources such as openness, trust and respect are more important than structural conditions (Kruse, Louis, Byrk, 1994). A supportive environment helps teachers feel comfortable to share their concerns and to share their wisdom:

Because it (the environment) wasn't competitive you are more willing to take risks in what you ask and what you share. You know something embarrassing like the feeling that you failed at a lesson; sharing that helps me grow because I hate to admit it. And then the fact that they (members of the CoP) were able to help me without criticizing or without judging. Yeah, that was helpful to have that supportive environment.

The Role of the Facilitator in Setting Conditions

The role of the facilitator is key in creating the conditions of trust and safety needed to have an effective Community of Practice. The facilitator in this research was also the Professor in Residence. Professors in Residence (PiR) are university faculty who work directly within the district and schools. PiRs serve as a liaison between the university and school in order to make the university goals job embedded (Poekert et al., 2011). The PiR already had a relationship with the four cooperating teachers, since all four cooperating teachers have participated in university support services, either the graduate program and/or professional development opportunities. The goal of the facilitator is provide nurturance and guide interactions (Killion & Simmons, 1992). A major objective of the facilitator was to create a safe space for the participants to feel comfortable in order to share their experiences freely. The facilitator intentionally planned the structure and processes to help the group build the conditions needed in order to function in a Community of Practice. The facilitator made sure to meet in one of the cooperating teacher classrooms and provided food and snacks in order for the members to feel comfortable.

The facilitator (name omitted) would come with drinks and food and that was nice of her. The whole thing felt like a conversations. We were sitting at a round table. There wasn't any struggle with power. You know what I mean? It was very

comfortable. It didn't fell like a class. It was structured in a way to make it more effective.

Conclusion

At the end of the semester, the participants of the Community of Practice were asked for one word to describe their experience. Responses include: *support, enlightenment, competence, successful, hopeful,* and *community*. Collaboration in a Community of Practice helps create the "right drivers" (Fullan, 2011, p. 3) needed for school reform to take place. In the race to the top, teachers need to realize the value in doing it as a community.

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Digital Literacy: A Demand for Nonlinear Thinking Styles

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Abstract: This paper makes a case for a direct relationship between digital literacy and nonlinear thinking styles, articulates a demand for nonlinear thinking styles in education and the workplace, and states implications for a connection between nonlinear thinking styles visual literacy, and intuitive artistic practice.

In July of 1945, Dr. Vannevar Bush wrote an article for *The Atlantic Monthly* titled "As We May Think." In this article, Bush discusses the huge amounts of information and knowledge being obtained and stored by humanity. He argued that the process society promoted of obtaining information was set to a linear manner or what he called "the artificiality of systems of indexing" (p.11). This system was defined as artificial because it went against the natural associative/nonlinear process of the human mind for accessing information (Bush, 1945). The Internet, a construct that is designed to be accessed and comprehended in an associative/nonlinear manner, provides the system Bush so much desired. As a result, the Internet has created a demand for nonlinear thinking styles. The literature states that nonlinear thinking styles are a necessary skill within the larger theoretical framework of digitally literacy (Eshet-Alkalai & Chajut, 2009; Lambert & Cuper, 2008; Leu et al., 2011). Nonlinear thinking styles are defined as using intuition, insight, creativity, and emotions when comprehending and communicating information (Vance, Groves, Paik, & Kindler, 2007). This paper defines nonlinear thinking styles, makes a case for a direct relationship between digital literacy and nonlinear thinking styles, articulates a demand for nonlinear thinking styles in education and the workplace, and states implications for a connection between nonlinear thinking styles, visual literacy, and intuitive artistic practice.

A Lack of Integration of Nonlinear Thinking Styles

Currently, there is a lack of integration of nonlinear thinking styles found in training pre-service teachers and in preparatory management curricula for working professionals (Vance et al., 2007). Effective planning, thinking, and problem solving in today's business world requires the inclusion of nonlinear approaches (Buenger, Daft, Conlon, & Austin, 1996; Sternberg, 2002; Zaccaro, 2002). Furthermore, there is a limited amount of research that exists concerning nonlinear thinking styles (Vance et al., 2007). Although the study of linear and nonlinear thinking styles has gained increased popularity among management scholars, there remains little attention to nonlinear thinking styles in student populations and whether such thinking styles are affected by particular contextual variables. Such findings would raise a variety of implications for training pre-service teachers, curriculum developers designing instructional materials, and educational leaders developing ICT policy for schools.

What are Linear and Nonlinear Thinking Styles?

Groves, Vance, Paik, Kindler (2007) propose that linear thinking styles are a "preference for attending to external data and facts and processing this information through conscious logic and rational thinking to form knowledge, understanding, or a decision for guiding subsequent action" (p. 5). Vance et al. (2007) define nonlinear thinking styles as a "preference for attending to internal feelings, impressions, and sensations when comprehending and communicating

information" (p. 5). These definitions are based on two fundamental dimensions creating a theoretical framework. The linear dimension involves rationality, logic, and analytical thinking concentrating on external factors for comprehension and communication. The nonlinear dimension is related to intuition, insight, creativity, and emotions, concentrating on internal factors for comprehension and communication.

A Direct Relationship between Digital Literacy and Nonlinear Thinking Styles

With new demands for meaningful and contextual application of technology in classrooms, there is an increasing demand for teachers to integrate digital literacy skills and nonlinear thinking styles into curriculum development (Lambert & Cuper, 2008). Online media challenges the learner to organize and compose information in a nonlinear manner, demands user interactivity, and allows for control of progress and choice in the construction of knowledge (Lambert & Cuper, 2008). These shifts pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding information and necessitate additional skills for effective literacy. Increasingly, this skill set is being called digital literacy.

The growth of technology has brought about a number of important shifts of emphasis in terms of literacy over the past two decades. One of the most important has been the shift from fixed to fluid texts where reading and writing paths have become nonlinear in contrast to linear historical texts (Merchant, 2007). These shifts also pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding information and necessitate nonlinear thinking styles for effective information and communication processing in the larger realm of digital literacy (Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear & Leu, 2008).

A Demand for Nonlinear Thinking Styles in the Workplace and Education

Pink (2005) has said we are "moving from the Information Age to the Conceptual Age" (p. 33). Rapid technological change and increased competition abroad has placed an emphasis on the skills and preparation of people entering the workforce. In particular, people need to be able to adapt to changing technologies and shifting product demands. Today, businesses cannot just create functional and reasonably priced products, they must create products that are unique, enticing, and meaningful (Pink, 2005). These shifts in the nature of business are demanding and putting a focus on non-routine cognitive skills, such as abstract reasoning, problem solving, creativity, nonlinear thinking, communication, and collaboration on all levels of employment (Karoly & Constantijn, 2004). Currently, the United States standardized K-12 school curriculum does not teach to these skills, nor are they advanced in most colleges and universities. The nation's approach to learning in schools and training for work are mismatched to the demands of our new technological environment (Davidson, 2011). Educational environments and the workplace have been and are still primarily designed to reinforce our attention to regular, systematic tasks that are approached in a purely linear fashion (Davidson, 2011). Linear thinking is built into people's everyday lives, governing how they go about learning, creating, buying, and even rewarding one another. Due to its efficiency, linear thinking styles have become an almost universal characteristic affecting our social lives as much as our educational and professional ones (Bratianu & Vasilache, 2009).

The history of American education and its workplace has relied on linear concepts of learning and output, but today there is an ever-increasing demand for nonlinear thinking styles and highly creative output (Carlson & Kaiser, 1999; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002; Hitt, 2000; Hitt, Keats, & DeMarie, 1998; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999). The current curriculum in the United States has become restricted to what can be tested, encouraging schools to separate the cognitive from the affective, defining thought as being either qualitative or quantitative as opposed to both

and denying the important role of the senses in concept formation (Dorn, 1999). This leaves little room for creative nonlinear components within curriculum development. Yet, in today's age of access and relative abundance, the only way to distinguish one's output is to appeal to the emotional side of people, not just the rational, logical, and functional needs (Pink, 2005). The workplace demands productivity infused with creativity on all levels. The creative process is nonlinear, deductive and iterative at the same time. One finds their way to an end by using a series of complex cognitive demands. Today's cognitive demands for creativity can be met with nonlinear thinking styles that take advantage of insight, intuition, and emotion, all of which are inherent in the creative thinking process (Dorn, 1999; Eisner, 2002; Vance et al., 2007).

The National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) Job Outlook 2012 survey states that the ability to make decisions and solve problems, and the ability to obtain and process information, are two of the top four most important candidate skills/qualities employers are looking for. Problem solving can benefit from nonlinear thinking styles. Nonlinear thinking styles solve problems through an indirect and creative approach, using reasoning that is not immediately obvious and involving ideas that often are not reached by using only traditional step-by-step logic. Nonlinear thinking styles allow users to arrive at novel and unexpected conclusions from multiple perspectives (Sternberg, 2006). The second ability mentioned by the report, the ability to obtain information, is a foundational skill of digital literacy often called information literacy. Information literacy is defined as the ability to consume information critically and sort out false and biased information (Eshet-Alkalai & Chajut, 2009). Nonlinear thinking styles take advantage of today's nonlinear multimedia tools of the Internet (such as hyperlinks) to conquer such tasks. The inclusion of nonlinear thinking styles leads to effective skills in desired areas by employers. To prepare future workers for the new demands of the workplace, professionals in the field of education need to develop assessment tools and design curriculum that builds nonlinear thinking style skills.

Implications: A Relationship between Nonlinear Thinking, Visual Literacy, and Intuitive Artistic Processes

Along with the demand for nonlinear thinking styles, the Internet demands users to be visually literate to advance critical thinking, decision making, communication, creativity, and learning on the web. With much of today's media delivered in visual form, students need visual literacy and artistic skills to understand, interpret, and create information (Lambert & Cuper, 2008). We have shifted from a culture that passively received information from the Web to one that is asked and encouraged to actively participate by augmenting or generating new content (Bonk, 2009). Information now integrates images, video, sequences, design, form, symbols, color, 3D, and graphic representations. Users need to know how to interpret visual messages and obtain deeper meanings from those images on a constant basis (Lambert & Cuper, 2008). The graphic user interface of the World Wide Web is only part of the visual world people must navigate. It is no longer the province of advanced professionals to use visualization tools to represent information. Dropping costs and improved technologies have placed powerful multi-media tools in the hands of the average populace. People are now expected to interpret and communicate in multi-modal fashion. Visual literacy has become a necessary skill for the 21st century.

Visual literacy increases observation skills, evidential reasoning, speculative abilities, and the ability to find multiple solutions to complex problems (Yenawine, 1997). Visual literacy can be defined as a set of abilities that enables an individual to effectively find, interpret, evaluate, use, and create images and visual media (ACRL, 2011). Non-linear thinking and intuitive

artistic processes common to the visual arts and visual literacy may be useful to the development of digital literacy skills. Eisner (2002) says the arts teach us qualitative relationships, complex forms of problem solving, how to celebrate multiple perspectives, that the limits of our language do not define the limits of our cognition, and that small differences can have large effects, all ideas that are linked to nonlinear thinking styles. Eisner (2005) goes on to discuss how the arts teach us to act and judge in the absence of rule, to rely on feel, to pay attention to nuance, to act and appraise the consequences of one's choices, and to revise and then make other choices. Vance et al. (2007) consider intuition, insight, creativity, and emotion as four cognate but distinct approaches that are interrelated forms of nonlinear thinking. Eisner's concepts of what art can teach relates to the approaches of interrelated forms of nonlinear thinking proposed by Vance et al. (2007). To rely on feel is a form of intuition and emotion; to pay attention to nuance and appraise the consequences of one's choices is a form of insight. Creativity is foundational to the arts and nonlinear thinking styles. The interrelation of these theoretical concepts leads to the possibility that engagement in the arts could promote particular nonlinear thinking styles and therefore digital literacy skills.

Conclusion

The literature states that nonlinear thinking styles are a necessary skill within the theoretical framework of digital literacy. This paper made a case for a direct relationship between digital literacy and nonlinear thinking styles, articulated a demand for nonlinear thinking styles in education and the workplace, and stated implications for a connection between nonlinear thinking styles and intuitive artistic practice. The theoretical significance of this area of study is to create a new theoretical framework for indentifying nonlinear thinking skills. The practical significance to this area of study is to begin the development of an instrument designed to measure nonlinear thinking styles in students and permit educators to design curriculum and developmental approaches that are effective for increasing nonlinear thinking styles, teaching toward the effective use of technology and the comprehension of information through technology. Advancement in this area of research would raise a variety of implications for institutions training pre-service teachers, curriculum developers designing instructional materials, and educational leaders developing ICT policy for schools.

The challenge for educators, administrators, and policy makers is to accurately diagnose individuals' thinking style and provide the correct development opportunities that address their less preferred thinking modality to achieve a synergistic pattern that fully uses their strengths.

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Improving Writing Assistance for Graduate Students - Improving Writing Self-Efficacy of In-Service Teachers

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Abstract: To help graduate students with academic writing, a college of education at a large southeastern public research university implemented a new service, Writing Support Circles. The purpose of this paper is to share how changes in the design of this service affected in-service teachers' writing self-efficacy and workshop satisfaction.

"Writing is one of humankind's most powerful tools" that help people communicate despite time and space barriers, share ideas in a variety of print and web formats, and express themselves when seeking inner peace or nurturing a creative talent (MacArthur, Graham, & Fitzgerald, 2006, p. 1). Not surprisingly, the National Commission on Writing for America's Families, Schools, and Colleges (2003) called educators' and policy makers' attention to this powerful tool: "American education will never realize its potential as an engine of opportunity and economic growth until a writing revolution puts language and communication in their proper place in the classroom" (p. 3). Unfortunately, in the U.S. students from K-12 to graduate school do not have adequate writing skills. For example, a recent national assessment of student writing showed that 88% of 8th graders and 82% of 12th graders score only at the basic level, which "denotes partial mastery of prerequisite knowledge and skills that are fundamental for proficient work at a given grade" (Salahu-Din, Persky, & Miller, 2008, p. 6). This partial mastery does not qualify these students as proficient or competent writers. The students bring these inadequate writing skills with them to college. Fifty percent of freshmen make serious grammatical mistakes in their academic papers (National Commission on Writing for America's Families, Schools, and Colleges, 2003). Thirty percent of doctoral students have been observed to lack skills necessary to conduct a literature review and to analyze and present the reviewed literature to identify the significance of their own research (Switzer & Perdue, 2011).

Despite graduate students' poor writing skills, the search for ways to improve graduate level writing has not received much attention. Some graduate programs require or suggest students to take a stand-alone writing course (e.g., see Street & Stang, 2008); however, most do not offer a writing course, partially due to the program curricular demands around the content and credit hour limit (Sallee, Hallett, & Tierney, 2011). Some graduate programs incorporate teaching academic writing into research courses (e.g., Sallee et al., 2011) and content area courses (e.g., McCarthy, 2008); some programs and instructors chose to give more guidance to students with their writing, for example by using rubrics, TurnitIn, and Track Changes when providing feedback and grading. However, often assistance with writing is limited to courses for non-native speakers at intensive English programs and writing centers on university campuses, none of which focus on graduate level academic writing. By graduate level academic writing, we refer to that style of written communication that has become acceptable in institutions of higher education in the USA. This writing has specific expectations to the audience, mechanics, logic and organization, support of an argument, critical thinking, and use of literature (Craswell, 2005).

Although graduate students in all academic disciplines have poor academic writing skills, colleges of education could feel a heavier responsibility towards this issue because they prepare teachers who would spend their professional lives teaching children many subjects, including writing. As the National Commission on Writing (2006) stated, "the best hope for improving both writing and schools generally lies in high-quality professional development" of teachers (p. 9). Elementary and secondary school teachers serve a fundamental role in developing student writing skills, regardless of the degree of freedom they have over the structure and content of writing/literacy instruction (Street & Stang, 2008). Teacher professional development can come in many forms and at many points in the teacher's career; however, teacher education programs in colleges and universities remain fundamental in preparing both pre-service and in-service teachers to facilitate student academic growth. Unfortunately, teacher preparation programs put a larger emphasis on and provide more training in teaching reading than teaching writing (Grisham & Wolsey, 2005). Similarly, research on how teachers become good writers and learn how to teach writing to their students has been limited (Abbate-Vaughn, 2007). To help graduate students with writing, a college of education at a large southeastern public research university implemented a new service, Writing Support Circles (WSCs), for two cohorts of graduate students in a teacher education program supported by a grant. 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. WSCs were offered to the first cohort and based on the student feedback and the researchers' observations, the design of WSCs was changed to improve student learning. The purpose of this paper is to share how changes in WSC design affected in-service teachers' writing self-efficacy and workshop satisfaction.

Writing Skills and Teachers

Many K-12 teachers feel inadequately prepared in the area of literacy/language arts and incompetent in their own writing ability and, hence, struggle to teach their students to write (Hochstetler, 2007; Street & Stang, 2008). Many pre-service and in-service teachers do not have solid writing experiences when they were K-12 students themselves and cannot bring those experiences into their classrooms (McCarthy, 2008). As a result, many pre-service and in-service teachers are concerned about their instructional skills to teach writing and knowledge of English grammar, the writing process, and relevant curriculum standards. Gallavan, Bowles, and Young (2007) found that pre-service teachers highly value writing for themselves and their preK-12 students. Only half of the students indicated feeling proficient to teach writing to their students. They reported feeling proficient because "any educated person can (and should be able to) teach writing" (p. 65) and because they learned it by working with a knowledgeable English colleague. Some do not consider teaching writing their responsibility and leave teaching writing for English teachers. Those who do not feel knowledgeable to teach writing explain it by a lack of instruction in their teacher education programs. However, the pre-service teachers were more confident in some other areas of writing. Four out of five felt proficient in writing correctly and clearly, communicating effectively in writing, and reflecting personally and professionally through writing. They explained this confidence in their writing proficiency by the belief that they wrote a lot and in different forms during their coursework, that everyone with a college degree should have this proficiency, and that others understand their writing. Abbate-Vaughn (2007) researched writing skills and beliefs about writing skills of graduate students, which included students with and without preK-12 teaching experiences, in teacher education programs. Most students (71%) reported being very comfortable with general writing (e.g., emails and personal journals) and fewer (24%) with academic writing (e.g., term papers and

conference proposals). Of those who reported being comfortable with either form of writing, only 13% scored at the competent level and 26% scored at the unsatisfactory level on a writing prompt that asked them to write a five paragraph essay on a topic.

Writing and Teacher Education

The National Writing Project (n.d.), which started in 1974, is the only federally sponsored project that aims to teach teachers how to write and, ultimately, to improve the quality of education in the nation. The project connects colleges and universities that provide professional development related to writing to teachers of all content areas and grade levels across all 50 states. The project is based on the belief 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. In 2010, the project served 3000 school districts and 1.4 million K-12 students (The National Writing Project, 2010a) and showed significant improvements in writing in students whose teachers participated in the project (The National Writing Project, 2010b). These improvements are evident in students across grade level and school context and in the areas of writing promoted by the project, including the quality and organization of thought in writing.

Another well-known initiative connected to the National Writing Project that promotes writing of teachers is the Bay Area Project that was founded in 1974 as collaboration between the Graduate School of Education at the University of California, Berkley, and the Bay Area schools. This project is grounded on the idea that "teachers are the best teachers of teachers" (The Bay Area Writing Project, n.d., para. 1). The project provides professional development for teachers to enable them to facilitate mastery of writing skills of other teachers who can facilitate writing skills of their students.

Some teacher education programs and colleges of education suggest or require students to take a writing course. For example, Street and Stang (2008) report on graduate level writing course for in-service teachers that incorporated a model of the National Writing Project. The course assignments focused on "effective writing, writing across the curriculum, writing for professional audiences, and teaching writing to adolescents" (p. 43). Students were offered to rewrite their pieces as many times as they wanted after receiving feedback from the instructors and rubrics. If the students received an "A" for this course, their work was considered publishable. Almost two thirds of the students who took the class during the five years that the class was required received an "A." After the course completion, most (79%) indicated that taking the course changed their understanding of teaching writing, and many (71%) indicated that it would help them provide their students writing assistance.

McMillen, Garcia, and Bolin (2010) revised a core course in a graduate level teacher education program to a seminar with a "focus on developing professionalism through writing" (p. 427). The revised course included writing two research papers that were acceptable for a journal or conference submission. To assist students in improving their information literacy, a librarian was invited to collaborate in revising and teaching the course. After completing the course, the students indicated an improvement in their confidence as writers and researchers, a better understanding of the connections between theory and practice, and a need in rethinking their approaches to classroom teaching.

Some teacher educators incorporate writing in their other courses. For example, Uy and Frank (2004) argue that writing and mathematics have much in common: both are creative endeavors that allow for multiple ways of reaching the same outcome. They integrated writing into their mathematics teacher education classes. Students were asked to write an ending to a

story using different mathematical concepts. The students wrote the endings integrating such mathematical concepts as multiplying fractions, simultaneous linear equations, and least common multiples. Similarly, McCarthy (2008) incorporated a graphic organizer to help pre-service teachers do more writing in a mathematics methods class. The students were asked to write about math and about their experiences teaching math in a graphic organizer; later they discussed the use of writing in a math class. This activity helped the students to combine writing and mathematics, reflect on their experiences as K-12 students with writing in math classes, and write about their experiences with teaching math.

Writing Support Circles

Writing Support Circles (WSCs), which were implemented in this project, are based on Vopat's (2009) writing circles for children. Vopat's writing circles help children learn how to write, edit, and publish writings on different topics in groups. Children collaborate with each other in small groups, receive support from an adult facilitator, and learn different responsibilities involved in the writing and editing process. One of the main goals of the process is for the children to get "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 adults interested in learning to write or improving their writing skills. For example, some writing circles focus on 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.).

We adapted Vopat's (2009) idea of the writing circles to provide graduate students support with 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). Academic writing is a communication style accepted by the academic community (Craswell, 2005). We believe that academic writing is a part of graduate student socialization in the academic community and that graduate students have to learn to communicate within this community. Most graduate students come to their programs not knowing academic writing; however, most graduate programs expect them to know academic writing. Therefore, WSCs are a support service to help graduate students to learn academic writing. These WSCs are offered independently from a program. WSC consist of a group of students who meet bi-weekly for a 1-1.5 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 with the guidance of a facilitator.

Project Description

Participants and Setting

The project took place at a large southeastern public research university located in a diverse urban area. The project was developed as a part of a federally funded grant that aims to provide academic support services to Hispanic/Latino graduate students in a master's program in a College of Education. These students completed their programs in two consecutive cohorts. Cohort one (C-1) consisted of 11 students and cohort two (C-2) had 10 students. The participants differed in age and teaching experience. They were all Hispanic/Latino and in-service teachers of low-performing public schools. All participants were required to attend WSCs as a part of their obligation to the grant. Students in C-1 participated in WSCs during a 6-

week summer term while also taking 2 classes. They attended three WSC sessions; each session lasted 1.5 hours. Students in C-2 participated in WSCs during two 6-week summer terms while also taking one class each term. They attended six WSC sessions; each session lasted 1 hour.

WSC Design

The design of WSCs differed for the two cohorts. A summary of the differences is provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Differences in WSC Design between Cohort-1 and Cohort-2

WSC design element	Cohort-1	Cohort-2
WSC purpose	To equip with transferrable skills related to writing that students can use when working on projects for different classes or beyond the required coursework.	To help students with writing assignments for their classes
Duration	1.5 hours	1 hour
Content	Issues related to English grammar and academic writing	Issues related to academic writing
Target level of instruction	Paragraph and sentence	Paper
Role of the facilitator	To lead the WSC discussion and provide guidance with peer-review	To provide direct instruction and answer student questions
Goal for student collaboration	To learn with each other and from each other how to craft their papers	To work on activities assigned during WSCs
Role of the course instructor	To help to identify the target level of instruction	To help to identify the course writing assignment and a topic for each WSC
Communication between the facilitator and the course instructor	Email exchange and one phone conversation with one instructor prior to WSCs	Email exchanges and face-to-face meetings with both instructors prior to WSCs and email exchanges during the term WSCs were offered
Structure	5 minute mini lesson followed by reading and critiquing writing samples	Varied; included a power point presentation, Q and A, activities

Cohort - 1. The purpose of these WSCs was to equip with transferrable skills related to writing that students could use when working on projects for different classes or beyond the required coursework. They did not provide help with homework and focused on issues related to English grammar and academic writing. The WSC facilitator discussed the content with one of

the class instructors and decided to focus WSC on issues related to paragraph and sentence structure, including writing effective paragraphs, cutting the clutter, and parallel construction. Each WSC consisted of a 5 minute mini lesson presented by the facilitator followed by reading and critiquing writing samples, or student work completed for their classes. The facilitator led the WSC discussion and provided guidance with peer review. Ultimately, we hoped that such design would help students to learn with and from each other how to craft their papers.

   Cohort – 2. The purpose of these WSCs was to help students with writing assignments for their classes and focused on issues related to academic writing. The WSC facilitator discussed the content with both course instructors and decided to focus on helping students mostly with writing class papers. The topics of WSCs were identified with the help of the instructors how to: adhere to APA requirements for quoting and paraphrasing, do a literature review, cite sources in text and in references, write a 250 word summary of a theory, identify sources to meet the course requirements, describe an effective learning environment, and approach the final exam questions. The structure of each session varied; the facilitator provided direct instruction to the students, which usually included PowerPoint presentations, activities, and answering student questions and addressing concerns. Students collaborated when the instructor assigned small group work; however, collaboration was a small part of each session.

Results

   The participants in both cohorts completed two evaluation instruments: a writing self-efficacy survey and the WSC evaluation survey.

Writing Self-Efficacy Survey

   The students completed a writing self-efficacy survey to evaluate their perceptions of writing skills during the first and last session. This survey is based on Zimmerman and Bandura's (1994) instrument, which included 25 statements related to one's perception about writing abilities. The students ranked their responses to these statements on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). We added seven qualitative questions to the original instrument. 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 was reviewed 3 times by a group of doctoral students who did not participate in the WSC program. The C-1 participants completed the survey in the paper and pencil format; the C-2 participants received and completed the survey in MS Word format and returned it as an email attachment.

   Out of 11 participants in C-1, only 7 completed the instrument during the first and last sessions. Writing self-efficacy of these 7 students as a group increased by 3%. The largest increase occurred around statement 21 ("When I have written a long or complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors") by 8 points and statement 23 ("When I edit a complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors") by 6 points.

   Out of 10 participants in C-2, only 6 completed the instrument during the first and last sessions. Writing self-efficacy of these 6 students as a group increased by 7.5%. The largest increase occurred around statement 19 ("When I get stuck writing a paper, I can find ways to overcome the problem") by 8 points and statements 14 ("I can locate and use appropriate reference sources when I need to document an important point") and 21 ("When I have written a long or complex paper, I can find and correct all my grammatical errors") by 7 points.

WSC Evaluation Survey

   The students were also asked to complete the WSC evaluation survey to evaluate their satisfaction 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 C-1 participants, 8 completed the

instrument; out of 10 C-2 participants, 9 completed the instrument. The survey consisted of 3 parts. The first part included five statements related to participant satisfaction with the structure, pace, and usefulness of the workshops, the knowledge gained, and the effectiveness of the facilitator. The students rated their satisfaction on the scale 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). The results of the first part of the instrument for C -1 are provided in Table 2 and for C-2 in Table 3.

Table 2
Results of the first part of the WSC evaluation survey for C-1

#	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
	Total number of responses (with percent)	10(25)	8(20)	11(27.5)	11(27.5)	0

Note: n=8

Table 2 shows that most C-1 students chose "not sure" (27.5%) and "disagree" (27.5%) to rate their responses to the five statements. However, nobody chose to strongly disagree with any of the statements.

Table 3
Results of the first part of the WSC evaluation survey for C-2

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

#	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	gained from the workshops.					
5	I am satisfied with the effectiveness of the facilitator.	5	2	0	1	1
	Total number of responses (with percent)	21(46.7)	15(33.3)	1(2.2.)	3(6.7)	5(11.1)

Note: n=9

Table 3 shows that most C-2 students chose "strongly agree" (46.7%) and "agree" (33.3%) to rate their responses to the five statements. Only 20% of the responses fell into the "not sure," "disagree," and "strongly disagree" options.

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). For students in C-1, the lowest ranking was 2 and the highest was 9. The mean was 5.63. For students in C-2, the lowest ranking was 5 and the highest was 10. The mean was 8.3.

The final section was open-ended and asked students to write their comments and suggestions. In C-1, 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 were related to not receiving credit for their participation in the WSCs and with WSCs not directly related to their course assignments. In C-2, also only 5 students provided responses. Three comments were positive: "The writing circles have been extremely helpful in gaining insight into the assignment and writings of the graduate courses" and "As of now I am satisfied with the help obtained from the Writing Support." Two other commented on a difference between information provided by WSCs and course instructors.

Discussion

The Writing Self-Efficacy Survey showed an increase in student self-efficacy. The increase for C-1 was 3% and for C-2 - 7.5%. The increase in C-2 is bigger. One possible explanation of this is a larger amount of WSC instruction received by C-2. The C-1 students had 4.5 hours and C-2 students - 6 hours of WSCs. Therefore, as the hours of instruction increased, it is expected that students' self-efficacy increased as well. Another possible explanation is that the different design of WSC was more helpful for improving student writing. For example, all WSCs for C-2 were carefully aligned with the students' class writing projects and their instructors helped picked the topics of WSCs.

The biggest changes in self-efficacy occurred around the issues which were the focus of WSCs. For example, for C-1 the largest increase occurred around statements that relate to the student ability to edit papers, which was one of the main goals of the WSC-1. For C-2, the largest increase was around issues related to identifying sources, which was related to topics of two WSC sessions, and to finding ways to write even if stuck, which was related to several workshops about organization of different writing.

WSC Evaluation Survey showed an increase in student satisfaction with the WSCs. In C-1, 25% of participants chose "strongly agree" and 20% chose "agree" to the statements about their satisfaction with the WSCs. In C-2, 46.7% of students answered "strongly agree" and

33.3% chose "agree." This result could be attributed to the alignment of WSCs in C-2 with the students' class projects. The students could see a direct link between their classes and the WSCs.

Lessons Learned

We would like to share a few lessons that we learned during the process of developing a new service for students, WSCs, to improve student learning. Our initial design of the WSC was not as successful as we hoped. Although C-1 improved their writing self-efficacy, their responses on the WSC Evaluation Survey showed they were mostly unsure about the usefulness of the service (Plakhotnik & Rocco, 2012). To address this negative response, WSCs were redesigned to focus on helping students in C-2 with writing assignments for their classes. The workshops were customized for a particular class to target an element of the writing assignment that could present a problem to the students and that was discussed with their instructor. Therefore, their increased satisfaction with the WSCs was expected. Four lessons come to mind. First, a teaching and learning practice that works for children is not always easy to translate into an adult learning environment. We were not as successful as Vopat (2009) in fostering joy about writing and collaboration among our participants. The WSCs discussed by Vopat are led by the instructor with the power and authority to determine grades. These WSCs were led by a facilitator from a supporting office with no authority over the participants. Second, graduate level students are concerned with completing their degrees, so we have learned that help with their academic writing has to be intertwined with or directly related to their coursework. Third, we agree with Abbate-Vaughn's (2007) findings that many students do not know that their writing skills are poor. Students do not receive feedback from instructors about their writing, and the feedback that some students do receive is that the writing is excellent when it is not, so we have learned that offering help with writing could be met with resistance, frustration, and even anger. Finally, we have learned that some students, who are also in-service teaches, do not think writing good is crucial for their profession or their responsibilities as K-12 teachers. They do not see a connection between writing a class paper in graduate school and their practice as teachers, their ability to reflect and solve problems, and professionalism. Teachers with poor writing skills could transfer those poor writing skills to the students in their charge.

This experience has made us think about a culture at the university where writing is pushed to the periphery, where the priority is given to the course content, and where students are not expected to communicate clearly in a written from. Students write poorly not only because an individual instructor did not give them guidance, but because that instructor has never been asked, taught, or required to provide such guidance. Services like WSCs that try to help students with improving the quality of their class papers become meaningless if course instructors are not concerned with the quality of class papers. Instructors are the authority and our services are powerless to create change at anything but an individual level; we can help but we cannot require. How can this dilemma be addressed? We think that unless we change the culture of how we think about writing in at the university, student writing will not improve.

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Richard Rodriguez, Norman Podhoretz, and Arnold Schwarzenegger: Learning English by "Immersion." Really?

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Abstract: A close look at the English acquisition processes of Richard Rodriguez, Norman Podhoretz, and Arnold Schwarzenegger reveals that, far from their contentions that they learned English by immersion, which led them to dismiss bilingual education, they benefitted from numerous sources of help largely unavailable to English Language Learners nationwide.

The debate on the merits of bilingual education to teach English to English Language Learners (ELLs) has been present throughout the history of the United States. Traditionally portrayed by its adversaries as a threat to the assimilation of ELLs into the American mainstream due to its supposed allegiance to students' native languages and cultures to the detriment of English, bilingual education has been subject to constant attacks, dating back to the birth of our nation as an independent country (Crawford, 2004). Some examples of this trend were Benjamin Franklin and the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge's attempts to anglicize Pennsylvania's German-speaking population by establishing English schools in the state in the 18th century; the approval of English-only legislation by various Mid-Western states towards the end of the following century (Crawford, 2004); or nationwide laws against the use of German and other foreign languages during both World Wars (Castro Feinberg, 2002). More recently, the passage of anti-bilingual legislation in California, Arizona, and Massachusetts (Ramos & de Jong, 2003), or the mandates of No Child Left Behind have nearly eliminated bilingual education programs from public schools (Menken, 2008).

Notwithstanding these attacks, languages other than English have continued to be present in the American educational system thanks to specific legislation in some instances, namely an 1839 Ohio law permitting the education of students in English, German, or both languages pending parental authorization (Crawford, 2004); or the result of hard-fought court cases, such as Lau v. Nichols, or Castañeda v. Pickard. The verdicts of these cases allowed school districts nationwide to replace ineffective English-only approaches with alternative methods of instruction, many of which included a native language education component (Crawford, 2004).

Contrary to the aforementioned accusations of promoting minority students' native languages and cultures to the detriment of English, bilingual education is simply an educational program that uses varying amounts of native language instruction to prevent ELLs from falling behind in academics due to their insufficient command of English. The primary language knowledge and literacy thus developed helps ELLs better understand the English they hear and, as a result, experience a faster and easier transition to classes conducted solely in English (Crawford & Krashen, 2007).

The outcomes of scholarly research in the field largely favor this instructional approach. Thus, the findings of program evaluations (Ramirez, 1992), meta-analyses (Greene, 1997; Krashen & McField, 2005), and surveys conducted among teachers (Karathanos, 2009; Ramos, 2005; Ramos, 2009; Shin & Krashen, 1996), parents (Shin & Gribbons, 1996; Shin & Lee, 1996), and administrators (Shin, Anton, & Krashen, 1999), strongly support the positive impact

of native language instruction on the schooling of ELLs. Notwithstanding, the consistency of these findings has been questioned in the media and in public forums (deJong & Ramos, 2003), on the basis that many non-English-speaking individuals mastered English by just being immersed in it (De la Peña, 1991). Three of the best-known, most outspoken individuals in this regard are Richard Rodriguez, Norman Podhoretz, and Arnold Schwarzenegger. A well-known journalist and author, a reputed magazine editor and author, and a former governor of California, respectively, Rodriguez, Podhoretz, and Schwarzenegger have used their clout to boast their successful immersion experiences in English and to discredit bilingual education. Moreover, Podhoretz and Schwarzenegger are members of the Advisory Board of U.S. English, an organization advocating the declaration of English as the official language of the U.S. and opposed to bilingual education (U.S. English, 2013).

The present investigation conducted content analyses (Strauss & Corbin, 1994) of available primary and secondary sources in order to examine Rodriguez', Podhoretz', and Schwarzenegger's routes to English acquisition, and to identify possibly unacknowledged factors impacting their respective successes. A closer look at these routes revealed the presence of additional sources of help, including support in their first and second languages, sources of comprehensible input in English, and access to print, largely unavailable to a majority of ELLs nationwide. In other words, Rodriguez', Podhoretz', and Schwarzenegger's English acquisition processes were not as streamlined as purported. With these premises in mind, the following sections feature Rodriguez', Podhoretz' and Schwarzenegger's explanations of their respective English acquisition processes, uncover those unidentified factors impacting their accomplishments, analyze similarities and differences in their routes to English mastery, and draw conclusions and implications for further research.

Routes to English Acquisition

Despite having been born in San Francisco to Mexican immigrant parents, Richard Rodriguez grew up in Sacramento, where he attended Catholic, English-Only, parochial schools. When Rodriguez was in 2nd grade, three nuns from his school visited his home and asked his parents to use English in order to help Rodriguez improve his command of this language. While the switch appeared to benefit Rodriguez at school, it had a very negative impact on family interactions. Thus, the family's vibrant exchanges in Spanish were progressively replaced by a "new quiet at home" (Rodriguez, 1982, p. 23), given the parents' limited command of English and the offspring's continuously increasing proficiency in this language. Rodriguez gradually embraced English, which he described as the public language of success, and renounced to Spanish, which he identified as a private language. After his years of compulsory education, Rodriguez attended Stanford University, Columbia University, the University of California, Berkeley, and the Warburg Institute in London. He became the San Francisco editor of Pacific News Service and wrote op-eds for numerous publications, among them *U.S. News & World Report*, the *Los Angeles Times*, the *New York Times*, or the *Wall Street Journal*. His successful experience learning English led him to become a fervent critic of bilingual education on the grounds that, "supporters of bilingual education today imply that students like me miss a great deal by not being taught in their family's language" (Rodriguez, 1982, p. 19)

Norman Podhoretz was born in Brooklyn to Yiddish-speaking parents and thereby grew up speaking more Yiddish than English, especially with his non-English-speaking grandmothers (Podhoretz, 2000). Because of this circumstance, he developed a heavily accented English, which often caused him to be misidentified at school as a recently arrived immigrant (Jeffers, 2010). To help him rid of his accent, the school principal placed Podhoretz in a remedial-speech

class focusing on drill-and-kill pronunciation exercises (Podhoretz, 2000). The class had an extraordinary impact on Podhoretz' life in that it eliminated his accent and enabled him to "speak like a classier and more cultivated person that I actually was" (Podhoretz, 2000, p. 32). From then on, Podhoretz consistently credited the class for his subsequent accomplishments and became a staunch supporter of English as the pivotal tool for success in the U.S. Simultaneously, he considered himself lucky for not having been placed in bilingual education programs. In his own words, "as I was blessed, so they were cursed, and as I was enriched, so were they impoverished" (Podhoretz, 2000, p. 58). In fact, he considered bilingual education a "demented and discredited theory" (Podhoretz, 2000, p. 58) and pejoratively disregarded research in the field as biased and contrary to "common sense" (Podhoretz, 2000, p. 58). Upon completing his mandatory education, Podhoretz attended Columbia University, the Jewish Theological Seminary, and the University of Cambridge, became the Editor-in-Chief of "Commentary" for nearly four decades, contributed to the *National Review* and *The Wall Street Journal*, and authored several books on domestic and foreign policy.

Finally, Arnold Schwarzenegger spent his childhood and adolescence in Austria and Germany, gaining worldwide recognition as the winner of several bodybuilding contests (Andrews, 2003). After arriving in California at the age of 21, he continued his involvement in bodybuilding, winning additional contests and pursuing careers in acting and politics; he also earned a business degree in the international marketing of physical fitness from the University of Wisconsin in Superior (Halperin, 2010; Leigh, 1990). Notwithstanding his movie career, it was in the field of politics that Schwarzenegger achieved his most significant milestone, becoming Governor of California from 2003 to 2011. From this powerful position, he encouraged immigrants to follow his path to English mastery, which he summarized as not using his native German and practicing English as much as possible. He described this process as learning English by immersion (Ramos & Krashen, in press). Thus, he explained that, "…when I came to this country, I did not, or very rarely, spoke German to anyone" (Office of the Governor, 2007). On the contrary, he stated he took "every opportunity to spend time with friends who spoke English and practice English all the time. There was no other way" (Glaister, 2006). This naturally included watching television in English: "I couldn't understand a word they were saying, but nevertheless I watched it, and eventually I got with it, and I learned" (Office of the Governor, 2007).

Factors Impacting Acquisition of English

Based on his personal experience, Rodriguez contended that immigrants should learn English in English and that parents contribute to this effort by communicating in English at home (Rodriguez, 1982). Yet, it seems necessary to note that he enjoyed some advantages in his route to English mastery. First, he grew up in an English-speaking neighborhood, and this, at least theoretically, facilitated his exposure to sources of conversational English. He also attended remedial reading sessions with an old nun, who read to him from her favorite books, mostly biographies of American presidents. These sessions stimulated Rodriguez' passion for reading and, following other teachers' recommendations, he finished "Moby Dick," "The Good Earth," and "The Pearl" in 4th grade and the hundred most important books of Western Civilization, as listed in a newspaper article, while in high school (Rodriguez, 1982). Rodriguez always credited reading for its positive impact on his life:

> My habit of reading made me a confident speaker and writer of English. Reading also
> enabled me to sense something of the shape, the major concerns of Western thought… In

these various ways, books brought me academic success as I hoped that they would. (Rodriguez, 1982, pp. 63-64)

Despite his accent troubles, and according to his own recollection, Podhoretz was already a fluent speaker of English upon entering elementary school. As he himself explained, "in any event, when I was a little boy, I spoke Yiddish… as fluently as I did English" (Podhoretz, 2000, p. 21). Moreover, he received extensive one-on-one help for three years from a teacher who exposed him to numerous enriching literary and cultural experiences. From the time Podhoretz was 13 until turning 16 his teacher accompanied him to museums and theatres and shared with him the works of T.S. Eliot, Robinson Jeffers, Keats, and Baudelaire, among many others (Podhoretz, 2000). His love for reading, first developed at home upon witnessing both his grandfather and his father read Yiddish and English newspapers daily (Podhoretz, 2000) and later groomed by his teacher, propelled Podhoretz to read the Grimms' brothers' fairy tales, Norse myths, and Mark Twain's books in elementary school, Shakespeare and Walt Whitman in secondary school, and Rabelais, Dostoevsky, and Chaucer, as well as "Disraeli himself and everything ever written about him, nineteenth-century history, Victorian novels and memoirs" later on while at Columbia (Podhoretz, 1967, p. 104). Similarly to Rodriguez, Podhoretz credited his passion for reading as a major contributor to his accomplishments.

Notwithstanding his contentions that he never spoke in German in the U.S., Schwarzenegger did in fact use this language with several individuals, one of them his close friend and fellow bodybuilder Franco Columbu, whom he had met in Munich a few years before. In fact, their conversations in this language were especially troubling for Schwarzenegger's girlfriend at the time because she thought they were joking and talking about her (Leamer, 2005). Moreover, Schwarzenegger conversed in German with members of the Kennedy family such as Rose and Ted Kennedy, and Sargent Shriver, about music, art, opera, books, history, Soviet premiers, and European law (Andrews, 2003; Leigh, 1990).

In regards to his exposure to English, Schwarzenegger's high school education in Austria included seven years of formal study of this language (Outland Baker, 2006). Once in California, he enrolled in various English as a Second Language classes, as well as English for Foreign Students, and regular English and general education classes at Santa Monica College. Furthermore, he received help in English from fellow bodybuilders and acquaintances, and from Barbara Outland Baker, his girlfriend of six years. Baker, an English teacher and reading specialist herself, helped Schwarzenegger hone his writing skills by drafting and revising letters to contest sponsors, bodybuilding officials, and clients during his entrepreneurial beginnings. Schwarzenegger gratefully acknowledged her support, stating, "Who knows where I'd be today if it weren't for her lessons!" (Outland Baker, 2006, p. ix).

Lastly, Schwarzenegger had taken business courses in Austria (Halperin, 2010) and enrolled in such business-related courses as microeconomics, macroeconomics, accounting, and computers at the community college and university level once in California (Ramos & Krashen, in press). Additionally, a fellow bodybuilder, himself a Math teacher, tutored him in math and algebra (Outland Baker, 2006) while a second one, a successful entrepreneur, helped him start his own marketing company (Schwarzenegger & Hall, 1977).

Discussion

Rodriguez, Podhoretz, and Schwarzenegger illustrate many different routes to English mastery. Rodriguez was placed in a mainstream English classroom on entering school, while Podhoretz grew up bilingually, hearing Yiddish at home and English at school, and

Schwarzenegger learned English as a foreign language in his native Austria and benefitted from individual tutoring in English and business-related issues once in the U.S. Despite these differences, their respective paths to English acquisition show some commonalities (see Table 1). These include support in their first and second languages, comprehensible input in English, and access to print.

Table 1.

Advantages for Rodriguez, Podhoretz, and Schwarzenegger

Advantages	Rodriguez	Podhoretz	Schwarzenegger
Support in native language	Yes	Yes	Yes
Comprehensible input in English	Yes	Yes	Yes
English as a Second Language	No	No	Yes
English as a Foreign Language	No	No	Yes
Friends/Acquaintances	?	?	Yes
Reading	Yes	Yes	Yes

Rodriguez', Podhoretz' and Schwarzenegger's exposure to their respective primary languages at home for several years allowed them to develop knowledge and literacy in their native tongues. Despite his adamant rejection of Spanish after 2nd grade, Rodriguez had already communicated in this language with his parents for the first 8 years of his life, while Podhoretz continued to converse in Yiddish with his family and Schwarzenegger used German steadily to talk to acquaintances and future in-laws. Moreover, all three individuals benefitted from sources of comprehensible input in English. Rodriguez, for example, received individual help from a nun who read to him, while Podhoretz became a "special pet" (Podhoretz, 1967, p. 8) to a teacher who enriched his education for 3 years, and Schwarzenegger's acquaintances provided constant, ongoing linguistic and business-related tutoring. Interestingly, these two factors, primary language development and comprehensible input in English, are essential components of well-designed bilingual education programs (Ramos & Krashen, 2011) and of what is known as *de facto* bilingual education: content and literacy development in primary language and comprehensible input in English (Ramos & Krashen, 2011). Primary language subject matter and literacy development helps students increase their background knowledge and knowledge of the world. This knowledge, in turn, helps make the English heard in class more comprehensible thanks to the existing transfer of skills between languages (Crawford & Krashen, 2007). This process was clearly described by Fernando De la Peña, himself ironically another well-known adversary of bilingual education, in his book *Democracy or Babel* when explaining his own father's acquisition of English: "He learned a lot of English in this class-which was not a grammar or composition class-but one in refrigeration (since he already knew the subject, he could focus on the words, so it was an English course for him)" (De la Peña, 1991, p. 21). In the present manuscript, Schwarzenegger's business background from Austria clearly made the business concepts heard in English more comprehensible, thereby allowing him to concentrate on the language.

Rodriguez and Podhoretz became voracious readers during their childhood and all three individuals continued to develop their reading skills during their academic careers. In so doing,

they benefitted from the power of reading, a potent source of comprehensible input unfortunately largely unavailable to many immigrants with low levels of English literacy and limited access to libraries (Krashen, 2004). Reading has a powerful impact on the development of first and second language literacy (Krashen, 2004), as well as on the acquisition of academic language (Krashen, 2012). Moreover, extensive reading may become the springboard to significant school and life accomplishments, as exemplified by the present cases and other individuals who, despite childhood predicaments, achieved important milestones later in life, for example Bishop Desmond Tutu, Geoffrey Canada, Liz Murray, or Reyna Grande (Krashen, 2011; Krashen & Williams, 2012).

In sum, contrary to their assertions, neither Rodriguez, nor Podhoretz or Schwarzenegger learned English simply by being immersed in this language. On the contrary, they received additional support, mostly unavailable to a large majority of ELLs attending our schools, which made this process much more palatable (Ramos & Krashen, in press). This included additional one-on-one tutoring in English, prior knowledge of the language, comprehensible input, or access to print. Their advantageous positions in this regard make their unsubstantiated criticism of bilingual education more difficult to understand. First, neither of them participated in these programs. In Rodriguez' case, his initial difficulties with English derived from his placement in English-Only classrooms. While he appeared to believe not to have missed "a great deal" by not being taught in his family's language at school, his family certainly seemed to have missed a great deal at home. As for Podhoretz, he was never a candidate for bilingual education due to his English fluency upon entering school. Hence, his real "blessing" was his familiarity with English rather than his not having been placed in a bilingual education program. Finally, Schwarzenegger was a product of primary language schooling in German and English as a foreign language. The individual tutoring received from acquaintances and the numerous English courses he enrolled in once in California discredit his advice for immigrants to avoid using their primary languages while relying exclusively on English as the best way to learn this language.

Conclusion

The present manuscript examined the English acquisition processes of three vocal critics of bilingual education, Richard Rodriguez, Norman Podhoretz, and Arnold Schwarzenegger. Despite their contentions that they learned English by immersion, which led them to discredit bilingual education, Rodriguez, Podhoretz, and Schwarzenegger received large amounts of help largely unavailable to most immigrant students in our schools. Additionally, their negative opinions about bilingual education appeared to be based on hearsay rather than first-hand experience. In light of these findings, it appears necessary to approach these and other, analogous considerations presenting a simplistic view of English acquisition with a certain degree of caution and to conduct closer examinations of those cases in order to identify undisclosed or overlooked factors playing significant roles in the process.

Rodriguez', Podhoretz', and Schwarzenegger's are not atypical stories of success in English. In fact, every adult immigrant who has succeeded in this language thanks to their being "immersed" in it enjoyed advantages parallel to the ones described here (Ramos & Krashen, 1997; 2001). Be it in the form of continuous provision of comprehensible input or extensive reading, research on English acquisition reveal that the challenges encountered along this long and complex endeavor are significantly mitigated when individuals receive, as Rodriguez, Podhoretz, and Schwarzenegger did, a little help from their friends.

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An Examination of the AP United States History Exam Free Response Section

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Abstract: Michael S. Henry examined the first 30 years of the AP United States History exam's essay section. This study examined changes that have occurred over the last 20 years by classifying questions into one of six categories and found little change in the types of essays used during this timeframe.

Students enter a classroom for a course in Unites States History with certain expectations. The students expect to be confronted, whether in the secondary classroom or at a university with a history of extraordinary events and people (Filene, 1980). They anticipate a history of soldiers, senators, ambassadors, and presidents. It is a history of elections, treaties and wars. This follows a traditional pattern of exploring history established in the 19th century.

However, the traditional method of teaching history has been in direct opposition to the presentation of modern American history survey courses at universities. Universities for the most part abandoned the traditional form of history in the 1960s and have moved towards social history and an understanding of America's significance within the larger international context. Guarneri (2002) discussed a trend in internationalizing of survey courses at the university level. This is not just how America relates through foreign policy and war; instead, it looks at how domestic affairs are affected by foreign affairs and conversely how American domestic affairs now affect the rest of the world. In addition to the movement towards examining American history through an international context, historians have also turned to sub-national groups and their impact upon American history (Frank, Wong, Meyer, & Ramirez, 2000). This history focuses upon women and minority groups such as Native and African Americans and their effect upon the society within the nation.

The secondary curriculum has maintained much of the traditional historical slant as defined by Filene. Of the secondary curricula for American history, the Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) exam by the College Board is considered one of the most rigorous. It is sought after on college transcripts as it is intended to replicate the American history survey course offered at the university level. APUSH is one of the oldest AP tests. It was one of the original 11 exams given in 1956, AP's first year. Through its history it has been an important test in secondary curriculum. Of the 3,698,407 AP exams given in 2012, 427,796 were APUSH (College Board, 2012a). This represents almost 12% of the total AP exams taken worldwide. This is second only to English Language and Composition.

The College Board has designed the course to be equivocal to an introductory course in U.S. history at the university level. The College Board describes the course:

> The AP U.S. History course is designed to provide students with the analytic skills and factual knowledge necessary to deal critically with the problems and materials in U.S. history. The program prepares students for intermediate and advanced college courses by making demands upon them equivalent to those made by full-year introductory college courses. (College Board, 2012b, p. 5)

As changes in the syllabi of university courses steer in new directions, it should be expected that the APUSH course would do the same. As such, the test for the 2014-2015 school year of the

course will undergo a major overhaul. This is the first major change since the introduction of the Document Based Question (DBQ) in 1973, which replicates the methodology of the historian through the writing of an essay in which test takers analyze and use primary source documents in their response. Over the 40 year span since the introduction of the DBQ, university courses in American history have moved away from history as a primarily political narrative to an examination of the social and cultural factors related to the political narrative. Examining the Free Response Questions (FRQ) of the APUSH test should give insight into whether the APUSH test, and thus the course to prepare for the test, has made the same transition as its college counterparts. It may also give insight as to the direction in which the revamped test will turn in 2014.

 To accomplish this, the researcher has updated and used a categorical framework of question analysis created by Michael S. Henry (1994) to examine the FRQs of the APUSH exam. Henry looked at the first 30 years of APUSH FRQs to determine whether the APUSH test changed as the examination of history in university courses changed. Henry's research showed the dominance of traditional forms of history over themes of social history that have grown to become more relevant in university curricula. The changes in the college courses have accelerated over the 20 years since Henry's research. This study has examined the past 20 years worth of FRQs from the APUSH test to determine if trends have changed since Henry's work in the early 1990s answering the following questions:

 What are the trends on the FRQ questions of the APUSH test over the last 20 years?
 Do the FRQ questions of the APUSH exam reflect more of the material taught in equivocal university courses or high school courses?

Collegiate vs. Secondary Curricula

 Foster and Crawford (2006) have compared the education curriculum to a battleground where the winners of the war define the cultural politics of the nation state. The winners have incorporated their values into the dominant ideology representing society's communal knowledge passed down through the educational curricula. The field for this battle has been the elementary and secondary curriculum. Collegiate survey courses in US history have broken from this primary form of enculturation. This has led to the disconnect felt by students when they transfer from secondary school curriculum to the curriculum found in universities as noted by Waters (2007). In the desire to inculcate the students into the cultural wants of the politician, the two curricula seem almost incompatible. The curriculum of secondary education has created an idealized version of history presented for the maintenance of society's status quo (Waters, 2007). Thus, students exited their secondary education with an idealized picture that accentuates any of their preconceived notions related to either a conservative or a liberal political background. Collegiate curricula have been more likely to focus upon and analyze the instances of society failing to live up to its ideals. Therefore the history presented in the university has been made up of a variety of elements in the field of history that include qualitative studies, local and oral traditions, the history of various social subgroups, and connections between history and the other social sciences (Rosenzweig & Weinland, 1986).

 Research has shown that the dominant mode of instruction used at both the secondary and collegiate levels is the textbook (Goodlad, 1984). Therefore, the content included in the courses of each can be ascertained from an investigation into the content of textbooks from both secondary and collegiate courses. Henry (2011) noted that the view of history in the texts for secondary education did not address the conflicts and inconsistencies of American culture instead focused upon the elites of society and the events that occurred. The secondary text rarely

presents an analytical or oppositional view and leaves an intellectual vacuum. Collegiate texts instead presented a critical view incorporating the interests of the poor and powerless, incorporating moral and political shortcomings of the nation (Henry, 2011).

The APUSH curriculum transitions between the two curricula in an attempt to meet the standards of the states' departments of education and the curricular requirements of the universities. This paper helps to establish which of the two curricula that the APUSH test conforms to and thus which curriculum is presented in class. History curricula in America take two divergent and often dissonant paths. In general, the K-12 curriculum views American history as a triumphal past to be learned as a set of facts. The goal then of the curriculum is the reproduction of these facts as sacred texts within the next generation (Waters, 2007). The college curriculum has been in a state of flux for the past one hundred years. The focus of what is history has shifted from the nation state to the society with supra and sub national foci (Frank et al., 2000). The shift originated with research initiated after World War II and transitioned into the classrooms of universities and colleges upper level history courses and specifically into the American History survey course. This can be seen by changes in scholarly publications in the 1950s. The approach, context, and material shifted in academic works (Brown, 2003). This led to changes in upper level history classes where the topics shifted away from imperialism toward racial and ethnic minorities, women, and social class (Frank et al., 2000). This change is also reflected in the textbooks for those courses.

APUSH Description

The APUSH test was first administered in 1956. It was one of 11 tests designed to give academically gifted students the opportunity to bypass introductory classes at the university level. AP tests were designed to determine whether the established curriculum of the school and the rate of progress of the student sufficed to replace the introductory course at a university (Rothschild, 1999). Tests showed whether students learned enough in their preexisting curriculum to have gained the requisite knowledge of an introductory college course. The tests allowed students to exempt themselves from the introductory class and eliminate redundant curricula (Casserly, 1968). The APUSH test has had several iterations during its existence. It began solely as an essay test. A multiple choice section consisting of 25% of the student's score was added. In 1984, the number of multiple-choice questions increased. With this change, the weighting of the multiple-choice section increased to 50%. In 1973, the DBQ was added. More recently, in 1994, a second non-DBQ essay was added for a total of three essay questions.

Method

The study continues a longitudinal study originally conducted by Henry (1994). Therefore, this study has been conducted using a variation on Henry's six categories. I have eliminated his fifth category, *Historiographic Issues,* because even in Henry's research there had not been a question addressing the history of history since 1972 (Henry, 1994). I did this with the belief the addition of the DBQ required the test taker to demonstrate an understanding of and the ability to use the historical process. With the DBQ, questions related to historiography were redundant and thus eliminated. I also made slight adjustments to the wording of Henry's (1994) categories in order to clarify what I believed to be vague wording. The categories are as follows:

1. Intellectual and cultural issues: Questions addressing how literature, art, architecture, and religion influenced United States history.
2. Minority Issues: Questions addressing the role of African Americans, women, Native Americans, and other minority groups in the development of United States history.

3. Political issues: Questions addressing the evolution of political parties, legislative action, Supreme Court rulings, presidential administrations, and reform movements.
4. Military and diplomatic issues: Questions addressing American involvement in armed conflicts and relations with other nations.
5. Economic and business issues: Questions addressing employment, monetary policy, labor relations, and industrial and agricultural development.
6. Immigration issues: Questions addressing trends in immigration to and within the country and how immigration influenced American development.

I placed all 151 FRQ questions asked between 1993 and 2012 into one of these six categories. To assist in the validation of my categorization I asked two APUSH teachers to also categorize the questions. All three of us categorized the questions independently with the same set of procedures. Only one category could be selected for each question. Categories were not to be chosen based just upon the wording of the questions but on an assumption of the questions' intended outcome. For example, 1995s question number two which asked students to illustrate their answer using legislative assemblies, commerce and religion was categorized as military and diplomatic because all three had to be related to Britain's policy of salutary neglect. This led to an agreement on 118 of 151 questions equaling to a 78% concordance rate. Of the 33 questions where there was disagreement, 32 of the questions had agreement by two of the respondents and all three respondents categorized only one question differently.

Once consensus scores were created, all scores were placed into a matrix and as with Henry's original study divided into five-year intervals (see Table 1). The questions were also separated secondarily into DBQ and formal essay to see if any differences occurred between types of questions (see Table 2).

Results

The categorization of the FRQs led to findings consistent with Henry's study. Comparing totals to those of Henry's original findings revealed slight variations occurred. The distributions remained consistent between studies and over time. The Political category remained the dominant mode of questioning with 52 questions or 35% of the total questions coming from this category over the last 20 years. In Henry's analysis 37.6% were Political. The largest change took place in the Minority category moving from 10.2% in Henry's original findings to 18% of the total questions in this study. When looking at the rank order for the first 30 years Henry found Political (37.6%) was first, followed by Economic/ Business (19.0%), Military/ Diplomatic (17.7%), Minority and Intellectual/ Cultural tied (10.2%) followed by Historiography (2.8%) and Immigration (2.3%). The rank order in my study changed commensurately with the rise in the number of questions from the Minority category. The percent for each of this study's categories was as follows: Political (34.4%), Minority (17.9%), Military/ Diplomatic (15.9%), Economic/ Business (14.6%), Intellectual/ Cultural (11.3%), and Immigration (5.3%).

From 2002 through 2011, the APUSH test incorporated a B form so that two tests for each year existed with separate questions available adding to the total number of questions that could be categorized in those years. Comparing numbers directly between the years did not give an accurate picture of change; therefore, a comparison of percentages was necessary. Slight variations in percentages that took place between 5-year periods could be due to the arbitrary nature of the test and where the breaks in periodizations took place. Even so, Political was the most used category in each of the 5-year periods. In addition, when looking at the results year

over year, each year and form had at least one question from the Political category. The increase in the number of questions from the Minority category demonstrates growth in the social questions that more closely approximate the collegiate curriculum. However, after periodizing the data, the rate of growth in the Minority questions was not consistent over time and cannot be looked upon as a specific long-term trend without further analysis.

Only minor differences were found between the DBQ and essay questions. When the categories were placed in order based upon the number of questions from each category, the DBQ and essay had the similar order with Political being most used and Immigration being the least used. The only difference was the placement of Military/ Diplomatic and Minority in the ranking. In the DBQ Military/ Diplomatic and Minority were equal at 5 questions (16.7% of the questions) and in the essay section there were 27 Minority questions (18.2%), and 22 Military/ Diplomatic questions (15.7%).

Discussion

The data indicated that slight changes have taken place in the APUSH test and thus curriculum over the last 20 years. These results supported the assertion that while the APUSH test has made a shift towards a sociocultural history the course has not made the same shift as the college curricula that it is intended to replicate. Instead, it appeared closer to the static nature of the traditional high school curriculum.

The test relied heavily upon Political and Military/Diplomatic questions, which comprised approximately 50% of the questions. This supported the assumptions the APUSH test and corresponding curriculum more closely replicated the high school curriculum. This then was more similar to the sacred curriculum focused upon elite individuals and political policy described by Waters (2007). It also supported the conclusions made by Henry (2011) that the high school curriculum, even the rigorous APUSH course, is limited in its presentation of the poor and marginalized. This is especially true on the question that most mirrors the historian's task and is the most analytical of questions: the DBQ. In the DBQ, Political (43.3%) and Military/Diplomatic (16.7%) comprise 60% of the total questions over the past 20 years.

A definite, quantifiable shift towards the social history has become more prevalent in college survey courses in American history. It appears both the APUSH test and course failed to meet up with the level of change and integration, which occurred in colleges and universities. The increase in questions in the *Minority* category mirrored the findings of a topic shift to minority groups found by Frank et al. (2000). Yet the Intellectual/Cultural has remained consistent with the findings from the first 30 years. In addition in the most recent decade the number of questions from that category has remained the same while the overall number of questions has increased due to the B form. Because of this, Intellectual/ Cultural questions have declined to 8.5%. The decrease in the Intellectual/ Cultural category is related to Rosenweig and Weinland's (1986) findings of a connection between history and other social sciences at the collegiate level. The connections seemed limited in the APUSH test as well. The only other social science well represented was economics. This could be that economic expansion is such a large part of American history in general as well as economic growth meeting the criterion of the sacred as presented in Water's analysis of high school curricula. Intellectual and Cultural questions made up a small and apparently shrinking percentage of the questions on the APUSH test. Yet topics from this category made up the greatest proportion of history in the collegiate curricula (Rosenweig & Weinland, 1986).

These findings are limited, as only half of the test was analyzed. Certain categories that were infrequently addressed in the FQRs might receive greater coverage in the multiple-choice

section of the test. While assumptions about the curricula were made from the analysis of the test questions, there is no guarantee the curricula will mirror the content of the categories. The AP program gives teachers latitude in their presentation of history. That being said, the goal of the class is to have students pass the AP test and thus it is in the teacher's best interest to align his or her curriculum to the test in order to achieve the greatest possible percentage of students passing the test. The other major limitation of this work was the categories themselves. The categories separated the questions so certain common themes within the questions could emerge. While the categories revealed a large degree of stagnation in the curriculum, only assumptions could be made as to whether the APUSH test reproduced the high school curriculum or the collegiate survey course.

In order to meet these limitations, a slight reworking of the categories and a revamping of the categorization with a larger number of APUSH teachers would lead to greater validity and reliability through more precise categories and greater consensus. Further research also needs to be conducted to understand the trends within the classroom by surveying the respondents whether they believe their curriculum matched the questions and intended outcomes of the free response section. Lastly, a similar analysis of released multiple-choice questions might reveal changes in the percentages of each category addressed throughout the test.

Little change has appeared to occur in the APUSH test over the last 20 years. Tests addressing of questions regarding minority groups appear to rise. This could also be due to minor fluctuations more related to the vagaries of question making than to any concerted effort on the part of the test's supervisory committee to make changes consistent with the collegiate curricula. This can be seen from 2003 to 2007 where 46% of the questions were Political. During this timeframe nine of the ten sets of questions had at least two Political and five out of the ten sets had three questions. No other time frame has so many of any one type of question. This could be due to the arbitrary divisions of timeframes. Had the 5-year span been divided differently the percentages would not have been as high. Still the progress towards what is happening in collegiate survey courses is slow and leaves APUSH in a different place than the courses it is supposed to replicate. The overhaul to be implemented in 2014 appears, based upon this analysis, to be necessary in order for the APUSH test to better align itself with the collegiate curricula it is supposed to replicate.

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Table 1

FRQ's by Five Year Period

Year	Intellectual / Cultural	Minority	Political	Military/ Diplomatic	Economic / Business	Immigration	Total
1993-1997 *n*	4	4	8	5	3	1	25
%	16%	16%	32%	20%	12%	4%	100%
1998-2002 *n*	5	5	9	4	6	1	30
%	16.7%	16.7%	30.0%	13.3%	20.0%	3.3%	100%
2003- 2007 *n*	4	7	23	6	7	3	50
%	8%	14%	46%	12%	14%	6%	100%
2008-2012 *n*	4	11	12	9	6	3	45
%	8.9%	24.4%	26.7%	20.0%	13.3%	6.7%	100%

Table 2

Totals and Percentages of Questions from Each Category

Categories	DBQ *n*	DBQ %	Essay *n*	Essay %	Total *n*	Total %
Intellectual/ Cultural	2	6.7%	15	12.3%	17	11.3%
Minority	5	16.7%	22	18.2%	27	17.9%
Political	13	43.3%	39	32.2%	52	34.4%
Military/ Diplomatic	5	16.7%	19	15.7%	24	15.9%
Economic/ Business	3	10.0%	19	15.7%	22	14.6%
Immigration	2	6.7%	6	4.9%	8	5.3%

Turnover Intent Among Middle School Teachers

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Abstract: The purpose of the study was to examine the relations among mentoring, adaptation, satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. Two-hundred fifty two middle school teachers from ten Midwestern U.S. schools were surveyed. Hierarchical regression results demonstrated that positive mentoring experiences, successful adaptation, and greater commitment reduced the likelihood of turnover intent.

The call for reform has plagued the educational arena with a whirlwind of transformations challenging efforts to retain effective, highly qualified teachers. In 1988-89, a total of 162,000 teachers left the profession, while in 2008-2009, a total of 269,800 left. Additionally, a higher percentage (8.8) of secondary public school teachers left the profession in 2008-2009 than the percentage (7.5) of elementary school teachers who left (Aud et al., 2011).

Marston, Brunetti, and Courtney (2005) compared elementary and high school teachers' motivation to remain in the profession and suggested further research should be conducted to include middle school teachers. Two subsequent studies citing Marston et al. (2005) explored job satisfaction among high school teachers (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2012) and variables affecting retention among elementary school teachers (Shen, Leslie, & Spybrook, 2012). However, neither study included middle school teachers. Teacher retention is crucial at the middle school level due to the students' specific needs during this developmental stage (Reddy, Rhodes, & Mulhall, 2003). Transition to middle school has been associated with declining motivation in students (Anderman, Maehr, & Midgely, 1999). However, the call for research on retention of middle school teachers (Marston et al., 2005) has not been sufficiently addressed.

Research on teacher retention has supported a relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career commitment, and intent to remain in the profession (Billingsley, 1992; Ingersoll, 2001; Kushman, 1992; Shann, 1998; Steers, 1977). Job satisfaction has also been identified as an outcome of the socialization process of workplace adaptation (Reio, 2002), and mentoring has been found to facilitate this process (Payne & Huffman, 2005).

Acknowledging that mentoring, workplace adaptation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have been linked positively to turnover intent, defined as the likelihood an employee will voluntarily end one's employment in a work organization (Ingersoll, 2001), yet not studied concurrently with middle school teachers, this study explores the relationships among these variables. This need to answer Marston et al.'s (2005) call for exploring factors related to job satisfaction and retention among middle school teachers was accentuated by Moore's (2012) finding that teaching in a middle school significantly increased the odds of teacher dissatisfaction by 31.8%.

Theoretical Framework

We use on organizational socialization framework to inform this study. Organizational socialization refers to the proactive learning to meet the challenges of daily workplace life. In essence, it is "learning the ropes" of how to fit into one's job, team/group, or organization. Organizational socialization is a curiosity-driven, information seeking process in service of acquiring the information needed to learn and ultimately adapt to the organization (Reio &

Wiswell, 2000). The learning and subsequent adaptation to the organization have been linked to job performance and engagement, as well as being positively mentored, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Socialization theory predicts that learning (as in learning from being mentored) and adaptation will result in greater job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and less intention to turnover (Reio & Sutton, 2006).

Mentoring

Several studies have supported a relationship between mentoring and employee turnover (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Raabe & Beehr, 2003). Mentoring has been defined as an interpersonal relationship between experienced and inexperienced colleagues (Russell & Adams, 1997). Mentoring can consist of formal relationships established by the organization, or informal relationships that develop naturally among colleagues (Kram, 1983). Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, and Dubois's (2008) meta-analysis of empirical research published between 1985 and 2006 revealed that mentoring was positively and significantly correlated with a wide range of protégé outcomes, including career attitudes.

Payne and Huffman (2005) found that mentored employees had higher levels of both affective and continuance commitment than non-mentored employees, and protégés with supervisor mentors reported higher affective commitment than protégés with non-supervisor mentors. Data collected 10 years later revealed that affective commitment partially mediated the relationship between mentoring and turnover.

The importance of mentoring relationships in the teaching profession is magnified because teachers usually work in isolation (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Ingersoll and Smith (2004) revealed that being mentored was negatively related to turnover. Woods and Weasmer (2004) advocated for a supportive community of informal mentoring relationships among teachers. Raabe and Beehr (2003) found significant negative correlations between informal supervisor mentor relationships and turnover intent, and significant positive correlations between informal coworker mentor relationships and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Workplace Adaptation and Job Satisfaction

Relationships with mentors can play a pivotal role in the socialization process that results in workplace adaptation. Establishing relationships, acculturation and job knowledge have been identified as defining workplace adaptation (Reio & Sutton, 2006). Job satisfaction has been viewed not only as an outcome of this socialization process, but as a significant factor in the process itself (Reio, 2002). The enhanced learning associated with workplace adaptation reported by Reio and Wiswell (2000) can also influence teacher commitment because teacher efficacy has been found to positively affect teacher commitment (Chan, Lau, Nie, Lim, & Hogan, 2008) and reduce the likelihood of turnover intent.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is referred to as the strength of one's identification with, and involvement in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Steers (1977) revealed that commitment was strongly related to intent and desire to remain in the organization. Teacher job satisfaction has been shown to be a predictor of teacher retention, teacher commitment, and school effectiveness (Shann, 1998). Other studies have identified also working conditions or work-related factors to be predictors of turnover intent (Billingsley, 1992; Ingersoll, 2001; Kushman, 1992; Mertler, 2002).

These work-related variables were also predictors of workplace commitment in Kushman's (1992) study of elementary and middle school teachers and Ingersoll's (2001) analysis of teacher turnover. Kushman (1992) found orderly school climate and teachers'

involvement in decisions to be predictors of organizational commitment. Ingersoll (2001) linked organizational effectiveness to teacher turnover.

Purposes of the Present Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between mentoring, workplace adaptation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intent among middle school teachers. The set of variables have each been studied extensively in organizations, among a wide array of occupations, but not with middle school teachers. In essence, each variable is hypothesized to contribute unique positive variance to predicting turnover intent among middle school teachers. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework for this study.
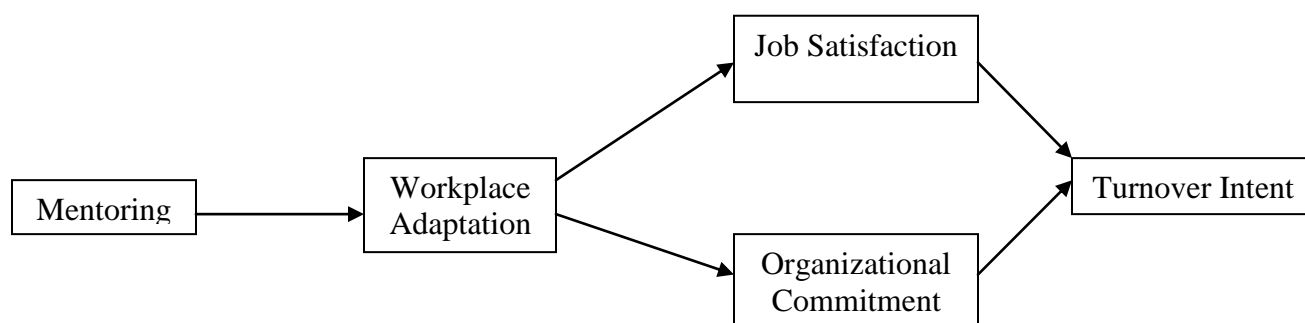
Figure 1. Conceptual Model of the Link between Middle-School Teacher Mentoring, Workplace Adaptation, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intent

Guided by the review of the literature, the following research hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive, statistically significant relationship between mentoring and workplace adaptation.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive, statistically significant relationship between workplace adaptation and job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive, statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intent.

Method

Participants and Procedures

We chose to examine turnover intent in middle schools because of the lack of emphasis on middle school research in general, and the relatively high turnover rate for teachers in our middle schools. With both the superintendent's and principals' support, all middle schools in a large Midwestern school district participated under the condition of confidentiality. Teacher participants, in turn, were anonymous. A survey battery was constructed; the survey measures were counter-balanced for each school to reduce the likelihood of introducing common method bias into the study. A sealed box with a hole in the top (for inputting the survey) was left in plain sight in the main office area at each school. The overall participation rate at the ten schools was

41.2 percent. The initial participants (*N* = 394) were asked to indicate whether they had experienced mentoring while at their current school (yes/no); those participants who had constituted the final sample. The final sample consisted of 252 teachers (58.3% female). Roughly sixty-three percent of the participants were Caucasian, 15.9% African-American, 11.2% Hispanic, 4.0% Asian, and 6.0 "other." The mean age of the participants was 36.4 years (*SD* = 11.5), with 10.2 years of experience (*SD* = 6.8).

Research Measures

Job Satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction was measured by the 3-item scale included in the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). Cronbach's alpha was 0.77.

Mentoring. Mentoring was measured by Noe's (1988) Mentoring Functions Scale. The 5-point Likert-type scale was scored as 1 = "*To a very slight extent*" to 5 = "*To a very large extent.*" The Cronbach's alpha was .88.

Organizational Commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) operationally defined organizational commitment as a three-component model: the desire to remain with an organization (affective commitment), perceived need to remain with the organization (continuance commitment), and obligation to stay with the organization (normative commitment). To increase the likelihood of participation by prospective teachers (shortening survey length), only two of these dimensions, affective and continuance commitment, were measured in this study. We felt justified in making this choice because normative commitment has been problematic in some organizational studies in the helping professions because of its apparent overlap with affective commitment (Chan & Morrison, 2000). Four of the scale items measured affective commitment, and four of the items measured continuance commitment. Responses were scored on a 5-point scale ranging from "*strongly disagree*" (1) to "*strongly agree*" (5). Cronbach's alpha was .89 for affective commitment, .89 for continuance commitment, and .92 for the overall 8-item measure. The overall measure's scores were used for all subsequent analyses.

Turnover intent. The three-item Intention to Turnover Scale is a subscale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979). This three-item subscale was designed to measure the perceptions of organizational members about their psychological state relevant to the quality of work life issues in the workplace. The first item was rated "*not likely*" (1) to "*extremely likely*" (5); the second and third items were rated "*strongly disagree*" (1) to "*strongly agree*" (5). The coefficient alpha was .86.

Workplace adaptation. Workplace adaptation was measured by the 18-item Workplace Adaptation Questionnaire (Reio & Wiswell, 2000). Responses were scored on a 5-point scale ranging from "*strongly disagree*" (1) to "*strongly agree*" (5). Cronbach's alpha was .96.

Demographics. The survey included items designed to obtain information about participant age, gender, and time employed at school. Each was measured as a categorical variable.

Control variables. We controlled for a number of demographic variables, including age, gender, and time employed at school. These variables have been identified as being predictors of workplace adaptation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, as well as the dependent variable (Kushman, 1992; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Reio & Reio, 2011; Shan, 1998). By being able to control for these variables in the hierarchical regression equations (steps guided by theory and research; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003), we were able to illustrate the unique influence of the independent variables on turnover intent.

Results

Zero-order correlations were explored and the strength and magnitude of relations among the research variables were roughly as expected. The *r*s ranged from |.14| - |.56|. The strongest correlation was between organizational commitment and turnover intent ($r = -.56$) and satisfaction and organizational commitment ($r = .56$). To test the hypotheses, a series of hierarchical regressions were then run to ascertain the unique relations among the independent and dependent variables, after statistically controlling for the demographic variables (H1-H3), being mentored (H2 & H3), and workplace adaptation (H3). No evidence of multicollinearity was found (VIF [< 10.0] and tolerance [$> .10$] values were acceptable; Stevens, 2002).

For hypothesis one, after statistically controlling for the demographic variables (age, gender, tenure; $R^2 = .03$, $p = .091$), being mentored (ß = .264) was positively and significantly associated with workplace adaptation ($R^2 = .11$, $p =. 011$). Overall, the model explained 8.2% (adjusted R^2) of the variance in workplace adaptation; thus, hypothesis one was supported in that being mentored was a positive predictor of adaptation. For hypothesis 2, after statistically controlling for the demographic variables ($R^2 = .01$, $p = .456$) and being mentored ($R^2 = .02$, $p = .04$), workplace adaptation was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction (ß = .28; $R^2 = .05$, $p = .002$). Overall, the model explained 5.8% (adjusted R^2) of the variance in job satisfaction. To further test hypothesis 2, after statistically controlling for the demographic variables ($R^2 = .03$, $p = .118$) and being mentored ($R^2 = .06$, $p = .001$), workplace adaptation was positively and significantly related to organizational commitment (ß = .264; $R^2 = .064$, $p < .001$). Overall, the model explained 13.3% (adjusted R^2) of the variance in organizational commitment. Therefore, hypothesis two was supported because adaptation and job satisfaction uniquely predicted organizational commitment. Finally, for hypothesis 3, after controlling for the demographic variables ($R^2 = .06$, $p = .01$), being mentored ($R^2 = .02$, $p = .04$), and workplace adaptation ($R^2 = .11$, $p < .001$), job satisfaction and organizational commitment were entered as a block into the regression equation. Organizational commitment was negatively and significantly related to turnover intent (ß = -.52), however, job satisfaction (ß = -.003, $p = .97$) was not a significant predictor ($R^2 = .22$, $p < .001$ for block). Overall, the model explained 38.8% (adjusted R^2) of the variance in turnover intent. Thus, hypothesis 3 was only partially supported in that only organizational commitment significantly predicted turnover.

Discussion

The hierarchical regression results provide preliminary evidence that after controlling for select demographic variables prior literature suggested might have an influence on the strength and direction of relations among the research variables, mentoring, workplace adaptation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are linked to turnover intent in this sample of middle school teachers. In each case, the findings support the socialization theory and the extant empirical literature on the hypothesized linkages of the independent and dependent variables. In essence, those with positive mentoring experiences were more likely to adapt successfully to their school (Eby et al., 2007; Payne & Huffman, 2005). Further, workplace adaptation was linked positively in turn to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Ingersoll, 2001; Reio & Sutton, 2006), suggesting that those who adapted to their workplace successfully were more likely to be satisfied with their job and committed to the school. Finally, overall, those who experienced positive mentoring, successfully adapted to the school, and were committed to the school, were less likely intending to turnover. These findings present initial evidence that being mentored, degree of workplace adaptation (and thus fitting in to the school), and organizational

commitment positively predicted a vital school outcome, that is, turnover intent, often considered the most powerful predictor of actual turnover (Azjen, 1991).

In these uncertain times, middle school teachers are leaving their jobs in record numbers (Marston et al., 2005). Considering the almost crisis level of middle school teacher turnover among U.S. teachers, a predictive model such as the one tested in this research can point to possible leverage points to designing interventions to reduce the likelihood of turnover intent and actual turnover. For example, well designed formal mentoring programs through psychosocial and career advisement activities could foster better adaptation and commitment to the school to head off possible turnover intentions (Kram, 1983). Policies aimed at helping newcomers fit in more quickly and expertly (encourage informal mentoring activities) could be tested for their relative effectiveness in reducing turnover intentions. Longitudinal research designs could examine the salience of the research variables over time and during different stages of one's career. Moderator variables (e.g., school climate) could be included in the model proposed in the research to ascertain their possible usefulness in reducing turnover intentions. Future research with larger samples, with proportional representation by age, gender, and ethnicity that includes measures of both intended and actual turnover is required to further test the model presented in this study to support external validation efforts.

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Academic Dishonesty: A Guide for Digital Instructors

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Abstract: Academic dishonesty threatens the integrity of collegiate education and undermines institutional objectives. Nonetheless, many students willingly compromise academic integrity for higher grades and reduced stress levels. This literature review examines why students engage in academic dishonesty and addresses preventive measures and developing technologies.

Academic dishonesty, "a transgression against academic integrity which entails taking an unfair advantage that results in a misrepresentation of a student's ability and grasp of knowledge" (King, Guyette, & Piotrowski, 2009, p. 4), undermines the missions and objections of learning institutions worldwide. Many students compromise personal and academic integrity in pursuit of higher grade point averages and reduced stress levels. Some research, however, has suggested that the justification for engaging in academic misconduct varies among distance learners and students enrolled in on-site courses (Bailey & Bailey, 2011; Kennedy, Nowak, Raghuraman, Thomas, & Davis, 2000). As massive open online courses rapidly develop across the globe, research aimed at gaining a deeper understanding of academic dishonesty must be reviewed so that university officials and faculty are able to develop both efficient and multifaceted responses. Therefore, this paper presents an overview of students' reasons for engaging in academic dishonesty, the issues that are unique to online learners, and developing technologies.

Many studies have reviewed the prevalence of academic misconduct among college students. McCabe and Bower's (1994) seminal study found that acts of academic dishonesty such as cheating on assignments, copying answers from another student's exam, and using cheat sheets increased significantly from 1963-1993 (11% to 49%, 26% to 52%, and 16% to 27%, respectively). A study conducted at Duke University's Center for Academic Integrity revealed that 75% of all college students admitted engaging in academic misconduct at least once (Kleiner & Lord, 1999). Whitley's (1998) meta-analysis of 107 studies conducted from 1970-1996 surmised that 70% of college students confessed to engaging in some form of academic misconduct. Finally, Norton, Tilley, Newstead, and Franklyn-Stokes' (2001) appraisal of 267 psychology students at four British institutions of higher education determined that at least half of all college students engaged in academic dishonesty in assessment settings. The disparities in the aforementioned findings result from multiple time frames for which students were questioned about their behavior (the prior 6 months versus at any point during the student's college career), a lack of consensus regarding the definition and operationalization of academic dishonesty, and cultural differences among student populations (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2003).

The advent of the Internet during the 1990s caused an "unprecedented growth of distance learning" (Kennedy et al., 2000, p. 309) at universities around the globe. Distance learning, commonly referred to as online education, permits a teaching-learning exchange to occur between faculty and students despite the two being separated in time and space. Continued growth in distance learning is evident two decades later with the development of university associated massive open online courses (MOOCs). These online courses have brought about not

only an exponential increase in the tens of thousands of students enrolled in online courses worldwide but also an exigent need to enhance measures to thwart students' attempts at academic dishonesty. To date, no national data exists on academic dishonesty in the virtual classroom, and the studies that do exist generally look at perceptions of academic dishonesty in distance learning rather than the actual behaviors in which students engage (Grijalva, Nowell, & Kerkvliet, 2006). The present gap in the literature warrants a closer look at academic misconduct among distance learners.

The Cheating Trifecta

For the purpose of this paper, academic dishonesty is defined as "a transgression against academic integrity which entails taking an unfair advantage that results in a misrepresentation of a student's ability and grasp of knowledge" (King et all., 2009, p. 4). Examples of academic dishonesty include the unauthorized use of material on an assignment or an examination, looking at another student's examination, and assisting another student to gain an unfair advantage relative to his or her peers. The terms academic dishonesty, academic misconduct, and cheating are used interchangeably in this paper.

Literature indicates that academic misconduct transpires upon the convergence of three elements: 1) necessity, 2) opportunity, and 3) rationalization (King et al., 2009). Necessity implies that students engage in such behaviors due to performance anxiety, time restraints associated with challenging assignments, and burdensome quantities of work (Kelley & Bonner, 2005; King et al., 2009; Naudé & Hörne, 2006). Opportunity insinuates conditions favorable for academic misconduct such as when the student is alone and free from inquisitive stares (King et al., 2009); however, unfavorable conditions may evolve into favorable ones when peers share copies of prior exams and/or answer keys and permit classmates to copy assignments (Naudé & Hörne, 2006). The final element, rationalization, signifies the beliefs and value systems subscribed to by students in an effort to justify their behaviors. For instance, students may misconstrue the lack of administrative action with acquiescence (Grijalva et al., 2006), particularly if their peers take part in similar behaviors without consequence or repercussions (Kelley & Bonner, 2005; Naudé & Horne, 2006; King et al., 2009). Moreover, students often perceive cheating as a victimless offense, thus minimizing any personal wrongdoing (Naudé & Horne, 2006). They may also defend their actions in relation to their instructors, claiming that the absence of direct and regular interaction with faculty denotes inconsequentiality of academic misconduct (Kelley & Bonner, 2005; Naudé & Hörne, 2006).

Issues Unique to Distance Learners

Students and faculty postulate that academic dishonesty occurs with greater regularity in virtual classrooms relative to traditional campus-based courses (Grijalva et al., 2006; King et al., 2009). Such speculation ensues from the presumption that isolation and separation from instructors facilitates academic dishonesty (Bailey & Bailey, 2011; Kennedy et al., 2000). More specifically, online learners purportedly lack direct interaction with their instructors, which breeds feelings of isolation as well as perceptions of inaccessibility and distance (Kennedy et al., 2000). In turn, these feelings and perceptions inhibit students from seeking assistance when needed, thereby exacerbating their stress levels, the result of which may be temptation to engage in academic misconduct (Grijalva et al., 2006).

The extant literature suggests variations with respect to how online students comprehend academic dishonesty and the behaviors constituting such dishonesty as compared to their on-campus counterparts (Bailey & Bailey, 2011). For instance, King et al. (2009) explored the attitudes of business students (N = 121) towards behaviors that constitute cheating when taking

an online exam. Students' beliefs differed depending upon whether or not the instructor had an explicit policy against cheating. They believed that it was appropriate to use a book, reference sources, and class notes during an exam as long as the professor did not have an explicit policy stating otherwise. The same students, however, acknowledged that having another person take the exam, securing a copy of a test prior to the exam period, and text messaging to send and/or receive answers from another student was inappropriate irrespective of the presence or absence of a written policy.

Additionally, students born after the advent of the Internet regard material available online as part of the "public domain" and "subject to fair use" (King et al., 2009), thus demonstrating a complete lack of understanding regarding the use of online materials in the academic setting (Conway-Klaassen & Keil, 2010; Bailey & Bailey, 2011). Online students seemingly lack the boundaries taken for granted in the traditional classroom (Conway-Klaassen & Keil, 2010). Students in the traditional classroom, for example, appreciate the academic conventions prohibiting the use of electronic devices during examinations (Kennedy et al., 2000) whereas online students seem to be either unaware or indifferent to such policies, suggesting that the perceptions that students possess regarding the appropriateness of the behaviors in which they engage varies, both, culturally and contextually (Bailey & Bailey, 2011).

Current Technology-Based Prevention Measures

The presumption that online students engage in academic misconduct with greater regularity than their campus-based counterparts, and the alleged ease with which online students obtain unfair advantages academically (Grijalva et al., 2006) dictates the implementation of special measures designed to reduce misconduct. To begin, departments of instructional technology universally advise online instructors to require students to install lockdown browsers on their computers that preclude student access to Internet search engines during examination periods (Tazoe, 2011). In addition, faculty members striving to minimize opportunities for academic dishonesty can create challenging time-sensitive exams that do not afford students ample time to comb through the text for answers (Conway-Klaassen & Keil, 2010; Grijalva et al., 2006; King et al., 2009). Last, instructional staff may also utilize learning management systems such as Blackboard and Angel to release questions individually, prohibit students from returning to earlier questions, and randomize test questions and answers (Conway-Klaassen & Keil, 2010), thus thwarting collusion attempts among students.

New and Developing Technology

The alarming rates of academic misconduct in higher education instigated the development of innovative technologies designed to reduce the prevalence of such behaviors. Developed in 2006, the Securexam Remote Proctor System affords online students the freedom to test anywhere using a standalone device connected to their computer via a USB cable (Software Secure, 2011). In an effort to preserve academic integrity, a built-in camera captures an initial 360-degree video of the area surrounding the student (Young, 2012) as well as a still-life photograph for comparison to university records (Securexam Remote Proctor, 2012). The camera continuously monitors the testing site for suspicious audiovisual changes and, subsequently, notifies the instructor and/or university officials (Software Secure, 2011). In addition, an attached digital scanner collects the student's fingerprints prior to granting access to the exam (Securexam Remote Proctor, 2012; Young, 2012). Finally, the Securexam Browser locks down the student's hard-drive and prevents access to the Internet, eliminating the possibility of accessing external storage devices or files as well as limiting opportunities to seek assistance from third parties online (Software Secure, 2011).

Similar in purpose to the Securexam Remote Proctor System, Kryterion's Webassessor permits proctors to monitor students from remote locations using webcams (Dorman, 2013; Young, 2012). The Webassessor captures an initial photograph of the student upon logging into the site and another upon attempting to access the examination. Then, facial recognition software confirms the student's identity (Dorman, 2013). Next, the Webassessor analyzes each student's typing style using keystroke biometrics. The "time spent on the keys and between the keys" (Keystroke Biometrics, 2012) is initially determined at login after which the rhythms are authenticated (Secure Authentication, 2012). Then, the student's computer locks down, denying the student access to the hard-drive, external storage devices, and the Internet (Dorman, 2013). From remote locations around the globe, Kryterion proctors monitor the exams in real-time, watching for suspicious activities such as rapid eye movements, movement from the field of vision, and noises not associated with the testing site (Dorman, 2013). Proctors noticing such irregularities may stop the examination.

In 2008, the examiners of the Graduate Management Admissions Council announced plans to commence palm vein scanning for students taking the Graduate Management Admissions Test (Hechinger, 2008). The palm vein scan, which replaces digital fingerprinting commonly used to grant students access to testing centers, verifies student identity prior to the examination and following each break, thus, minimizing opportunities for the impersonation of registered test-takers (Bland, 2008). Students place their hands over a device emitting an infrared light that is reflected by arteries and absorbed by veins, providing a unique palm print for each individual (Bland, 2008; Hechinger, 2008). The image is encrypted and archived along with the student's test results. Therefore, the computers linked with the palm-readers "flag anyone whose current name and palm don't match previous records" (Clark, 2008). Although not currently used in the university setting, palm vein scans may constitute the future of security measures for distance learning students.

Finally, John Fontaine, senior director of technology evangelism for Blackboard Learning Management Systems is currently developing technologies that create document fingerprints (Young, 2012). Individuals typically use certain words or phrases repeatedly as they draft essays. As such, analysts are able to review writing assignments throughout the academic term and create, in essence, a fingerprint of the student's writing style (Young, 2012). Assignments subsequently submitted can then be compared to the original document fingerprint for writing style compatibility (Young, 2012). Assignments substantially different from the fingerprint would be flagged, allowing faculty to investigate the issue further.

Conclusion

Many of today's college students cannot remember a time when neither the Internet nor personal computers were at their fingertips; they are, in essence, digital natives (Prensky, 2001). Because these students have matured during an era of constantly evolving technologies, they may willingly rely upon the same to gain unfair academic advantages over their peers (Kitahara & Westfall, 2007). For instance, distance learners may permit others to impersonate them by sitting for the exam in their place, access unauthorized material or collaborate with other students—all without the instructor's knowledge. Therefore, faculty and course designers must implement technology to thwart student efforts.

Online instructors often express concern regarding the ability to authenticate students' identities; this is especially true as it relates to accreditation matters (Software Secure, 2011). Software and devices such as the Securexam Remote Proctor System and Kryterion's Webassessor allow faculty to authenticate student identity before and during assessments

through the use of biometric identifiers, for example, that match a photograph taken before the examination begins with a photograph in the students' university records (Photo Matching Authentication, 2012; Secure Authentication, 2012). Faculty members also ponder the methods available to thwart academic misconduct in the virtual classroom. The use of lockdown browsers that disable Internet access as well as access to USB's and computer hard drives reduce the use of unauthorized material during exams while remote live proctors trained to detect suspicious activity (i.e., rapid eye movement, the use of telephones, and talking to others) discourage collusive efforts by students attempting to engage in acts of academic dishonesty (Dorman, 2013; Live Video Monitoring, 2012).

In sum, academic misconduct has become commonplace on university campuses world. The advent of the Internet and other constantly evolving technologies have facilitated academic dishonesty, particularly in terms of distance learning where students may feel isolated from peers and faculty (Kennedy et al., 2000). Hence, the burden is upon faculty and university officials to not only reduce feelings of isolation and inaccessibility but to also commit to the use of current and developing technologies aimed at reducing academic dishonesty and restoring academic integrity.

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From Bars to Textbooks: Bringing Higher Education Behind Bars

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Abstract: Corrections literature maintains the profound utility of postsecondary education programs in reducing recidivism rates among ex-offenders (Anders & Noblit, 2011). Notwithstanding, financial restrictions often impede the abilities of correctional administrators to offer college-level courses. Alternative avenues for postsecondary correctional education are addressed and policy issues and recommendations provided.

The appearance of steadily increasing crime rates over the past three decades has sparked public interest in the criminal justice and correctional systems (Erisman & Contardo, 2005). In turn, elected public officials, inspired by the misguided belief that delinquents and criminal deviants regularly engage in a series of increasingly violent crime sprees, have intensified their efforts to increase police presence, lengthen prison sentences, and allocate additional funds to crime prevention measures and punishment techniques (Seiter, 2011). As the legislative endeavors of said officials have prevailed, American taxpayers remain encumbered by the $30 billion annual debt required to support the nation's vast corrections system (Erisman & Contardo, 2005; Seiter, 2011).

The rapid construction of 300 state, federal, and private penal institutions over a 5-year period, June 2000 to December 2005 (Seiter, 2011), necessitates the continued development of cost-saving programs to deter criminal activity. One such alternative mandates the restoration and expansion of postsecondary academic curricula within correctional settings. Numerous studies have discerned inverse relationships between the completion of college courses and the resumption of criminal activity upon release from a correctional facility (Anders & Noblit, 2011; Batiuk, McKeever, & Wilcox, 2005;Dawkins & McAuliff, 2008; Erisman & Contardo, 2005; Esperian, 2010; Meyer, 2011; Seiter, 2011) and, accordingly, affirm the efficacy of postsecondary education opportunities in "reducing reoffending and improving public safety" (Esperian, 2010, p. 332). To demonstrate how access to higher education could reduce recidivism rates post-release, the author provides an overview of America's correctional higher education programs, discusses policy implications of such programs, and presents recommendations for continued expansion of postsecondary educational programs within correctional settings.

The History of Correctional Higher Education Programs

Traditionally, the mission of correctional institutions entailed the implementation and enforcement of court-prescribed sanctions for offenders (Seiter, 2011). However, as correctional missions evolved and expanded, correctional objectives required administrators to safeguard members of society via the regular surveillance, control, and incapacitation of offenders during periods of incarceration as well as the constant supervision of the treatment and rehabilitation of those offenders preparing for release. In fulfillment of these responsibilities, correctional agencies provided an assortment of services designed to help "offenders become less likely or less motivated to return to a life of crime and more likely to become productive and law-abiding citizens" (Seiter, 2011, p. 6).

Historically, prisoner access to higher education varied according to current public perception. During the early 20th century, few prisoners participated in free print-based

correspondence courses offered by seminaries and bible colleges (Seiter, 2011). Yet, as correctional philosophies shifted from punishment to rehabilitation, postsecondary correctional programs took root and blossomed in the majority of the nation's prison systems (Erisman & Contardo, 2005). By 1972, the Basic Educational Opportunity Act, an amendment to the Higher Education Act of 1965, facilitated prisoner access to larger colleges and universities via tuition assistance (Rose, Reschenberg, & Richards, 2010). Over the next two decades, opportunities for postsecondary education within the correctional setting flourished with the establishment of more than 350 fully operational correctional education programs across the nation (Buruma, 2005).

The trend eventually waned, however, after public perception that prisoners could secure the luxury of higher education without costs while impoverished, yet law-abiding citizens struggled to pay for college influenced Congress to pass the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 (Rose et al., 2010). Notwithstanding,

> These arguments were based on false assumptions about the extent of Pell Grant funding that went to prisoners. In fact, during the 1993-94 academic year, approximately 27,000 prisoners received around $35 million in Pell Grant funding, less than 1 percent of the total $6 billion spent on the program that year. Moreover, no students were ever denied a Pell Grant because of prisoner participation in the program (Institute for Higher Education Policy, 1994, as cited in Erisman & Contardo, 2005, p. x).

The Act effectively disqualified incarcerated individuals from receiving the Pell Grant, virtually eliminating access to higher education programs during periods of incarceration. Consequently, shortly after the Act's passage, the vast majority of penal institutions abandoned postsecondary education programs for prisoners, leaving a mere handful of programs in operation at the turn of the century (Erisman & Contardo, 2005).

The Need for Postsecondary Correctional Education

The Bureau of Justice Statistics estimates that 1.6 million individuals are currently incarcerated across the nation's local, state, and federal penal institutions (Guerino, Harrison, & Sabol, 2011). Approximately 95% of those offenders, however, will be released into their respective communities at some point in time (Guerino et al., 2011). The vast majority of them will face reincarceration within three years of their initial release (Hughes & Wilson, 2002; Rose et al., 2010). Consistent strides, therefore, must be made to facilitate the successful reintegration of prisoners into society (Seiter, 2001; Guerino et al., 2011).

Corrections literature proclaims the availability of postsecondary academic programs within the correctional setting as the most salient and cost effective method for reducing recidivism subsequent to release from a correctional institution (Rose et al., 2010). As listed below, the benefits of correctional higher education programs are numerous. First and foremost, access to higher education facilitates legally permissible income-generating opportunities for ex-offenders. The ability to refrain from criminal activity, therefore, leads to an overall reduction in crime rates and an increase in public safety (Esperian, 2010). Second, the excessive investigative and ancillary costs (i.e., law enforcement personnel, pre-trial detention, judicial salaries, attorney fees, court fees, and juror reimbursement) associated with navigating the criminal justice system decrease. Elevated recidivism rates augment the prison population and, thus, compound total incarceration costs. Nevertheless, higher education programs minimize total costs by reducing the likelihood of recidivism, thereby, saving each state $18,000 to $50,000 in annual incarceration costs per offender (Gream, n.d.) whom successfully avoids

reincarceration. Hence, decreased criminal activity lessens the taxpayer's burden as it relates to an offender's repeated movement through the criminal justice system (Hrabowski & Robbi, 2002).

Moreover, ex-offenders re-entering society regularly face stigmatization and employment discrimination associated with their arrests, imprisonment, and lack of academic fortitude. The resulting limited employment prospects adversely affect employment stability and may, consequently, draw these individuals into criminal activity. However, educational opportunities in correctional settings equip future parolees or probationers with the skills required to obtain employment (Chappell, 2004). Improved employability curtails ex-offenders' reliance upon government assistance while gainful employment and higher wages associated with postsecondary education increase tax revenue for local and state governments (Erisman & Contardo, 2005). Consequently, correctional postsecondary education contributes to national economic growth and prosperity (Erisman & Contardo, 2005; Hrabowski & Robbi, 2002).

Next, college education programs facilitate the restoration of incarcerated individual's families. Academic success improves the offender's self-esteem, self-confidence, and feelings of self-worth (Anders & Noblit, 2011; Batiuk et al., 2005; Burke & Vivian, 2001; Chappell, 2004; Dawkins & McAuliff, 2008; Erisman & Contardo, 2005; Esperian, 2010). That sense of accomplishment, combined with increased employability, may minimize the negative effects of incarceration (i.e., increased delinquency of minors raised in female-headed households and decreased educational and occupational attainment for those remaining behind). Therefore, correctional education reinforces the social bonds previously broken by incarceration, reinforces feelings of self-worth, and undermines the ability of incarceration to decimate minority populations.

Discussion

Corrections literature maintains the profound utility of postsecondary education programs in reducing recidivism rates among ex-offenders (Anders & Noblit, 2011; Batiuk et al., 2005; Burke & Vivian, 2001; Chappell, 2004; Dawkins & McAuliff, 2008; Erisman & Contardo, 2005; Esperian, 2010). Notwithstanding, financial restrictions often impede the abilities of correctional administrators to offer college-level courses as well as the ability of prisoners to self-pay for higher education access. Consequently, alternative avenues for postsecondary correctional education must be researched.

Innovative programs such as the North Carolina Workplace and Community Transition Youth Program, the Inviting Convicts to College Program, and the National Inside-Out Prison Exchange Program remove the financial obstacles to higher education by guaranteeing educational access without any costs to the correctional institution or the offender and minimal costs to the university or college facilitating instruction. For example, the North Carolina Workplace and Community Transition Youth Offender Program relies upon colleges and universities to offer courses typically found within the general education curriculum including, but not limited to, Elementary Spanish, English Composition, and Environmental Science (Anders & Noblit, 2011). In their assessment of the program, Anders and Noblit (2011) found that participation in college courses permitted students to discover their previously undetermined capabilities. Moreover, prisoners comprehended the potential of higher education to increase future employability as well as decrease the likelihood of returning to prison at a later date. Hence, exposure to college courses mediated the effects of incarceration.

Based at the University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh campus, the Inviting Convicts to College Program also provides college courses to prisoners; however, undergraduate students, supervised

by university faculty, serve as instructors (Rose et al., 2010). The program purports to expose prisoners to the college environment by assisting them in completing applications for admission and financial aid documents as well as in making decisions regarding enrollment in university, community, or technical colleges upon release. Researchers asserted that "[t]he prisoner-students enrolled in the ICCP clearly understood the importance of a college education and, often, would explain that their involvement in crime resulted from their lack of education" (Rose et al., 2010, p. 299). In fact, one prisoner stated

> Drugs, alcohol, depression, low self-esteem led me to give up on college. When I started taking this class I really didn't think it would change this. I was just doing it to occupy some time. But these two interns convinced me not to give up, and they've helped me get into [a local technical college]. I'll be there in Fall 2008. (Rose et al., 2010, p. 302)

Another reported,

> The course has really opened my eyes to my full education potential, and what college education is really about. It is the best course in my eight years so far in prison. I think they should use this course in every prison and maybe other places where troubled kids and adults might be and don't know that this [college] might be possible for them. (Rose et al., 2010, p. 302)

Finally, based out of Temple University, the National Inside-Out Prisoner Exchange Program encourages mutually beneficial collaboration between colleges, universities, and correctional systems (The Inside-Out Center, 2010); the college or university, however, assumes all costs associated with the program, hence, eliminating the need for self-pay programs or state funding. Throughout the semester, college students and prisoners study an assortment of academic disciplines within the correctional setting and engage in discourse addressing crime, justice, and social policy; as such, students' and prisoners' perspectives are broadened. Furthermore, continued contact with college students and faculty provides offenders with the resources necessary to venture into the academic setting upon release. This is particularly beneficial to prisoners whom receive course credit for their efforts and retain eligibility for reduced tuition rates towards their future matriculation at the university facilitating the Inside-Out program (The Inside-Out Center, 2010).

Policy Implications and Recommendations

Despite the availability of studies documenting the negative correlation between increased educational opportunities and recidivism rates, the public remains blissfully unaware of such findings or the national implications of their ignorance (Erisman & Contardo, 2005). Such blatant misperceptions that education rewards offenders for their criminal behavior are reflected in the lack of state and federal funding for postsecondary correctional education programs. It is imperative, therefore, that the public avail itself of the advantages of correctional education, mainly, the reduction in crime rates and the employability of ex-offenders upon release, in order to reap the benefit of significant reductions in taxpayer expense. Hence, the adjustment of public opinion may remove the impediments currently preventing offenders from becoming productive and law-abiding citizens.

The United States professes to be a nation of "second chances and opportunity . . . , [hence,] democratic access to high-quality higher education must include access for people in prison" (Nixon, as cited in Esperian, 2010, p. 311). Accordingly, several recommendations must be implemented to restore and expand postsecondary correctional education programs. First, federal financial aid eligibility must be reinstated for prisoners. Providing tuition assistance to prisoners increases their opportunities to seek higher education within an academic setting. This,

in turn, allows for the development of skills needed to negotiate the outside world. Second, legislative efforts should be directed at increasing state funding for postsecondary correctional education programs as the fiscal and social benefits outweigh any difficulties associated with bringing higher education behind prison bars. Next, legislators should aim to increase funding for universities serving prison populations in an effort to ensure that financial restrictions do not impede prisoner access to higher education. Finally, the development of postsecondary correctional education programs requires the collaborative efforts of the Departments of Education and Corrections, respectively. Consequently, efforts must be made to foster relationships between the two competing entities.

In conclusion, prisoner access to higher education within the correctional setting brings about a multitude of fiscal and social benefits for the prisoners, the correctional system, and society, at large. Accordingly, "we cannot bar the most vulnerable people from the very thing that has the greatest potential to change their lives'" (Nixon, as cited in Esperian, 2011, p. 311). To do otherwise would not only constitute a travesty for all Americans but also undermine the ideals upon which this great nation was founded.

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Students' Perspective of the Role of Facebook in Their Studies

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Abstract: The purpose of this research was to examine students' perspective of their use of Facebook to further their studies. There were two major findings relating to usage of Facebook: personal, and academically. Students used Facebook to stay in touch with people and wanted to keep Facebook separate from their academics.

Colleges and universities have used social networking sites for a variety of purposes. For instance, college administrators at Ithaca College, Middlebury College, Mars Hill College, and the University of Florida have used Facebook groups, profiles, and pages to promote their departments, services, and recruitment initiatives (David, 2010; Villano & Gullon, 2009). The faculty and staff at the University of Florida claimed to have increased their graduate admissions because of the implementation of a Facebook program in which faculty and staff talk to prospective graduate students through Facebook group discussions about graduate programs (David, 2010).

Facebook can be used for educational purposes. Mazman and Usluel (2010) developed a structural equation model explaining how students could use Facebook for educational purposes, and sought the students' views of Facebook in relation to its educational usage. The educational usage of Facebook has a positive relationship with its use for communication, collaborations, and resource or material sharing (Maxman & Usleuel, 2010).

Facebook users and non-users were significantly different: Facebook users had lower GPAs and spent less time studying than non-Facebook users (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010). Students feel an impact on Facebook on their academic performance; most indicate a negative impact: they procrastinate and are easily distracted by Facebook. These users also had poor time management skills. For those students with positive impacts, Facebook was used to form study groups or as another form of communication with their peers.

Some studies (e.g., Hung & Yuen 2010; Schroeder & Greenbowe, 2009) have reported on the implementation of social networking sites into the curriculum. Hung and Yuen (2010) found that the students favored using their social networking sites, especially for knowledge sharing, interactions, collaborations, and learning activities. Also, a majority of students used the sites every week. The students also stated a strong sense of class community.

Schroeder and Greenbowe (2009) studied how students used Facebook in an introductory organic chemistry class. All students in the class were required to use WebCT and participation in the Facebook group was optional. The activity between WebCT and the Facebook group revealed 400% more posts on the Facebook group than on WebCT, with no further discussions on WebCT after one month. As a deadline for an assignment was approaching, activity on the Facebook group would increase. Also, students were not asking their peers for answers, but instead were asking for assistance from the instructors. However, Schroeder and Greenbowe (2009) did not compare the final grades between the Facebook users and the students who did not join the Facebook group.

McCarthy (2010) assessed student use of Facebook incorporated into a design course and concluded most students used Facebook to learn more about people they met in person and in

class. Facebook was useful for students dealing with language barriers and introversion (McCarthy, 2010). Also, students' attitudes towards interactions with other students were mostly positive; discussion on Facebook was supportive and provided a freedom of expression.

To date, however, there are few empirical studies addressing how effectively students or institutions of higher education are using social media. This research concerned itself with one kind of social media: Facebook. Those that exist do not ask for student perspectives on the use of Facebook. This lack of student perspective is unfortunate because students have different collegiate experience. Knowing the ways students use Facebook academically can allow faculty and staff to develop a curriculum that is relevant to the student's perspective, facilitate discussions among fellow students outside of the classroom, and allow for different levels of learning experiences (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Therefore, the purpose of this research was to examine higher education students' perspective of their use of Facebook to further their studies. This research answered three primary research questions: (a) To what extent do students use Facebook to further their studies? (b) In what ways do students use Facebook to further their studies? (c) What do students believe are the ways that Facebook can be used by colleges and universities to help students with their studies?

Method

The research design was phenomenology. According to van Manen (1990) phenomenological research seeks to understand the world we live in and comprehend the experiences of those that live in it. Phenomenology was chosen for this research because the researcher wants to study how a phenomenon, Facebook usage, is experienced by research participants, students (Moustakas, 1994).

Participants

Purposeful sampling is important when considering the larger population of the site. It allows the researcher to define the site and the sample to be used to explain the experiences of the population (Seidman, 2006). Nine students were interviewed: two graduate and seven undergraduate students. Two were males and seven were females. The ages ranged from 19 to 27.

Data Collection

Data was collected via interviews. An interview is defined as a purposeful conversation, usually between two people, that is directed by an individual who wants to get information from the other (Seidman, 2006). The researcher developed a set of questions to guide the interview process because the researcher could not find an instrument that was appropriate from other studies. Also, the researcher wanted to be able to control the line of questioning (Creswell, 2009). The questions were reviewed by three faculty members.

All interviews were face-to-face and participants indicated a willingness to participate in the interview; each interview lasted approximately 20-30 minutes, and there was no compensation. Since the institutional review board granted exempt status, consent was obtained orally. At the start of the interviews, the researcher provided an introduction of who the researcher was and a detailed explanation of the project. After the introduction, the researcher made it clear that continuing in the study entailed informed consent. The researcher required that all of the participants come up with their own pseudonyms to maintain anonymity. No student was interviewed who did not consent to participating or to having the interview recorded.

Data Analysis

Analysis did not occur until all of the initial data was collected. This reduced imposing generalizations on participants further along the study (Seidman, 2006). Initially, the researcher wanted to do themes, but discovered that there were not enough data to convey themes. The researcher decided to organize by answers and see if there were commonalities across participants' responses to each question. For example, the researcher looked at all the responses for question one. The researcher noted that six students responded with an instance of how they used Facebook to keep in touch with their family. Then the researcher decided to quote students who provided the most substance for that commonality.

Trustworthiness

Maintaining trustworthiness is critical in any qualitative research. To confront possible subjectivity biases, the researcher held a learner perspective and avoided conversations where the researcher would have to share his own experiences. If a student asked about the researcher's experiences with Facebook, the researcher would keep the answers short and generalized. The author would then ask a question relating to the study. During the data analysis phase, the researcher was intentional about asking himself how well what was being revealed reflected the perspectives the students held (Creswell, 2009; Seidman, 2006).

Discussion of Key Findings

Key findings are presented in accordance to the three research questions: (a) students use Facebook for their studies; (b) students use Facebook for their studies in different ways; and (c) students have certain beliefs on how Facebook can be used to further studies.

Extent Students Use Facebook for Their Studies

Six students use Facebook to communicate primarily with people they already know, such as family members or current friends. Itachi said, "I only use Facebook for personal use. I use Facebook to communicate with families and friends. Close families like my mother, brother, uncle, aunt, and grandfather from Dubai." Cassandra said she contacted both friends and family at the same time:

> I guess Facebook helps you feel you are still part of your life when you are away. You can still look at their pictures, look at what they are doing, and see your younger siblings or younger cousins growing up. My cousins are really young and changing all the time. My aunts are taking pictures and saying what they are doing. I can pretty much watch them grow on Facebook.

Amarylis said, "I like to be personally connected with my friends who are overseas." Students used Facebook to know how their friends have been doing. The students stated that they liked to look at their friends' comments, pictures, and posts to compare them with their current life. Results are similar to Quan-Haase and Young (2010) and Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe (2007), who stated that students used Facebook to distract themselves and keep in touch with friends.

Four students did use Facebook for their studies at one time, but only two of the students used Facebook frequently academically. Sofia provided an interesting example of using Facebook for curricular purposes. She stated an instance of cheating:

> I have heard a lot of people use it just to get answers. If people needed answers for homework or they had an online test they get answers from the group. I've heard people complaining about it especially because a class had a Facebook group and there were like 300 people in the Facebook group. The professor found out and wanted to get everyone in trouble, but he couldn't because it would have been the whole class. So then he

decided to get the ones that created the group in trouble. I don't know what else
happened but yeah that's what I heard that he was like really mad because of that.

Jamos said he did use Facebook indirectly for academic purposes:

Academically, is not related to classwork or my research in particular, but I use Facebook
to keep up with current news of biology by the links my friends post. My friends usually
post science articles, new experiments, and latest research. That is the quickest way I
hear about it. My friends are very nerdy so at least once a day I do this. I rarely used
groups. Personally I think it is a conflict of interest with professors as friends. The way I
use it works out for me.

Juliana said, "I have a lot of friends from my classes. I ask them for help." Amy stated how she
asked for help on an assignment:

Once in a blue moon I ask my friend for help or advice on an assignment. Sometimes I
put it up on my status and ask what should I do, can somebody help me, and has anyone
taken this course before?

Students did use Facebook for curricular purposes, but in a limited fashion. Consistent
with Mazman and Usluel (2010) and McCarthy's (2010) results, students who saw Facebook as a
tool to enhance their studies did use it for that purpose. Students would use Facebook
communicate with peers, or get to know them better. Some of the students used it to help
facilitate group communications. Students have also used it to get help with their assignments or
ideas for projects.

Students were more open to use Facebook for co-curricular purposes. Students who were
in on-campus organizations would use it to communicate with their members and organize
events. Sofia said, "I have a lot of groups for my organizations I am in and also for FIU."
Juliana said, "I am in the elementary education group. But I do not do anything with [the group]."
The students stated that they had positive results by using Facebook as a medium of
communication. Students reported that members and other invitees would show up or participate
in on-campus events or other student sponsored events.

Ways Students Use Facebook for Their Studies

The students, who did use Facebook for curricular purposes, said that they used the group
feature to communicate with other students in their classes. The students would create a
Facebook group and invite each other to join the group. Also, some students would post on their
walls questions related to their assignments and their friends would provide them with help.

Nancy provided a good description of the extent she used the groups for academic
purposes:

One of my classmates did not have a cellphone. She said to add her on Facebook. We
would instant message each other for homework assignments, information, meeting, and
general information about the chapters we are reading. Also, on group assignments and
when we are working on a PowerPoint, we would send each other our portion of the work
on Facebook. Instant messaging worked because everyone would response right away.

Denis used the group feature for group projects:

Sometimes I am in a group project with people, like in education class. We form a group
on Facebook and that is how we communicate with each other. We like talk about our
assignments and what we have to do. What we each have to do for our project.

Sofia discussed the features that some students, in a finance class, used to cheat:

People were sharing answers for the homework and it was online homework. I guess
somebody in the group talked to the professor and showed him the group. There were

like two or three people that created the group and he wanted to get them in trouble, on probation or something with the university.

The ways in which Facebook was used by the students is similar to how the students in Schroeder and Greenbowe (2009) used Facebook. Facebook groups were used as a discussion tool for a chemistry class. However, in this study, the students who used a Facebook group for a class did not use it for discussion and instead mostly to exchange basic knowledge. Also, the positive experiences by the students are similar to McCarthy's (2010) results; students' attitudes towards interactions with other students were mostly positive.

Eight students did not feel comfortable being Facebook "friends" with a professor. This is consistent with the prior findings of Malesky Jr and Peters (2012) who reported that students did not feel comfortable being friends with their current professors, and female students were more reluctant to be friends with their professors than were male students.

There were different ways students used Facebook for co-curricular purposes. Three students joined groups that helped them communicate with other members who belonged to their on-campus organization. They would post events and reminders about upcoming events. It also allowed the students to "friend" each other. Three students joined a department's Facebook group page. However, only one of them was actively engaged in the group.

Students' Beliefs on How Facebook Can be Used to Further Studies

Seven of the nine students do not believe Facebook should be used by the university to help them in their curricular activities. Four students specifically said that they want to keep Facebook separate from their academic life. Three students believe that Facebook can help them in their studies. These students would want their professor to create a Facebook group so that the class can join and participate in discussions.

Seven students did not want to use Facebook in their studies. Three students said they would not mention anything to their professor on how they can use Facebook for their classes. Itachi strongly opposed any Facebook adaptation for academic usage:

I wouldn't because I've chosen to keep Facebook secretive not for any other purposes. Just because I use Facebook to communicate with friends or family and I don't involve anything political or school related material.

Similarly, Jamos opposed the use of Facebook in a class; he even said that if it was required he would do the minimum requirement:

I would not tell them to use it. Do not think it is needed. If it was going to happen anyways I will still partake in it. However, I will only read posts and not contribute to the group.

Cassandra provided some suggestion on how professors could use Facebook in their classes; she was hesitant about the idea of Facebook being used in classes:

If I wanted to say something to the professor I guess they can send out messages on Facebook. Make a group on Facebook. I know some people that are anti-Facebook and people who do not get on Facebook all the time. If the professor made an assignment that was on Facebook and you had to go to it, then that might make that student feel stereotyped or offended because they are not on Facebook.

Itachi's, Jamos', and Cassandra's responses are similar to the findings of Teclhaimanot and Hickman (2011) and Malesky, Jr. and Peters (2012), who concluded that most students would find it inappropriate for their professors to use Facebook because it would invade their personal privacy.

Two of the students said Facebook would be beneficial for them in their class. Sofia said,

> I would just tell them [the professor] to make a Facebook group for the class. It is actually really helpful because I don't use it for cheating or anything like that but sometimes, you know, you don't go to class and you need some information that the professor gave out, but you don't know anyone in class. But being [in] a group, you can see what happened in class or people [can] have the same questions as you. You can get an answer and get help with the homework and study so actually [it is] really helpful.

The students said it would help them get to know other students in their classes and in the program. It would allow them to ask questions related to class topics or program specific questions. This is similar to results Ryan, Margo, and Sharp (2011) report on doctoral students in a research class with a Facebook group created by the instructor; cultural and student tips helped students acclimate to their program.

Seven of the nine students stated positive opinions about how administrators can use Facebook to help them further their co-curricular activities. Seven students said that they would want departments to make Facebook groups. Sofia said, "More Facebook groups [are] helpful, just not for cheating. Being in a group forms friendships and it is easy to talk to others, including administrators." Nancy stated that administrators should do the following:

> [They] should include the policies for the department in a group. It is a business outlet. I feel like it is the young thing to do. There can be fun ways to address issues. If the administrators constantly update statuses, then they can receive feedbacks.

Jamos was excited to provide his answer:

> Hmm that's good! I like how you worded this question. The Marine ecology department, where I did my Masters, had a Facebook group where I could like them and be informed of seminars. It was a great way to advertise seminars and events. I have not experienced that here at FIU. This was in Portugal.

Within these groups they want information pertaining to that office, such as office hours, event information, event reminders, and staff information. Junco (2012) found that Facebook activities, such as commenting on posts, creating or RSVP'ing to events, and viewing photography, were positive predictors of co-curricular activities. These are the same activities that these students would look forward to in Facebook groups created by administrators.

Limitations

There were some limitations to this study. Also, not enough students participated to determine a difference between undergraduate and graduate students. Another limitation was that the researcher may have used terms that the student may not have understood. For example, when the researcher used the word *co-curricular*, some of the students seemed confused and it may have led to students' not associating co-curricular activities as part of their studies. Also, the researcher did not press on the topic of cheating. At the time of the study, the researcher thought that students would not have wanted to share experiences similar to Sofia's.

Recommendations for Future Study

The study added to the current literature by researching how students use Facebook and their thoughts on using Facebook for studies. However, further research is needed regarding the relationship between students' priorities, personalities, and how they view the usage of Facebook to enhance their curricular and co-curricular learning outcomes. Also, separate studies in each of the colleges available at a university can provide information on whether there are differences or commonalities in the different ways students use Facebook based on the college. To replicate this study using mixed methods or quantitative methods with a larger sample would allow for generalization to a larger population, and reduce researcher's personal biases and idiosyncrasies.

Also, group comparisons and associations can be further analyzed and generalized to the population. If mixed methods are used, the researcher can still find themes in complex social behaviors (Creswell, 2009) on Facebook. One aspect that should be examined is how students are using Facebook for cheating purposes and its frequency. This study revealed a situation in which Facebook was used to cheat for a class.

Recommendations for Instruction and Practice

The results of this study can be used for instruction and practice in higher education. One way it can be used for instruction purposes would be to not use Facebook at all. The majority of the students in the study stated they would not want Facebook to be used for curricular purposes. If the majority of other students in a university share the same sentiments, then perhaps the professor should not use it at all.

There are indirect uses for which professors can use Facebook. For instance, in a psychology class, a professor can provide blurred profiles of other students in maladaptive behaviors. Also, in a business ethics class a professor can provide profile examples of how employers judge a candidate based on the moral and ethical decisions posted on a profile. Based on the students responses for professor involvement, as long as the professor does make Facebook the primary tool of learning, then students would be fine if Facebook were used as examples of topics.

Using Facebook in a co-curricular setting would be viewed appropriate by most students. Administrators could use Facebook to promote programs and departments that are available to students. Having group discussions based on an upcoming event would be beneficial in engaging students before an event. Also, a department can do weekly giveaways where students would have to answers questions, show up to an event, or talk to someone in a department to receive gifts.

Based on the results of this study and literature (e.g., Malesky, Jr., & Peters, 2012; Teclehaimanot & Hickman, 2011), it is recommended that departments not use Facebook to have direct contact with students. For instance, it is recommended that an administrator not use Facebook to have instant messages with students. Instant messages with a student would require that the administrator be friends with the student.

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Neuroangradogy in Online Education

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Abstract: The purpose of this perspective in practice essay is to address the effectiveness of online learning based on adult brain-based education. This essay attempts to answer the question: Do what we know about the brain (neurology) and adult teaching methods (andragogy) play a key role in learning in online courses?

Adult education has followed educational research rooted in more than 60 years of psychological research in education and learning and has resisted paradigm shifts from the traditional lecture model. This approach, based on psychology, may be problematic, as it is disconnected from neuroscience, a study of what we know about the brain. Research in the field of psychology consist of soft data, while neuroscience research provides hard biological data and explanations that should help educators design courses.

It is important that this relatively new field of online education be given special consideration. Because online education is delivered to individuals who are not physically present (on site) with the instructor, technology is a central part of such delivery (Suarez-Brown, Grice, Turner, & Hankins, 2012). Thus, how the brain stores and analyzes data must be at the forefront of the conversion from the physical classroom to the virtual classroom. The lack of non-verbal feedback to the instructor may be grounds for forecasting the learning experience; therefore, designing learning units based on how the brain functions should help address questions that may arise.

In essence, efforts by educators should find roots in how the brain works. Therefore, principles of neuroandragogy (the art of teaching adults rooted in neuroscience) must be the basis for the delivery of courses in universities throughout the world. Some universities may be adhering to neuroandragogy while others persist on pedagogical approaches more appropriate for primary and secondary education. This discussion on neuroandragogy is believed to transcend to all educational fields and provides limitations and recommendations in order to promote future research. The intent of this essay is to address the challenges of online education and provide possible solutions based on neuroscience.

The Literature

With advances in an increasing acceptance of online education, more adults from all different backgrounds turn to higher education to seek the promise and the possibility of professional, intellectual advancement. These working adults are not the traditional 18 to 24 year old full-time students with scholarships, grants, and parental support. These individuals have families to support, jobs, and a myriad of societal responsibilities. The online environment presents formidable implications for the learning that needs to take place in the higher education arena.

An argument can be made for different education methodological processes that take into consideration students' present situations and maturity level. What does the knowledge about the brain and adult learning prescribe? Gura (2005) suggested that any teaching method used should be complemented by the natural development of the brain in order to obtain the greatest benefit from the learning situation.

Pedagogy vs. Andragogy

Researchers appear to agree that the need of individuals to mature and meet certain learning and life necessities is evident. In fact, Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956), Knowles's (1972) taxonomy of competency development model (the basis for andragogy), and Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954; Urwiler & Frolick, 2008) support the idea that more mature individuals require a learning methodology different from the methodology employed with children.

Forrest and Peterson (2006) made a case that pedagogy "refers specifically to children and assumptions for teaching children" while andragogy "focuses on the adult learner and creation of an independent, adaptable individual" (p. 113). Knowles (1989) compared pedagogy and andragogy to six key assumptions: (a) learner's need to know, (b) experience, (c) self-concept, (d) readiness to learn, (e) orientation to learning, and (f) motivation. An argument can be made that in education this means pedagogy applies to 18-23 year old students, and andragogy applies more to students 24 years and older (Bale & Dudney, 2000). Nonetheless, Bale and Dudney emphasized "the learning style of Generation X and teaching strategies of college educators" (p. 217) might correspond better to the andragogy teaching philosophy.

Knowles (1970) argued that pedagogy, according to its etymology, literally means the art of teaching children; in Greek the word *paid* means child and *agogous* means educator or to teach. On the same token, Knowles argued that the word andragogy derives from the Greek words *aner (andros)*, which means adult male, and *agogous,* which means the art of teaching adult males (as cited in Mohring, 1990). Although Knowles's (1970) literal definition for andragogy excludes the word women (Mohring, 1990), it is used by Knowles to mean both men and women.

Neuroscience

Recently, clinical and molecular neurologists suggest that advancements in neuroscience research have included brain rules (Ecker, 2010; Medina, 2008) not previously known by educational theorists. Specifically, it is now known that synapses in the brain, or where data is stored, do change (Ecker, 2010). Furthermore, the term neurogenesis has begun to surface amongst brain scientists (Medina, 2008).

Medina (2008), a developmental molecular biologist, teaches the common adult 9 to 5 workday schedule is opposite to what the brain's natural inclination wants to do. Therefore, the class schedule of traditional universities may be counterproductive to learning. For the adult learner, the adult brain is forced to attend a synchronous class at midday when his or her brain wants to "go to sleep"--the midday tiredness most everyone experiences. The following list edifies research conducted by Medina (2008) about the brain:

- Exercise boosts brain power.
- The human brain evolved, too.
- Every brain is wired differently.
- We don't pay attention to boring things.
- Repeat to remember.
- Remember to repeat.
- Sleep well, think well.
- Stressed brains don't learn the same way.
- Stimulate more of the senses.
- Vision trumps all other senses.
- Male and female brains are different.

- We are powerful and natural explorers. (p. 3)

These rules may be appropriate, given what is known about the brain, to endure an educational reform based on these brain rules and experimental research with new models aimed at allowing the brain to do what it wants to do naturally. An asynchronous online course allows the innate disposition of the brain to takes its course. As an example, the concept of a "siesta" is practiced by many cultures, such as the one in Spain, and may be necessary during the afternoon sleepies in order for the brain to assess everything that had happened thus far during the day. Why attend an afternoon class or meeting when the brain travels to an alternate place looking to regroup? Why go to work or school from 8:00 to 3:00 PM? Why not 7:00 PM? Many variables, much scientific data, and an insatiable refusal to accept a true paradigm shift in education may be preventing the maximizing of an educational system.

Wein (2010) suggested that resting may boost memory. Tambini and Davachi (as cited by Wein, 2010) explained that "rest is important for memory and cognitive function" (para.8). Their research studied whether consolidation of ideas in the brain happens while at rest but not necessarily asleep. If Medina (2008) suggested the brain wants to rest during the 2:00 to 3:00 PM hour and Wein (2010) suggested that rest is important for cognitive functions, why not provide the brain with what it needs in order to increase cognition? Grant the brain a siesta! Another variable to consider regarding such rest is "scientists believe that memories are replayed, with the brain reactivating the same patterns of activity as during the experience itself" (Wein, 2010, para. 2).

Scientists continue to make strides in learning research by suggesting that long-term memory happens through a chemical process where synthesized proteins travel to the hippocampus synapses in order to hold it as a memory (Weis, 2008). Long-term memory is held by specific synapses promoting learning. Thus, the Director of the National Institute of Mental Health in 2008, Dr. Insel, stated that "[We] are actually learning the molecular basis of learning and memory" (Weis, 2008, para. 9). Rest promotes such chemical synthesis, and online education presents the opportunity to maximize learning!

Online Education

One of the best tools resulting from the evolution of technology since the 1980s is the advent of the Internet to the public. Online education, as a means to obtain knowledge through a formal educational institution, also emerged during this time. "The best practice in education is the most efficient (least amount of effort) and effective (best results) way by which society transmits its accumulated knowledge and skills from one generation to another" (Baghdadi, 2011, p. 109). The online environment provides efficiency and effectiveness for the adult learner.

Online education provides the remarkable benefit of "working without the confines of time and location" (Baghdadi, 2011, p. 109), although within deadlines. Today's economic and social changes, coupled with globalization, have made online education a true effective and efficient vehicle for the transfer of knowledge, especially for the adult learner who is most likely inundated with additional obligations.

A comparison between a traditional classroom and an online classroom reveals several interesting points. Initially, the traditional classroom can be divided into two groups: an auditorium based with up to several hundred students and a smaller classroom with up to about 50 students. In an auditorium, there is no time for a question and answer period, which necessitates office hours tightly held and limited to a block of time. All students compete for time with the instructor and there is the chance that no time will be available. A smaller group in a classroom has the advantage of questions and answers and instant gratification, although not

every student is required to ask or answer questions and/or discuss the material offered by the professor due to time constraints. In essence, people can hide behind the answers and discussions given by others.

In the online environment, every student must answer every question the professor poses. In addition, with today's technology, the instances of plagiarized work are usually detected and often deterred. This is not necessarily true in the traditional environment. Moreover, in the online course, every student must demonstrate comprehension of the concepts posted in the courseroom by one means or another, such as discussion threads or the submission of an assignment. Students cannot hide behind a classmate's answer; everyone must participate. Another vital point is that online students, unlike their traditional counterparts, must prepare different modes of written communication (e.g., e-mail, texts, essays, letters, etc.) almost daily. Online students practice professional writing throughout their programs, necessary in today's global environment.

An argument can be made that online adult education has the potential to better adhere to what the brain wants to do naturally, increasing both learning and memory. If differences between children's and adult's education, how the brain learns best, and the efficiency and effectiveness of information transfer that online education affords is known, then neuroandragogy through online education appears to provide the appropriate and necessary paradigm shift in adult education.

Neuroandragogy

Limited research and publications on neuroandragogy weakens the point of this essay except for the work of Wilson (2006). Thus, the mixing of neurology and andragogy, as a new field, must be rigorously studied. To maximize learning, what is known about the brain,(Medina's (2008) 12 Brain Rules, must be integrated with adult teaching methods, Knowles' (1970) Andragogy. Figure 1 presents the framework for neuroandragogy. Learning outcomes, especially in online education, draw upon the strengths of neuroandragogy by, for example, taking a fact from neurology, stimulate more of the senses, combined with Knowles assumptions of learning through others' experiences. A discussion and assignment draw on the experiences of others through different forums of written and multimedia formats; thus, the visual and auditory senses are stimulated. This gives way to two other neurology rules: repeat to remember and remember to repeat.

The online environment appears to be ripe for neuroandragogy. Course designers and instructors are well advised to take into consideration what we know about the brain (Medina, 2008) with andragogy (Knowles, 1970) to strengthen the best practices in online adult education. Discarding differences in adult and childhood education or dismissing Medina's brain rules may delimit true and proficient learning.

Implications and Recommendations

To adopt neuroandragogy in online higher education signifies being aware of individual differences in learning styles and the fact that learning adults have other responsibilities besides being full time students. Online courses must be designed differently than brick and mortar courses and delivered in a way to capture the theoretical underpinnings of neurology and andragogy. Thus the online instructor must possess a different set of competencies than those in the face-to-face environment.

An example of how neurology may suggest ways to enhance the adult online education experience and effectiveness is necessary. Through an assignment the student must read, analyze and interpret directions without immediate feedback and must rely mainly on written

directions by the instructor. For both online and face-to-face students this suggests that in order to understand the assignment and apply the highest levels of Bloom's taxonomy (1956), the cognitive domains of analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating commences while reading the assignment. It can be argued that as a rule (but not always), students in a face-to-face environment dedicate all their time to studying and can evaluate each assignment at a time convenient to learning according to the brain rules delineated by Medina (2008). Online students, due to professional and family responsibilities, as a rule, may have limited time during the day to choose. In this situation if the brain wants to go into standby mode in order to reboot while it is the only time the online student has to undertake the assignment, a biological conflict ensues that may decrease true learning. A question must be asked as to the timing, content, and methodology of such hindrance to learning.

Other than the evident need for further research and discussions through refereed publications, education focused on neuroandragogy for online instructors is needed. It may be necessary to design a post-graduate certification in neuroandragogy that addresses both sciences, though there may be a resistance to change from more seasoned educators but a welcomed start for new and prospective ones.

Although controversial, no all practitioners know how to, or can, promote learning. An educator must receive certain training to learn how to teach other than providing a lecture (e.g., to follow Medina's (2008) brain rule #4). The simple solution to such problem is through education by expanding the body of knowledge in adult learning.

Conclusions

Neuroandragogy as a science is in its infancy. Understanding that change is hard to accept may fuel a most needed debate about a paradigm shift in online adult education. Understanding the brain and how it learns is important for all educators, but in the distance environment, the lack of such knowledge is detrimental to students and the service graduates are expected to provide society.

This paper attempts to initiate a debate regarding the theory of neuroandragogy and suggests that online adult education must continue to evolve, such as the brain has (Medina, 2008) to be able to capture the science of the brain and the science of teaching adults.

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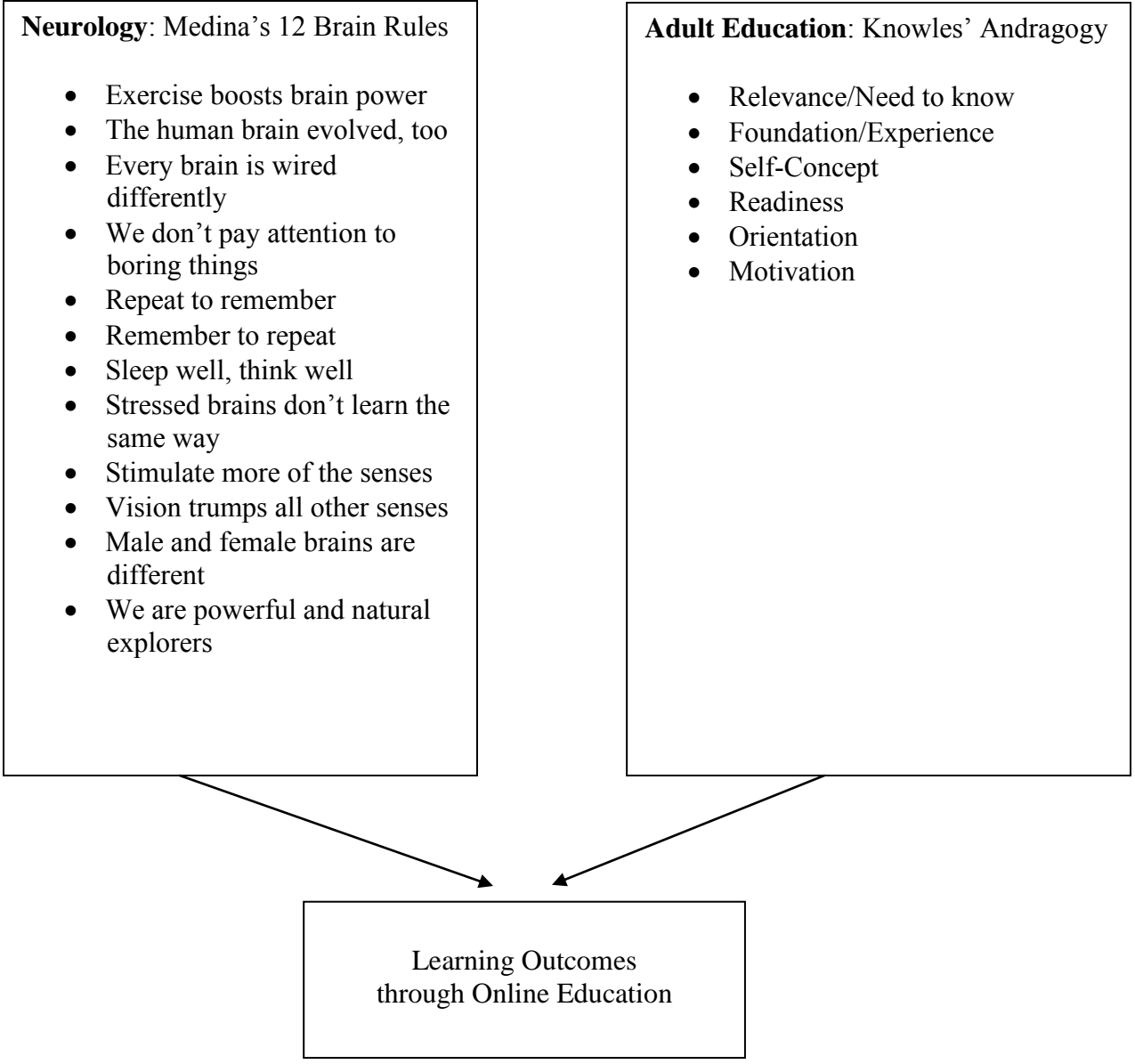| Neurology: Medina's 12 Brain Rules	Adult Education: Knowles' Andragogy
• Exercise boosts brain power • The human brain evolved, too • Every brain is wired differently • We don't pay attention to boring things • Repeat to remember • Remember to repeat • Sleep well, think well • Stressed brains don't learn the same way • Stimulate more of the senses • Vision trumps all other senses • Male and female brains are different • We are powerful and natural explorers	• Relevance/Need to know • Foundation/Experience • Self-Concept • Readiness • Orientation • Motivation

Learning Outcomes
through Online Education

Figure 1: Incorporation of Medina's 12 Brain Rules with Knowles' Andragogy.

Categorical Differences in Scores of Students with Disabilities on the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test

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Abstract: Students with disabilities participate in statewide assessments as required by federal law, and the success of schools is contingent on this group making Adequate Yearly Progress. This report on research includes the findings of differences between disability categories scoring proficient on the FCAT from the years 2005 through 2010.

The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) known as The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) (P. L. 107 – 110) was signed into law to increase accountability and narrow achievement gaps. One provision of NCLB was that all students must be proficient in reading and mathematics by 2014. Additionally, students in subgroups in each district and state must make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) as measured by statewide assessments. Students with disabilities constitute one of those AYP subgroups, and all students with disabilities, regardless of their disability, are grouped into one category for reporting purposes (Moores, 2005). Ascertaining categorical differences could inform educational decisions, policy, and best practices resulting in higher student achievement.

Students with disabilities have been participating in statewide assessments as required by the 1997 amendment to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA; Yell, Katsiyannis, & Hazelkorn, 2007). Although NCLB requires students with disabilities to participate in statewide assessments, 1% of students with the most significant cognitive disabilities may participate in an alternate assessment. Additionally, states were later permitted to use modified achievement assessments for 2% of students with disabilities (Cho & Kingston, 2011). However, Florida only permits 1% of students with disabilities to participate in the alternate assessment. All others must take the statewide-standardized assessment known as the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT).

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed between disability categories on the percentage of 4th and 5th grade students with disabilities scoring at the proficient level on the FCAT from the years 2005 through 2010. The research questions guiding this study were:

R[1]: To what extent do disability categorical differences exist in the reading, mathematics, and writing FCAT scores of 4th grade students with disabilities in the years 2005 through 2010?

R[2]: To what extent do disability categorical differences exist in the reading, mathematics, and science FCAT scores of 5th grade students with disabilities in the years 2005 through 2010? (Trexler, 2013, "Research Questions," para. 1)

Review of the Literature

Students with disabilities have struggled for many years to be included in the public school system. Opportunities for students with disabilities started to develop gradually in the wake of the civil rights movement, which itself had progressed slowly from *Plessy v. Ferguson*

(1896) to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). Many students with disabilities either were denied access or received an education inappropriate for their needs.

In the early 1970s, only 20% of students with disabilities were receiving an education. A 1974 report indicated that 1.7 million students with disabilities were totally excluded from public education, and another 3 million students with disabilities did not receive an education appropriate to the individuals' needs (Katsiyannis, Yell, & Bradley, 2001). Two landmark cases in the early seventies that undertook this issue were *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth* (1971) and *Mills v. Board of Education of District of Columbia* (1972) (Alexander & Alexander, 2009; Katsiyannis et al., 2001). These cases resulted in students with disabilities no longer being excluded from public education: first, for students with intellectual disabilities in the *PARC* case and then all students with disabilities in the *Mills* case (Alexander & Alexander, 2009).

Many legal cases and support from advocates further accentuated the need for students with disabilities to access public education with increased rights. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) of 1975 was the first law to provide numerous services to students with disabilities. The most significant of these rights was for students with disabilities to receive a free and appropriate education and to be educated in the least restrictive environment to the maximum extent possible with their non-disabled peers. Additionally, students would receive an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) and protection for parents and students through due process (Alexander & Alexander, 2009; Katsiyannis et al., 2001; Keogh, 2007).

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act was renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990. In 1997, an amendment to IDEA required students with disabilities be held to the same standard as the general population and participate in statewide assessments (Yell et al., 2007). Several years later, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was signed into law to increase school accountability and narrow achievement gaps. Students with disabilities would be one group of students who would be required to make AYP in all schools, districts, and states. Additionally, all students would be required to be proficient in mathematics and reading by the year 2014 (Turnbull, 2009).

Failing to make AYP has serious consequences and could eventually result in schools being in need of corrective action and possible restructuring (Floch, Taylor, & Thomsen, 2006). Although the original intent of NCLB is indeed praiseworthy, there have been unintended consequences due to the pressure and effects of not meeting AYP. Several criticisms of NCLB include lack of resources (Shirvani, 2009), loss of instructional time (Bejoian & Reid, 2005; Berliner, 2009), teaching to the test (Amrein-Beardsley, 2009), no consideration of home environment (Floch et al., 2006; Shirvani, 2009), and the narrowing of the curriculum by increasing the focus on tested subjects (Bejoian & Reid, 2005; Berliner, 2009). The 100% proficiency requirement of NCLB has been reported as being unrealistic (Linn, 2008) and statistically impossible (Maleyko & Gawlik, 2011; Rose, 2004). Linn (2003) reported that if a straight-line trajectory were used, "it would take 57 years for the percentage for grade 4 to reach 100. For grade 8 it would take 61 years and for grade 12 it would take 166 years" (p. 6).

Although students with disabilities are required to participate in statewide assessments, they are permitted to use approved accommodations to "level the playing field" which are decided on by the IEP team. In Florida, accommodations are permitted in the areas of presentation, scheduling, responding, setting, and assistive technology (Florida Department of Education, FDOE, 2010). However, even with accommodations, students with disabilities lag behind their general education peers. Darling-Hammond (2007) suggested that taking a grade

level test is in conflict with accommodation provisions such as testing on one's instructional level and the intent of an IEP based on individual needs. The effect of schools not making AYP due to the special education population could have negative outcomes, such as students with disabilities being further stigmatized (Bejoian & Reid, 2005) and experiencing increased dropout rates (Allbritten, Mainzer, & Ziegler, 2004). Accordingly, Rose (2004) reported that students with disabilities would shoulder the blame for schools not making AYP. With the year 2014 approaching rapidly, many if not all schools would be considered failing, which has resulted in an outcry for changes to NCLB (Linn, 2005; Packer, 2007; Welner, 2005). "Otherwise, NCLB will remain an unfunded, unfair, and unattainable mandate that largely labels and punishes schools and denies all children their basic right to a great public school" (Packer, 2007, p. 269).

In 2011, several years after NCLB was to be reauthorized, President Obama announced a plan, which would provide relief from 10 provisions of NCLB, including the AYP requirement and the 100% proficiency requirement. States could apply for these flexibility waivers as long as certain criteria were met (U. S. DOE, 2011a; U. S. DOE, 2011b). Florida was one of the first states to apply for and obtain the flexibility waiver in February 2012 (U.S. DOE, 2012).

Although Florida was given relief from the AYP and the 100% proficiency requirement by 2014, Florida's option for setting goals is to increase the number of students scoring at the proficient range while decreasing the number of students not scoring at the proficient level by 50% by the 2016-2017 school year. Florida also stated that it would continue to use letter grades for schools as well. The performance of students with disabilities on the FCAT is included in these calculations. As stated earlier, students with disabilities are reported as one whole group regardless of the separate categories (FDOE, 2012). Additionally, the Student Success Act requires that 50% of a teacher's evaluation be based on students' performance based on statewide assessments. Subsequently, a Value Added Model was developed that incorporates students with disabilities as a consideration in student characteristics (FDOE, n.d.a).

Students with disabilities should be included in accountability systems; however, high stakes testing has resulted in negative consequences. Students with disabilities continue to score well below their general education counterparts and their scores are calculated together as one whole group for reporting, calculating school grades, and most recently, teacher evaluations. Conversely, if the student with disabilities group was disaggregated and analyzed for categorical differences, the information gleaned would fill a gap in the research and inform educational decisions and policy, best practices, instructional grouping, professional development, interventions, brain research, and guide instruction, therefore resulting in increased achievement for students with disabilities.

Method

This was a quantitative, *ex post facto,* descriptive research design. FCAT scores are available on the Florida DOE website with many options for retrieval. This study used the percentage of students with disabilities scoring at the proficient level in each of the following categories: Autism spectrum disorder, deaf/hard of hearing, emotional/behavioral disability, intellectual disability, hospital/homebound, language impaired, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, specific learning disabled, speech impaired, traumatic brain injury, and visually impaired. Scores for students with dual sensory disabilities were not reported due to subgroup size and were therefore not included in this study. Additionally, the percentage for the general education population was included to use as a reference (Trexler, 2013).

Participants

The FCAT scores are public information; therefore, no human participants were involved in this study. Fourth grade reading, mathematics, and writing, and 5th grade reading, mathematics, and science were included covering 6 years, 2005 through 2010 (Trexler, 2013).

Data Collection and Analysis

The percentage of students scoring at the proficient level was retrieved from the FDOE website and entered into SPSS statistical software. Percentages were input from 4th and 5th grades in all subject areas and disability categories for the years 2005 through 2010. In order to isolate the general education population from the gifted and special education populations, several calculations were used. Scores were retrieved from the general education population with the gifted population included, and the isolated gifted population. Through a series of calculations, the gifted population was extracted from the total population leaving just the general education population. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each category for the 6-year period (Trexler, 2013).

<div align="center">

Results

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This research was conducted to identify if there were differences between disability categories in the percentage of 4th and 5th grade students scoring at the proficient level on the FCAT for the years 2005 through 2010. There was no need for statistical significance testing because these were true scores from the total tested population (Trexler, 2013).

The data show differences between disability categories in each grade and subject. The speech only population had a higher number of students scoring at the proficient level than the other categories including the general education population consistently except 4th grade writing. Additionally, the intellectually disabled population had the lowest percentage of students scoring at the proficient level, and excluding writing, the highest percentage was 3.5% (Trexler, 2013).

Reading

In reading, the disability categories were in the same rank order for both grades (See Table 1).

Table 1. *Fourth and Fifth Grade Reading Percentage Proficient*

Category	Fourth Grade		Fifth Grade	
	μ	σ	μ	σ
Speech	77	2.83	75	2.45
General ed.	73	3.13	72	2.58
Vision	61	19.81	61	2.48
Hosp/home	53	6.28	53	2.16
Ortho	47	5.42	49	3.83
OHI	40	3.27	38	2.42
Autism	37	6.65	38	7.6
EBD	35	3.95	35	2.43
Hearing	34	6.79	35	6.11
SLD	32	2.88	33	2.48
Language	31	4.16	28	4.58

TBI	29	4.92	20	7.47
ID	3	0.89	3	1.1

Note. µ rounded to the nearest whole number, σ rounded to the nearest hundred thousandths.

The highest standard deviation in reading was in the 4th grade vision category ($\sigma =$ 19.81). It appears this was the result of 10% more students scoring at the proficient level in 2009, increasing the range from 13 to 23. The years with the highest number of students scoring at the proficient level for 4th grade reading were 2009 and 2010, and the lowest year was 2006. For 5th grade, the highest percentages were in the years 2007 and 2010 with the lowest in 2005 and 2006 (Trexler, 2013). Graphs representing yearly means for each category and grade are displayed in the Appendix (Figure 1 and Figure 2).

Mathematics

In mathematics, each category had approximately 9% fewer students score at the proficient level in 5th grade than in the 4th grade. Again, speech had the highest percentage mean in both 4th (µ=77.5) and 5th grade (µ=67) and intellectual disabilities had the lowest percentages (4th: µ=3.5; 5th: µ=2). The specific learning disability category, which makes up nearly 50% of the special education population in the 4th and 5th grades, had significantly lower percentages score at the proficient level than their general education peers did with a difference of over 30%. However, in contrast to reading, the percentages of 4th grade students scoring at the proficient level increased gradually from 2005 to 2010 (Trexler, 2013).

Writing

Fourth grade writing prompt scores were used to generate yearly means for each category. Percentages of students scoring at a level three or higher were considered proficient for the purposed of this study. Narrative and expository prompt scores were calculated together for each category for one overall mean. All categories had increased percentages of students scoring at the proficient level than in the other subjects. This is the only subject where speech (µ=92.33) had fewer students at the proficient level than the general education population (µ=93.83). In the intellectually disabled category, a higher percentage scored at the proficient level than in the other grades and subjects (µ=38.17), but was still 20% from the next category (Autism: µ=58.17) and well below the general education population. Notably, in the intellectually disabled category (trainable mentally handicapped), 30% of the narrative writing prompts were reported as being unscorable and in the educable mentally handicapped category, 14%. The expository group had fewer than 10 students so these results were not reported. In 2008, FDOE no longer reported unscorable prompts, however, by calculating the other levels and dividing by the total number of students, the number of unscorable prompts could still be estimated (Trexler, 2013).

Science

The majority of categories increased the number of students scoring at the proficient level gradually from 2005 to 2010. Speech had the highest percentage (µ=48) with intellectual disabilities the lowest (µ=1). The specific learning disability category had a 6-year mean of 19% (Trexler, 2013).

Summary

In each grade and subject, categorical differences existed between disability categories. Additionally, the majority of categories, with the exception of speech and vision, had much fewer students score at the proficient level than the general education population. Additionally, 6 year means were calculated in all categories and subjects. The total percentages may have

differed within categories across the subjects; however, the overall distribution was the same (see Figure 3; Trexler, 2013).

Discussion

Students with disabilities continue to lag behind their general education peers on the FCAT with little progress being made. Categorical differences exist between disability categories with the highest percentage of students scoring at the proficient level from the speech category and the lowest being the intellectually disabled category. Students with the most significant cognitive disabilities may participate in an alternate assessment. Although, the U. S. DOE permitted states to develop a modified assessment for an additional 2% of students to take a modified assessment, Florida only permits the 1% stipulation with the remainder of those students taking the FCAT on grade level. The intellectually disabled population makes up 2% of the special education population in the 4th and 5th grades. If these students were permitted to participate in a more appropriate modified assessment, a more accurate measurement of learning could be attained. This could also result in a gain in instructional time for these students by not being engaged in the negative consequences discussed earlier. Additionally, these means and standard deviations suggest that students with disabilities and their general education peers are unlikely to meet the 2016 flexibility waiver goals (Trexler, 2013).

Many have suggested more appropriate means for measuring student growth such as pre-tests and post-tests (Allbritten et al., 2004), testing on instructional levels and IEP goals (Quigney, 2008), and site visits (Smyth, 2008). Additionally, the costs of these tests are very high. For the 2010-2011 school year, the cost per student test was $30.87 for the 2010-2011 school year in Florida resulting in an expenditure of nearly 50 million dollars (FDOE, n.d.b). These findings could provide justification for more appropriate means of measurement for some students with disabilities.

Implications

These findings should inform educational policy and decisions such as the newly developed teacher evaluations including the Value Added Model in the state of Florida. This research adds to the justification for a modified assessment in the state as well. Continued research could replicate this study in higher grades and in other states or could seek to investigate the factors that lead to higher achievement in both reading and mathematics in the speech category such as early intervention or small group instruction. Additionally, research that focuses on instructional techniques to increase achievement in the disability categories and subsequent professional development should also be targeted (Trexler, 2013).

Population scoring differences exist between disability categories on the FCAT in the fourth and fifth grades through the years 2005 – 2010. Suggestions include investigating a more appropriate means for measuring achievement for students with disabilities. Further stigmatization of this population for failing to make adequate gains on grade level assessments, which results in negative consequences, must be avoided. These students have been identified and demonstrate a need for special education services. To remove the "special" in the name of accountability is simply negligent.

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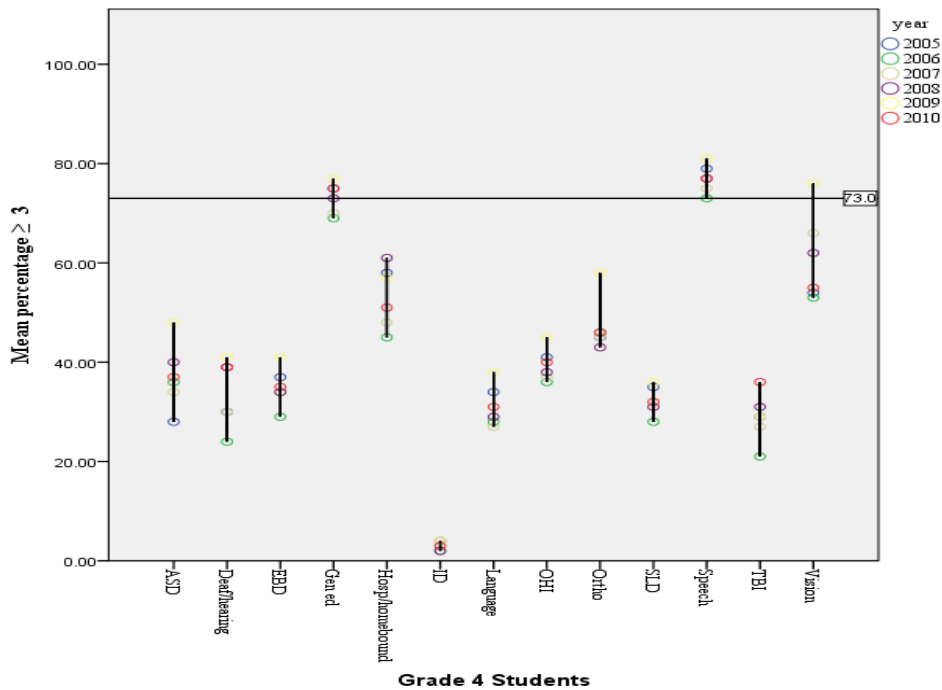
Appendix

Figure 1. Mean scores of students scoring at the proficient level in 4th grade reading for each year. General education overall mean is 73%.
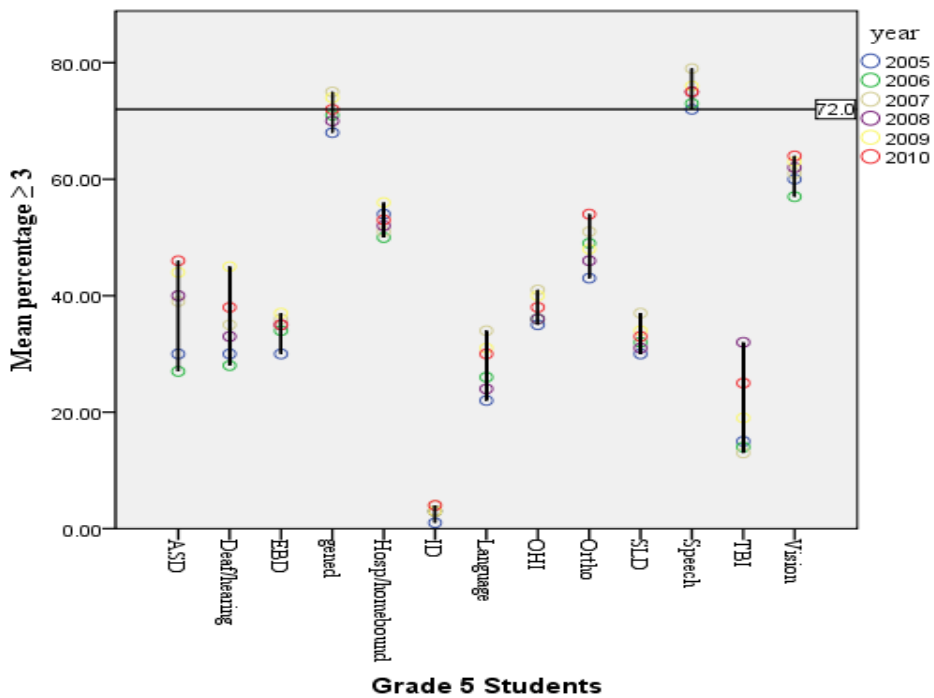

Figure 2. Mean scores of students scoring at the proficient level in 5th grade reading. General education overall mean is 72%.
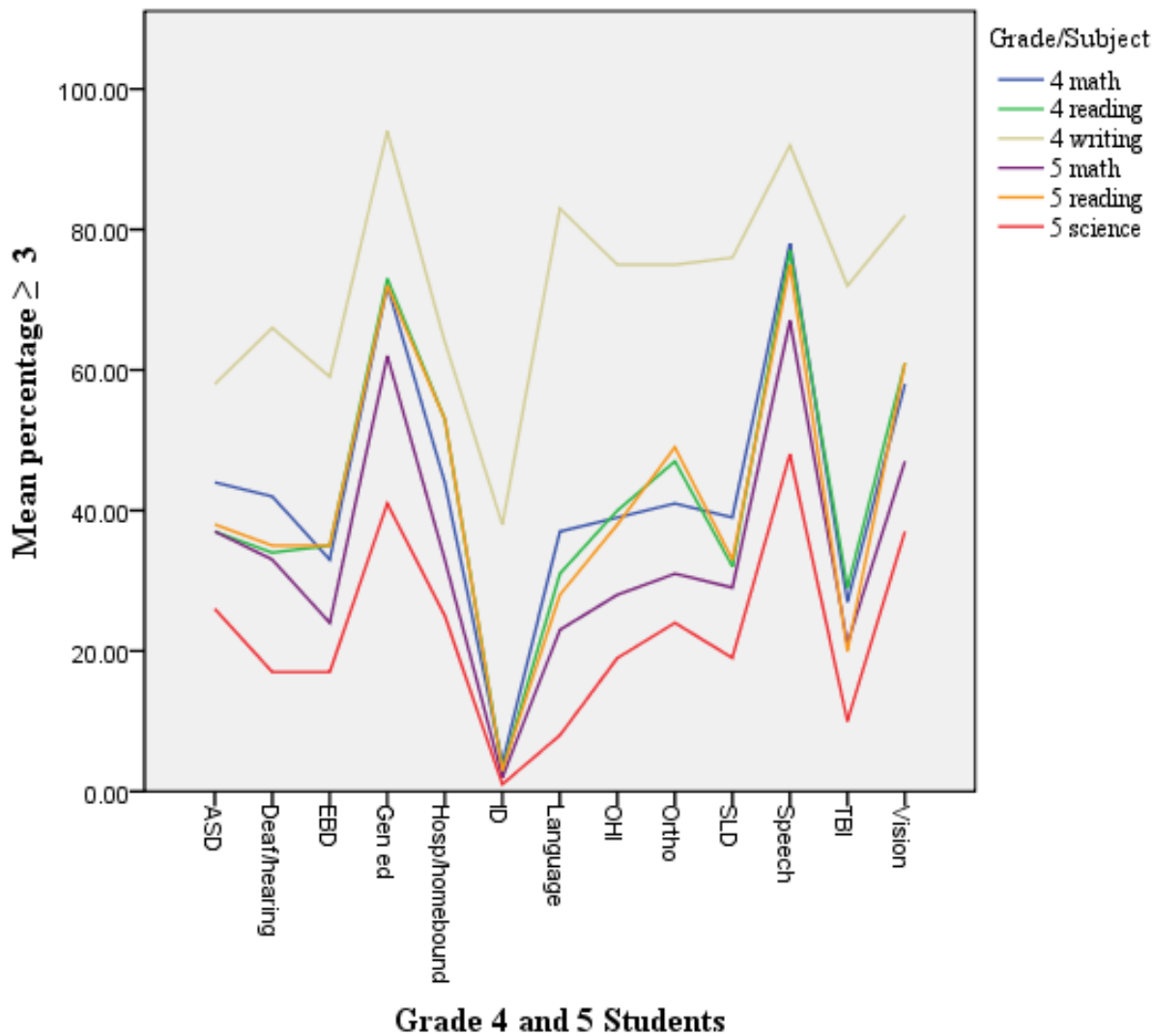
Figure 3. Overall (2005-2010) mean scores of students scoring at the proficient level in all six subjects.

Ethics in Correctional Education

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Abstract: Ethics has been researched in corrections and education separately; however, there has been limited research related to the dialogue in correctional education. This paper defines the state of ethics in correctional education, identify the function of ethical dilemmas for correctional educators, and suggest a method for resolving dilemmas.

There is no formal code of ethics for correctional educators. Ethics for educators is unlike the extensive dialogue of ethics, which occurs in criminal justice. Ethics is often taught during criminal justice or corrections preparation programs, university coursework, or delineated by the certifying/regulating body. Correctional educators are not required to be certified by any specific regulating agency. While some facilities may require a state teaching certificate, not all have this as a standard. The cross disciplinary nature of their work requires that they pull from corrections and education regulations when determining propriety. Corrections and education have very different purposes; therefore, their goals and desired outcomes also vary. This difference in purpose can create conflict when the two fields are together and education is occurring in a correctional setting. It is important to have an ethical organization in order to have ethical employees, whether they are teachers or officers; however, does that mean there has to be one explicit code of ethics in order for members to behave ethically? The purpose of this paper is to explain the role of ethics in the field of corrections education. This paper will begin by providing general definitions or adult and correctional education settings. Then define the state of ethics in correctional education, examine the views on codes of ethics, identify the role that ethical dilemmas serve in the careers of correctional educators and establish a method for resolving ethical dilemmas. The paper will conclude with a brief overview of moral judgment and awareness that every correctional educator will be faced with an ethical dilemma sometime during his or her working career and provide a model for resolving dilemmas.

The drama of public scandals, unethical practice, and accusations has practically become common place in industries, such as banking, politics, and for-profit organizations. Professionals, such as police officers, teachers, lawyers, and doctors, have a great responsibility to society to do their jobs ethically. The Principles of Public Service Ethics (2005) emphasized that public servants, such as law enforcement officers and educators, should treat their office as a public trust. Public servants should also honor the spirit of democracy and set a positive example of good citizenship by observing the laws, rules, and regulations. Most criminal justice professionals are public servants, including correctional educators; accordingly, they are held to the standards as such (Pollock, 2010). Essential to this trust is an expectation that any ethical issues involving educators will be dealt with in a manner that promotes the benefit of all stakeholders. To many people ethics has come to mean the definition of specific behaviors as right and wrong within profession. Professional ethics is a more explicit type of applied ethics relating to the behavior of certain groups or professions (Powell, 2002). Professional ethics related to the field of adult education, and specifically correctional education, is the primary ethical focus of this paper.

Adult education is defined by Merriam and Brocket (1997) as activities intentionally designed for the purpose of bringing about learning among those whose age, social roles, or self-perception define them as adults. Adult education occurs in a variety of settings. Correctional facilities can serve as the context for adult education. Under the broad heading of the profession, on adult educator would be the subcategory of correctional educator. A correctional educator is a person who teaches/instructs General Educational Development (GED®), adult basic education, career and technical, betterment programs or any courses in a correctional setting- jail, prison, work camp, juvenile detention setting. There is no standard educational requirement or certification required to be an educator in a correctional facility. According to Thomas and Thomas (2008), some of the common sources for teacher and administrators in correctional settings are:

- Retired public and private K-12 teachers.
- Individuals seeking traditional teaching positions but unable to find them, so they accept a correctional education position.
- People who have served as jail/prison guards, clerical staff or some other capacity that have moved into teaching or administration.
- Those teacher/education graduates who choose to work in a correctional education program. (p. 36)

Teachers in jails and prisons often come from diverse backgrounds; therefore, unlike other professionals, they do not have the benefit of a systematic structured training or preparation system. Over half of those incarcerated will participate in some type of educational program, placing them in the responsibility of a correctional educator. A significant difference between adult or correctional educators and K-12 educators is the concerns with student progress and outside assessment (Macfarlane, 2004). The focus of adult education is usually dictated by the students' needs versus a state regulating agency. Adult education has more flexibility; this benefit can lead to ethical dilemmas.

Ethical Systems and Educational Theories

Ethical systems provide a foundation for beliefs and the premises from which people make judgments. Several ethical systems are applicable to the education field. Some elements of ethical formalism, utilitarianism and ethics of care align with the theories of adult education. An ideal correctional education code of ethics would incorporate the practical elements of those ethical systems, along with the functions of adult education. The typologies of adult education include informational, self-realization, occupational, recreational, and political (Merriam & Brockett, 1997). With the wide variety of goals and purposes for adult education, it is clear that there is no one theoretical framework or ethical system that can dictate how to resolve all dilemmas, which may arise in the varieties of settings; however, when the setting is limited to correctional facilities, there is a greater possibility of consensus of ethical behavior.

Ethical formalism is concerned with the motive or the intent of the actor (Powell, 2010). For example, if the actor or correctional educator had good intentions but resulted in problematic results, it would still be ethical because the motives or intentions were good. There are several instances in a correctional classroom setting where good intentions may lead to unethical behaviors. This is problematic and demonstrates the limitations of ethical formalism. Utilitarianism ethical systems are prevalent in educational settings where the purpose is to maximize the benefit for all stakeholders involved, which can include instructors, students, and society. Some of the basic tenets of adult education theory are self-directedness and enhancement of personal growth. These theoretical underpinnings are contradictory to the basis

of utilitarianism, which has little concern for the individual and is more concerned with the good of many (Powell, 2010). This type of opposition in personal beliefs, or possibly conflicts in the two fields of education and corrections, can lead to predicaments which may be readily resolved by an explicit code of ethics.

The ethics of care ethical system emphasizes human relationships and needs. The basis for the system is compassion and concern with individual rights. The system is less based on rules and more guided by emotional inclinations and specific needs (Powell, 2010). This system works well for education in general, outside of the context of a correctional setting, but it can create dilemmas if applied in a correctional education situation. Students/inmates should be treated with respect and in a humane manner. The ethics of care system does support the rehabilitative nature of education in a correctional setting; however, the modes of connectedness and partiality are not appropriate. The correctional setting requires specific rules and formal structures to maintain order and control.

Dimensions of Ethical Practice

Codes and Standards

It is common practice for businesses and industries to have established codes of ethics. Developing and enforcing a code of ethics has long been considered a hallmark of self-regulating professions (Sork, 2009). The codes of ethics from the various professional societies, regardless of the field, have some interesting similarities. Primarily, various codes of ethics stress the same major principle, obligation to the public good or society. These ethical standards serve several purposes for the organizations, including educating, providing guidance, and preventing breaking of the law. A code of ethics can protect the credibility of agencies, business and fields of practice by ensuring high standards of honesty, integrity, and professional conduct of the members, agents, or employees.

American Correctional Association (ACA) is the largest correctional association in the world and they serve all disciplines within the corrections profession. ACA provides the standards and accreditation for all fields and aspects within correctional facilities. The code of ethics established by ACA outlines 17 principles for the members. ACA does not limit members to those in security or corrections, but includes all who work at the facility. The ACA (1994) states, "The American Correctional Association expects of its members unfailing honesty, respect for the dignity and individuality of human beings and a commitment to professional and compassionate service" (ACA Code Of Ethics, para.1). As to be expected of such a large accrediting agency, they have a committee dedicated to ethics concerns and set the ethical standards for corrections.

Many different types of professional associations serve adult education; some are general education associations and others are specific to adults. There are several national organizations, such as American Association for Adult Education, American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, and American Society for Training and Development. Corrections Education Association is a national organization which focuses on the need of correctional educators. Among all of these groups there has not been a consensus to develop a code of ethics for the adult education field. In 1984, the Council on Continuing Education Unit developed a set of principles aimed at promoting good practice, but it was not specifically aimed at ethical issues. In the early 1990s The Commission of Professors of Adult Education developed Standards for Graduate Programs in Adult Education, which also did not address ethical decision making. ProLiteracy Worldwide, a volunteer literacy organization, which also functions in many correctional facilities, has quality standards but no explicit code of ethics (Brockett & Heimstra,

2004). There are various segments of the adult education field which have acknowledged a need for standards and principles, but have not been able to create Ethical Codes.

In adult education several researchers (Brockett & Heimstra 2004; Gordon & Sork 2011; McDonald & Wood, 1993; Merriam & Brockett 1997; Sork & Welock 1992) have argued for an adult education code of ethics, citing the following benefits:

    a. A code would steer educators away from "ethically hazardous practices".

    b. A code would contribute to policymaking within adult education agencies.

    c. A code would provide limited protection from unethical practice for adult learners.

    d. A code could be used in professional development of educators by communicating shared values.

    e. A code would make the moral dimension of the practice more visible.

    f. A code can be used by adult education agencies to differentiate themselves from those providers who do not subscribe to a code.

    g. A code is an essential element of professionalizing.

    h. A code promotes a sense of unity and cohesiveness

    i. A code heightens awareness of the importance of ethics (Merriam & Brockett, p. 280-281)

This list is by no means exhaustive of the elements that should be covered by a code of ethics. This feeds into one of the major debates on developing a code of ethics in adult education, namely the impossibility of developing a meaningful code that is broadly acceptable, relevant, and enforceable given the diversity of the field (Gordon & Sork, 2011). This same argument, stating that a universal code of ethics is impractical, could be used to support a code for correctional educators, which is a very specific segment of adult education.

Ethical Dilemmas

Ethical dilemmas are situations in which one person must make a decision about what to do. The choice may be unclear as to what to do or the right choice may be difficult because of the cost involved. Ethical dilemmas cause one to struggle with personal decision making (Powell, 2010). These types of situations rarely lend themselves to neat and easy solutions. A part of being an exceptional professional is the ability to seek to do the best in complex circumstances and exercise good judgment. Possessing the autonomy to do so is essential to the nature of professionalism (Macfarlane, 2004). Codes of ethics provide some moral guidance, but they are not the final answer in ethical dilemmas. These dilemmas often have more than one solution and no right answer.

Johns, McGrath, and Mathur (2008) outline instances when people opt for borderline ethical practices; this includes contradictory information, different points of view, overemphasis on compliance, and limited information to make a good decision. Dilemmas in educational settings often arise when teachers are unsure about information due to contradictory information. This can be the case as well in correctional settings where security and control concerns do not align with the instructional requirements. Educators may also receive contradictory information from the local leadership, director or principal, which is different from the regional or district information. Having different points of view and a lack of consistent direction can create situations where the educator is in an ethical dilemma. Educators are often permitted flexibility with decision making related to the functions in their own class. This flexibility may cross a line into unethical practices. Standardized testing and other mandatory compliance actions can put pressure on educators to meet standards. An overemphasis on compliance can lead to ethical dilemmas, meaning that people may lose focus on the propriety of their actions because they are

overly concerned with complying with a regulation, such as meeting minimum scores on state testing. Rogensues (2006) emphasized how scarce resources, limited time and curriculums based on what is good for the school, not necessarily what would benefit the student, can lead to ethical dilemmas. Teachers may be asked to instruct the class on a curriculum they disagree with, based on religious, political or moral beliefs and this is also can create an ethical dilemma.

Ethics can be a perplexing issue because what is unethical is not always illegal or explicit. This is why awareness and a code would be beneficial to the field of correctional education. There are some ethical misconceptions that make dilemmas even more complex. Some people view ethics, especially if there is not a clear code, as only a personal opinion or belief. There is also the line of thought that subscribes to the fact that if it is legal it is ethical. Ethics however goes beyond just doing what is legal. Changing the date on reports or misrepresenting how much time students spend on work may not illegal, unless it is submitted to a state agency, but it is unethical. An educator may follow the letter of the law and still behave in an unethical manner (Johns et al., 2008). Lastly some view a behavior as acceptable if it is not specifically forbidden.

Morality and Ethical Decision Making

Ethical judgments and decisions are made by educators in scholastic settings on a regular basis. These judgments can be related to policy, students, other colleagues, regulations, or personal affairs that spill into the workplace. All of these judgments do not involve morality. Morals and morality refer to what is judged as good conduct (Powell, 2010). Not all immoral conduct is unethical. In order to help ascertain if an act can be judged an ethical Powell (2010) insist that four elements be present: (a) an act that is (b) committed by a human (c) of free will (d) that affects others. Based on the particular ethical belief system a person will judge the decision making of themselves or others differently.   Moral judgments can be made by using an established ethical decision making model.

Ethical Decision Model

A code of ethics helps in decision making processes. Adopting a code of ethics does not provide simple rules for ethical decision making. The process remains complex and a course of action cannot be prescribed for every given circumstance (Macfarlane, 2004). If a set code of ethics for adult education or correctional education cannot be established, a possible resolution to ethical dilemmas could be a model to be used in a broader context. One strategy for analyzing and evaluating ethical dilemmas is the use of a model, such as the model for ethical decision making proposed by Brockett and Heimstra (2004).

Figure1- A model for ethical decision making. *Toward Ethical Practice* by R.G. Brockett & R. Hiemstra (2004).

This model was presented as a process for helping to make ethical decisions. The usefulness of this model stems from the second step, which requires reflection and evaluation of values-

personal or those of the organization. This guides adult educators to ask some basic questions about key ethical practice.

> Essentially the EDM model is founded on the idea that in responding to an ethical dilemma, three elements need to be considered: (1) personal values; (2) awareness of where obligation lies; and (3) and understanding of possible responses to a dilemma and the corresponding consequences of any decisions. . . . It is important to emphasize the EDM model is a process not a prescriptive technique. It offers a basic guide for negotiating the process of resolving ethical dilemmas and help for educators and trainers of adults to begin thinking about how they might address ethical dilemmas in their own practice. (Brockett & Heimstra, 2004, p. 15-17)

The consideration of values allows for the use of utilitarianism or ethical formalism ethical systems because they are individualized to each educator. A correctional educator who takes on a negative belief about human nature will be suspicious of the learner's motives, while a correctional educator with a positive view on human nature will promote a more learner centered environment. Neither value system is wrong nor do they both possess the solution for all dilemmas. They both have benefits in some predicaments. The second phase of the model also includes an obligation, which calls into question the dual fields a correctional educator is immersed in–security and education. Conflicting needs and obligations can result in ethical dilemmas. What is the primary obligation of a correctional educator? It is always corrections and security; however, this can conflict with obligations to the student, the education department, or fellow correctional educators. Many actions are explicitly forbidden in a correctional setting. The rewards and punishment system is very much a part of the correctional system (Thomas & Thomas, 2010); therefore, the execution of consequences is an integral part of the profession. Consequences or outcome are constantly considered. What will be the outcome? In ethical formalism the concern is more with the motives and intentions, than the outcome. Being able to assess the consequences of the decision can help focus the response.

Conclusion

Ethics is as important to adult education and correctional education as it is to any other field where people are responsible for the lives of others. The adult education literature reflects concerns about ethical issues with curriculum, professionalism, technology, confidentiality, and the overall mission of adult education (McDonald & Wood, 1993; Sork & Welock 1992). The role of ethics in the field of corrections education should be of high importance because of the ability of educators to guide and be responsible for the development of students. Correctional educators have obligations to serve the student/inmate as well as to serve the institution. While there may be clear roles, they often are conflicting, causing ethical dilemmas. The state of ethics in correctional education is incomplete and lacking. The regulating agencies for adult education and correctional education have been unable to devise a standard code of ethics to help guide instructors who are placed in problematic situations. Some believe a code would help professionalize adult education, as well as serve as a guide for instructors. Conversely some believe a code of ethics is impossible because of the broad scope of adult education (Gordon & Sork, 2011; Siegel, 2000; Sork & Welock, 1992). Based upon this notion the concept of specialized codes, such as one for correctional education, seems beneficial for the field. If a code is too explicit, then a model, such as the ethical decision model (Brockett & Heimstra, 2004), should be adopted or adapted to the correctional education profession. Every correctional educator will be faced with an ethical dilemma sometime during his or her working career. It is important that correctional educators are provided with resources, such as training, a code of

ethics or even an ethical decision making model to facilitate the best outcomes and responses to dilemmas.

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South Florida Education Research Conference Symposia

Inter-Campus Graduate Student Intern Exchanges:
An Examination of Practical, Professional, and Personal Development

Abstract

For 7 years, Bowling Green State University (BGSU) and Florida International University (FIU) have partnered for an exchange program in which, on alternate years, students from the graduate programs in student affairs visit the other campus during their respective spring break to perform abbreviated internships and to learn about student services at a university wholly unlike their own. The objective of this symposium is to discuss the benefits and learning outcomes from this unique and innovative exchange program, present findings from a study of past participants' attitudes about the exchange and long-range career benefits from participation, hear first-hand about the experiences from an FIU student who participated in the exchange in March 2012 as well as the student coordinator for the March 2013 exchange, and facilitate a discussion with the audience about other innovative programs by which graduate preparation programs can foster professional growth while also increasing students' multicultural awareness and growth.

Participants

Joy Blanchard (Chair) is an Assistant Professor in the Higher Education program at FIU and faculty coordinator for the FIU/ BGSU higher education graduate student intern exchange.

Ysatiz Pinero is a graduate student in FIU's higher education program. She will give a first-hand account of her experiences during the exchange, as well as comment on how her participation has changed her views of institutional diversity and impacted her future career goals.

Ethan Starkey is a graduate student in FIU's higher education program and received his bachelor's degree from BGSU. He will share his experiences as the graduate student coordinator of the exchange and, having been a student at both institutions, will be able to offer insight into the different campus cultures.

Online Learning: Embracing the Future of Education

Abstract

University administrators continue to urge programs to increase online course offerings for reasons such as space and scheduling issues and increased enrollment. While there is some debate about the effectiveness of teaching online, research indicates that quality online learning provides students with an equal or better education when taught with an appropriate design and implementation (Kim & Bonk, 2006). Online educators need to be aware of online learning best practices and the technological advances and applications that facilitate successful online teaching. A framework for quality online learning will be discussed and recommendations for developing online counseling courses will be presented. This presentation will provide a student's perspective of, and experience with, online learning, including the time involved, key differences, professor's responsiveness or lack thereof, and advantages and disadvantages of

online courses. This presentation will also attempt to demystify the online teaching experience through discussion of an online instructor's experience, including, but not limited to, time involved and differences in online teaching versus face-to-face teaching. Lastly, FIU Online faculty will discuss the key components of quality online learning using the Quality Matters and Blackboard Exemplary teaching frameworks. Attendees will gain a familiarity with how and where to begin in the planning and development process of online learning and will be privy to resources available.

Participants

Melody Whiddon (Chair) has over 7 years of experience developing and teaching online courses at FIU. All of her courses have earned the Quality Matters Certification and one course earned the very prestigious Blackboard World Exemplary Course Award. Dr. Whiddon is a faculty mentor for FIU Online to assist other faculty in developing quality online courses.

Maria Vazquez has created online classes for the College of Education, focusing on research-supported, best practice-based quality standards and appropriate evaluation tools and procedures for online learning. Dr. Vazquez contributes to faculty development trainings focusing on the use of effective practices to improve the quality of online/hybrid courses and acts as a mentor to novice online professors.

Patty Delgado is an Instructional Designer for FIU Online, working exclusively with the College of Arts and Sciences. Patty holds a BA in Psychology from the University of Miami, a Certificate in Conflict Management and a Master of Science degree from FIU in Educational Leadership.

Roberto L. Abreu is a Clinical Mental Health Counseling student at FIU. Throughout his graduate career Roberto has taken a series of online courses that have helped him growth as a student counselor. Roberto sees online learning as an integral part of any graduate program.

Partnership Building within a Context of Equity and Justice

Abstract

A panel of four Urban Education Master's Degree students will present their plans for collaborative action research within their individual school communities. Their research agendas grew from their participation in a course piloted at FIU's College of Education, which was designed to investigate the research across the country concerning the challenges and successes of building partnerships with parents, schools, and communities outside classroom walls. In the course, students studied those parents and communities who are actively participating in the education of children, especially in communities who are forced to live in poverty. Students explored why and how these communities do it and the implications of their work for teachers. Because this course is grounded in the philosophy of the Southern Freedom Movement and Paulo Freire who suggests education either sustains the status quo or moves toward personal and societal transformation, the major focus of the investigations were how these partnerships further the evolution of education as a vehicle for transformation within a context of equity and justice.

Participants

Joan Wynne (Chair) directs the Urban Education Master's Degree Program. The influence of her students and educators like Lisa Delpit, Asa G. Hilliard III, and Bob Moses has driven her research about justice and equity, transformational leadership, and building youth, parent, school and community partnerships. Her newest book, *Confessions of a White Educator: Stories in Search of Justice and Diversity*, explores what works and does not work in public education.

Alicia Molina is a member of the CLAVE cohort in the Urban Education Master's Degree Program in the College of Education at FIU and teaches kindergarten at an elementary school in MDCPS.

Danielle McLaughlin is currently a high school English teacher pursuing a Master's Degree in Urban Education at FIU. As a graduate of the University of Florida, she is dedicated to the importance of providing children in urban communities with the support, knowledge, and exposure necessary to achieving their academic and professional aspirations.

Adriana Marquez earned her undergraduate degree in Elementary Education from FIU in 1991. She is currently pursuing a master's degree in Urban Education at FIU as part of the CLAVE program. She has been employed by MDCPS since 1994, is certified in ESOL, and holds a gifted education endorsement.

Maria Raquel Rodriguez obtained a Bachelor from U.C. Berkeley and a Teaching Credential from San Francisco State University. After 21 years of teaching in inner-city schools she entered the CLAVE program and is currently pursuing a Masters in Urban Education while working as a Science Coach at Morningside K-8 Academy.

Perspectives on Correctional Education

Abstract

National Prisoner Statistics (2013) indicates that more than 1.6 million prisoners are presently incarcerated at local, state, and federal correctional institutions nationwide, thus, bringing the total number of individuals under correctional supervision upwards of 7 million people. The growth of the incarcerated population leads to an increased need for instructors, counselors, and volunteers to improve the inmate's skills in various areas and teach courses in adult basic education, parenting, career and technical education, college courses, and betterment programs. Considering 94% of inmates get released, it is also important to explore the educational and professional opportunities for the formerly incarcerated. This symposium will explore these issues from the perspectives of practitioners, scholars, and instructors. Topics discussed will include masculinity/gender roles of inmates and education, access to post-secondary education, creative writing programs in facilities, and cinematic portrayals of education in correctional facilities. This symposium will also explore the challenges of educators working in correctional facilities and the approaches that need to be considered in order to have successful programs.

Participants

Chaundra L. Whitehead (Chair) is a Doctoral Student in the Adult Education and Human Resource Development at FIU.

Arkil A. Starke, Ed.D., is an Associate Professor at Keiser University in Jacksonville, Florida.

Carleen V. Robinson, JD, MSCJ, MA, is an Instructor in the Department of Criminal Justice at FIU.

Stankeisha Burchell is a Case Manager and Public Information Officer at Moore Haven Correctional Facility.

Postsecondary Education for Students with Intellectual Disabilities: A University-based Transition Program

Abstract

Federal and state policies have been revised to support postsecondary transition programs for students with intellectual disabilities (ID) in colleges and universities across the country. The Higher Education Opportunities Act (2008) outlines provisions for students with ID to enroll in university programs through an inclusive and comprehensive model of transition. A comprehensive transition and postsecondary program for students with ID is a degree, certificate, or non-degree program that is offered by an institution of higher education and designed to support students who are seeking to continue academic, career and technical, and independent living instruction to prepare for gainful employment.

Florida International University (FIU), Miami-Dade County Public Schools (M-DCPS), and Parent to Parent of Miami collaborated to develop and implement the only postsecondary education (PSE) program for students with ID in South Florida. Project Panther LIFE: Panther Learning Is For Everyone provides inclusive, individualized, and person-centered postsecondary access to eligible students through a certificate, non-degree program that outlines a University core curriculum and program experiences and activities (e.g., job shadowing). The primary goal of the program is to provide a comprehensive postsecondary program and system of supports through partnerships to students through a well-planned and individualized curriculum and related experiences that leads to meaningful employment.

This symposium will be facilitated by Panther LIFE key project personnel and students. Data collected from Year 1 will be shared with attendees as well as next steps in the implementation and expansion of the program.

Participants

Diana Valle-Riestra, Ph.D., (Chair) is an Assistant Professor and the Principal Investigator of Project Panther LIFE. Dr. Valle-Riestra has a master's degree in special education and a Ph.D. in special education and reading. She has directed numerous federal and state grants, and her research interests are in the areas of early childhood special education, postsecondary transition, and working with families.

Jill Brookner has been employed by M-DCPS since 1980 and is currently the Instructional Supervisor for programs for students with intellectual disabilities, physical impairments, and transition services. Ms. Brookner holds a master's degree in Education from the University of Miami. She has been an integral part of the development of a multitude of transition programs for students pursuing a special diploma across the county.

Rene Sierra has been employed in the Special Education Department in M-DCPS since 1993 and is currently the Program Coordinator for Project Panther LIFE. Mr. Sierra holds a bachelor's degree in Exceptional Student Education and has been working directly with students with intellectual disabilities for 18 years.

Isabel Garcia has been the Executive Director of Parent to Parent of Miami, Inc. since 1997. In this capacity, she successfully manages the CPRC Grant funded from the U. S. Department of Education (OSEP) and the Families Building a Community of Excellence through Support, Training, and Leadership Project funded by The Children's Trust since 2004.

Panther LIFE Students: Sandra Alonso, Jonathan Viera, Tyrone Harris, Michael Deschapell, Luis Rodriguez, William Perry, Ivan Cadavid, Carolina Puig, Vanessa Suazo, and Krystal Bury and Family.

Structuring Learning Environments for Teacher Education Candidates to Promote Development of Habits of Mind

Abstract

This symposium charts the evolution of the FIU College of Education Faculty Learning Community since its inception 3 years ago. The community was formed to create a collegial group of scholars interested in developing within themselves the dispositions outlined in the COE Conceptual Framework and to incorporate these dispositions in their teacher education classes and programs. The symposium will give a brief definition and description of the dispositions, or habits of mind, deemed fundamental for effective teachers. Among them are persisting; listening with understanding and empathy; thinking about one's thinking; questioning and problem posing; managing impulsivity; thinking flexibly; striving for accuracy and precision; applying past knowledge to new situations; thinking and communicating with clarity and precision; gathering data through all senses; creating, imaging, and innovating; responding with wonderment and awe; taking responsible risks; finding humor; thinking interdependently; and, remaining open to continuous learning.

A timeline of the development of the community will be followed by participants discussing their individual experiences as members of the learning community, including what it has meant for them personally and how, as teachers and/or program leaders, they incorporate strategies for developing habits of mind in working with teachers and teacher candidates in the fields of literacy, early childhood education, ESL, science education, and physical education. The presenters will discuss reactions from the teacher candidates and difficulties encountered, and open the floor for comments and suggestions.

Participants

Teresa Lucas (Chair) earned her doctorate in Multilingual/Multicultural Education from Florida State University. She is a Senior Instructor in the Department of Teaching and Learning at FIU, where she teaches ESOL endorsement courses for teacher candidates and in the MS in Foreign Language program.

Erskine Dottin, Professor of Education, received his doctorate from Miami University of Ohio. A member of the Department of Leadership and Professional Studies at FIU, he teaches in the area of social foundations of education. His research interests are humanistic education, the use of case methods, and dispositions in teacher education.

Daniela F. Foerch holds a doctoral degree from Barry University in Curriculum and Instruction with a concentration in Early Childhood Education. She is a permanent faculty member of the Department of Teaching and Learning at FIU, where she teaches courses to prepare and mentor teacher candidates to work with diverse young children and their families.

Eva Frank holds a bachelor's degree in Athletic Training and a Master's in Physical Education and is working on her PhD in curriculum and instruction while working as a full-time instructor at FIU. She teaches kinesiology, athletic injuries, and anatomy and is program leader for the BS in Physical Education.

Lynn Miller is Program Leader for the undergraduate Elementary Education Program in the FIU College of Education. She earned her doctorate from the University of Arizona. Her scholarly interest is to foster the development of knowledge, understanding, and professional growth through research and scholarly activity in literacy and teacher education.

George E. O'Brien is Director of the Master of Science in Curriculum and Instruction Program and Associate Professor, Science Education, in the College of Education, FIU. He earned his Ph.D. from the University of Iowa. His research interests include habits of mind, science teacher education, and environmental education.

Aixa Perez-Prado is the ESOL Coordinator at FIU. Her interests include using social networking to promote language acquisition, the habits of mind, diversity, and teacher education.

Patsy Self is instructor/researcher of critical thinking, literacy and learning in the Department of Teaching and Learning in the College of Education. She earned her Ph.D. from the University of Virginia in Charlottesville and certificates in Reading and Learning from the Oxford Round Table and in ESOL from FIU.

Maria Tsalikis is an Instructor in the Department of Teaching and Learning in the FIU College of Education. She earned her master's and doctorate from FIU. She has taught in public schools in Miami-Dade County and teaches both undergraduate and graduate courses in Reading at FIU.

Mickey Weiner earned her bachelor's degree from the University of Wisconsin and her master's and doctorate at FIU. She has been a teacher in the Miami Dade County Public Schools for 28 years. She is National Board Certified and currently works in curriculum support at Charles David Wyche, Jr. Elementary School.

The Promoting Academic Success Community Dialogue:
A Call to Awareness and Action

Abstract

Attendees of this symposium will learn about the Promoting Academic Success (PAS) Community Dialogue, the innovative way that youth advocates and child welfare professionals in Miami have used to address a pressing national problem with local and coordinated action. This grassroots effort was recently awarded close to $50,000 by the Miami Foundation. With matching funding from Educate Tomorrow, our community may soon have full-time employees based at MDC and FIU working specifically on the more than 400 former foster youth on these campuses.

Attendees at this symposium will hear from individuals who spearheaded the dialogue, including former foster youth who are attending college and are working to improve educational outcomes for other emerging adults. Symposium speakers represent FIU, Florida Atlantic University, Miami-Dade College, the Department of Children and Families, Guardian Ad Litem, and Educate Tomorrow. They will highlight how the Dialogue has been at the forefront of a movement that now includes state-wide legislation that mandates all colleges to have foster care liaisons.

Former foster youth attending college often get lost in the higher education system (or the PRE higher education system – remedial education and GED programs). The search for answers to the best way to unite a community behind the goal of promoting post-secondary educational success toward self-sufficiency is what the PAS Community Dialogue is all about. A presentation of the need for PAS and the success of this grassroots initiative, therefore, is the goal of this symposium.

Participants

Dr. Steve J. Rios (Chair) is a graduate of FIU with a doctorate in Adult Education and Human Resource Development. He is currently a research instructor at Florida Atlantic University. He is a co-founder of the Promoting Academic Success Community Dialogue, which helps to increase the academic success of young adults from foster care attending college.

Dr. Irma Becerra-Fernandez is the recently appointed Vice President for Community Engagement at FIU, where she promotes collaboration and partnerships between FIU COE and schools, community-based organizations, and economic enterprises. Dr. Becerra-Fernandez is setting up a program at FIU for students from homeless and foster care backgrounds.

Barbara Pryor Dumornay directs the Single Stop program at Miami-Dade College and has extensive experience with issues of social and economic justice in higher education. Barbara

also developed programs on defining career and work-related goals for students and has also worked on national service learning and student retention initiatives.

Brett McNaught. Before becoming CEO of Educate Tomorrow in 2012, Brett was the leader of International Programs for the NGO buildOn from 2005 to 2012, overseeing the construction of more than 350 schools in seven countries for the organization. He is on the board of the Community Based Care Alliance in Miami.

Dr. Tonette S. Rocco, professor of Adult Education and Human Resource Development at the COE at FIU, has published 200+ books, articles, chapters, and papers. Her most recent book is *The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing* (2011, Jossey-Bass), co-edited with Tim Hatcher. She is lead editor of *New Horizons in AE&HRD,* Chair of the South Florida Education Research Conference, and Director of the Office of Academic Writing and Publication Support.

Betsy Suero-Skipp is a social change advocate and consultant. She holds a para-legal degree, is a long-time Guardian ad Litem volunteer, and served as Transitioning Youth Project team leader. She is co-founder of the Promoting Academic Success Community Dialogue and is district leader for ONE and CARE, two leading international humanitarian organizations fighting poverty.

South Florida Education Research Conference Posters

Author Name	Author's Affiliation	Title of the Study
Monica Anestin	Undergraduate Student- Miami-Dade College	Developing Reading Fluency through the Use of Repeated Readings
Jessica Arias	Graduate Student- FIU	Efficacy of Computer Assisted Instruction on the Acquisition of Mathematic Skills for a Student with Autism
Silvia Buigas	Graduate Student- FIU	Peer Assisted Learning Strategy (PALS): Learning Through Peer Socialization
Krystal Chavez	Graduate Student- FIU	Implementing Character Education Behavior Program with Kindergarten Students
Alphia E. Davis-Gittens	Graduate Student- FIU	Managing Aggression with Anger Management Interventions for Adolescent Students with Emotional Behavioral Disorders
Kristi Ebert	Graduate Student- FIU	The Effects of Peer Tutoring on Mathematics Fluency and Student Self-Efficacy
Ivette Maria Feeney	Graduate Student- FIU	How Does Peer Mentoring Help Promote Social Skills among Students with Autism?
Maria L. Fernandez Esther Joseph	Faculty - FIU Graduate Student- FIU	Recruitment Strategies and STEM Undergraduates' Decisions to Become a Mathematics Teacher
Meaghan Garcia	Graduate Student- FIU	Enhancing Parental Involvement and Student Grades through Parent-Teacher Communication via a Classroom Website
Belarmino Gonzalez	Graduate Student- FIU	Inquiry-Based Learning and Calculator Use in the Teaching of Functions

Janet Herrera	Graduate Student- FIU	Reading Strategy Intervention with English Language Learners
Donnette Hutchinson-Cox	Graduate Student- FIU	Will Class Wide Peer Tutoring Improve the Performance of Students with Disabilities on the Algebra 1 Standardized Assessment?
Barbara King Carmen Petrick Smith Jennifer Hoyte Lisa Watts Natkin	Faculty - FIU Faculty- FIU Graduate Student- FIU Graduate Student- FIU	Motion-Controlled Mathematics: Learning Through Embodied Action
Ivonne Maciel	Graduate Student- FIU	The Influence of Dramatic Play on Peer Interaction and Language Development of a Preschool Chinese Child
Jennifer Mills David Newman Isadore Newman	Graduate Student- FIU Faculty- FIU	Suggestions for Methodological Considerations in Research: A Critical Examination of Environmental Orientation in the Educational Setting
Claudia Monsalve	Graduate Student- FIU	New Teachers in Classrooms for Children with Autism and Positive Behavior Support
Gloria Janet Mori	Graduate Student- FIU	Effects of Reciprocal Teaching on the Reading Comprehension of Students with Autism in a Self-Contained Classroom
Heather Paschall	Graduate Student- FIU	Computer-Based Reading Software to Increase Fluency in Struggling Readers
Stephanie Pena	Graduate Student- FIU	Enhancing the Reading Comprehension of Students with Autism Using Games
Orlena Ramirez	Graduate Student- FIU	Enhancing Reading Tutoring Through Peer Tutoring
Sharon Reynoso	Graduate Student- FIU	To What Extent will Reading Comprehension Improve when Implementing Graphic Organizers

		with Students with Autism when Teaching Reading?
Janelle Rieumont	Graduate Student- FIU	Will the Use of Picture Communication Symbols Increase Communication Skills in a Child Identified with an Intellectual Disability and Autism?
Anniette Rivera	Graduate Student- FIU	Effects of Parent Training on Parent Confidence Level and Student Behavior
Christina Rodriguez	Graduate Student- FIU	Diminishing Running Off Behavior in Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder using Visual Supports
Elaine Rodriguez	Graduate Student- FIU	The Effects of Peer-to-Peer Drills on Multiplication Fluency
Steven Seage	Undergraduate Student- Barry University	Long Mornings and Unfocused Students: Adding an Activity Break
Trisha Spencer	Graduate Student- FIU	Developing Science Inquiry Skills in Developmentally Delayed Pre-Kindergarten Students Through Cooperative Learning
Maria Suarez	Undergraduate Student- Miami Dade College	The Influence of Cooperative Learning Groups on Interim Testing Results
Talia Trujillo	Graduate Student- FIU	Increasing Positive Peer-Initiated Interactions in Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder Through the Use of "I Love You Rituals
Elizabeth Urgell	Graduate Student- FIU	

		Will the Use of Conscious Discipline Reduce Hitting and Pinching in a Head Start Pre-K Classroom?
Audra Wright	Graduate Student- FIU	How Computer-Based Interventions Help to Increase Student Interest in and Acquisition of Mathematical Content

Appendices

The 12th South Florida Education Research Conference 2013 Program

The 13th South Florida Education Research Conference 2014 Call for Papers

The 13th South Florida Education Research Conference 2014 Call for Symposia

The 13th South Florida Education Research Conference 2014 Call for Posters

Florida International University
The 12th Annual South Florida Education Research Conference
Saturday, June 1, 2013

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

The purpose of the Annual South Florida Education Research Conference is to enhance the existing culture of research in colleges and universities in South Florida. The conference provides a meaningful vehicle for the preparation, mentorship, and presentation of scholarly work by students, faculty, and alumni.

	8:00 – 8:30 a.m. **Registration & Continental Breakfast**	Bayview Ballroom Room 214
	8:30 – 9:30 a.m.	Bayview Ballroom Room 214

Welcome

Tonette S. Rocco
Chair, Conference Steering Committee

Morning Keynote:

Alberto M. Carvalho
Superintendent of Miami-Dade County Public Schools (M-DCPS)

Alberto Carvalho has served as Superintendent of the nation's fourth largest school system since September 2008. He is a nationally recognized expert on school reform and finance who successfully transformed his district's business operations and financial systems with the implementation of a streamlined Strategic Framework, aligning resources to classroom priorities through a strict adherence to *values based budgeting*. This paradigm shift resulted in a dramatic increase in reserves, a stable bond rating and a remarkable improvement in student achievement. This year his district was identified by the AP | College Board as first in the nation for Hispanic students scoring highly on Advanced Placement exams, and seventh in the country for African American students. M-DCPS is now widely considered the nation's highest performing urban school system and is the 2012 winner of the coveted Broad Prize for Urban Education. As a result of his skillful use of data to drive decision-making and resource allocation, the Florida Department of Education selected him as the 2012 District Data Leader of the Year. On November 6, following four years of extraordinary improvement in District performance and public accountability, the community overwhelmingly confirmed its faith in their public school system and its Superintendent by passing a $1.2 Billion Bond Referendum for school construction.

A versatile leader, Carvalho is the self-appointed principal of two award-winning schools—the Primary Learning Center and the iPrep Academy. In addition, he is the President of ALAS, the Association of Latino Administrators and Superintendents. He has received numerous honors and awards both for humanitarianism, as well as groundbreaking work in the field of education and business management. He has been honored by the National Child Labor Committee with the 2013 Ron H. Brown Award and has been recognized as Visionary Leader of the Year by the Great Miami Chamber of Commerce, the March of Dimes' Humanitarian of the Year, South Florida's Ultimate CEO, and for Leadership in Government by the Miami Chapter of the American Institute of Architects. He is a member of Florida's Council of 100, the Honorable Order of Kentucky Colonels and has been honored by the President of Portugal with the "Ordem de Mérito Civil," and by Mexico with the "Othil Award," the highest award for a civilian living outside of Mexico. He has been featured as part of *Education Nation*, on *CNN*, *NBC*, and *ABC*, and in publications such as *The New York Times*, *District Administration Magazine*, *The Christian Science Monitor*, and *Nightly Business Report*.

	9:40 – 10:25 a.m. *Symposia 1, Concurrent Sessions 1, 2, & 3* *and Poster Session 1*	
Symposium 1	**Postsecondary Education for Students with Intellectual Disabilities: A University-based Transition Program**	Room 117
	Chair: Diana Valle-Riestra, Florida International University *Discussants:* Jill Brookner and Rene Sierra, Miami-Dade County Public Schools; Isabel Garcia, Parent to Parent of Miami, Inc., and Panther LIFE Students: Sandra Alonso, Jonathan Viera, Tyrone Harris, Michael Deschapell, Luis Rodriguez, William Perry, Ivan Cadavid, Carolina Puig, Vanessa Suazo, and	

Krystal Bury and Family.

Federal and state policies have been revised to support postsecondary transition programs for students with intellectual disabilities (ID) in colleges and universities across the country. The Higher Education Opportunities Act (2008) outlines provisions for students with ID to enroll in university programs through an inclusive and comprehensive model of transition. A comprehensive transition and postsecondary program for students with ID is a degree, certificate, or non-degree program that is offered by an institution of higher education and designed to support students who are seeking to continue academic, career and technical, and independent living instruction to prepare for gainful employment.

Florida International University (FIU), Miami-Dade County Public Schools (M-DCPS), and Parent to Parent of Miami collaborated to develop and implement the only postsecondary education (PSE) program for students with ID in South Florida. Project Panther LIFE: Panther Learning Is For Everyone provides inclusive, individualized, and person-centered postsecondary access to eligible students through a certificate, non-degree program that outlines a University core curriculum and program experiences and activities (e.g., job shadowing). The primary goal of the program is to provide a comprehensive postsecondary program and system of supports through partnerships to students through a well-planned and individualized curriculum and related experiences that leads to meaningful employment.

This symposium will be facilitated by Panther LIFE key project personnel and students. Data collected from Year 1 will be shared with attendees as well as next steps in the implementation and expansion of the program.

Session 1	**Culture and Education** Moderator: Patsy Self	Room 120

The Lived Experiences of African American Males in an Urban University Setting
Casandra Holliday and Nicole Yvette Strange, University of Phoenix and Barry University

Social Learning Capabilities in Broward's Black Male Success Task Force: Informing Collective Impact Initiatives
Suzanne Gallagher, Florida International University

Session 2	**Literacy and Narratives** Moderator: Kyle Bennett	Room 115

Using LatCrit, Autoethnography, and Counterstory to Teach About and Resist Latina/o Nihilism
Eduardo Hernandez, Florida International University

Family Literacy Practices: Traditions and Transitions
Althea Duren, Florida Memorial University, and Cynthia Januszka, Florida International University

Session 3	**Correctional Education** Moderator: Teresa Lucas	Room 122

From Bars to Textbooks: Bringing Higher Education Behind Bars
Carleen V. Robinson, Florida International University

Ethics in Correctional Education
Chaundra L. Whitehead, Florida International University

Poster Session 1: Mathematics	First Floor Gallery Room 100

Inquiry-Based Learning and Calculator Use in the Teaching of Functions
Belarmino Gonzalez, Florida International University

Motion-Controlled Mathematics: Learning Through Embodied Action
Barbara King, Carmen Patrick Smith, Jennifer Hoyte, Lisa Watts Natkin, Florida International University

The Effects of Peer-to-Peer Drills on Multiplication Fluency
Elaine Rodriguez, Florida International University

Will Class Wide Peer Tutoring Improve the Performance of Students with Disabilities on the Algebra 1 Standardized Assessment?
Donnette Hutchinson-Cox, Florida International University

The Effects of Peer Tutoring On Mathematics Fluency and Student Self-Efficacy
Kristi Ebert, Florida International University

Peer Assisted Learning Strategy (PALS): Learning Through Peer Socialization
Silvia Buigas, Florida International University

Recruitment Strategies and STEM Undergraduates' Decisions to Become a Mathematics Teacher
Maria L. Fernandez and Esther Joseph, Florida International University

Suggestions for Methodological Considerations in Research: A Critical Examination of Environmental Orientation in the Educational Setting
Jennifer Mills, Florida International University

10:35 – 11:20 a.m. *Symposia 2 & 3, Concurrent Sessions 4 & 5,* *and Poster Session 2*		
Symposium 2	**The Promoting Academic Success Community Dialogue:** **A Call to Awareness and Action**	Room 117
	Chair: Steve J. Rios, Florida Atlantic University Discussants: Irma Becerra-Fernandez, Florida International University; Barbara Pryor Dumornay, Miami Dade College; Brett McNaught, Educate Tomorrow; Tonette S. Rocco, Florida International University; Betsy Suero-Skipp, Promoting Academic Success Community Dialogue. Attendees of this symposium will learn about the Promoting Academic Success (PAS) Community Dialogue, the innovative way that youth advocates and child welfare professionals in Miami have used to address a pressing national problem with local and coordinated action. This grassroots effort was recently awarded close to $50,000 by the Miami Foundation. With matching funding from Educate Tomorrow, our community may soon have full-time employees based at MDC and FIU working specifically on the more than 400 former foster youth on these campuses. Attendees at this symposium will hear from individuals who spearheaded the dialogue, including former foster youth who are attending college and are working to improve educational outcomes for other emerging adults. Symposium speakers represent FIU, Florida Atlantic University, Miami-Dade College, the Department of Children and Families, Guardian Ad Litem, and Educate Tomorrow. They will highlight how the Dialogue has been at the forefront of a movement that now includes state-wide legislation that mandates all colleges to have foster care liaisons.	

	Former foster youth attending college often get lost in the higher education system (or the PRE higher education system – remedial education and GED programs). The search for answers to the best way to unite a community behind the goal of promoting post-secondary educational success toward self-sufficiency is what the PAS Community Dialogue is all about. A presentation of the need for PAS and the success of this grassroots initiative, therefore, is the goal of this symposium.	
Symposium 3	**Inter-Campus Graduate Student Intern Exchanges: An Examination of Practical, Professional, and Personal Development**	Room 120
	Chair: Joy Blanchard, Florida International University *Discussants:* Ysatiz Pinero and Ethan Starkey, Florida International University For 7 years, Bowling Green State University (BGSU) and Florida International University (FIU) have partnered for an exchange program in which, on alternate years, students from the graduate programs in student affairs visit the other campus during their respective spring break to perform abbreviated internships and to learn about student services at a university wholly unlike their own. The objective of this symposium is to discuss the benefits and learning outcomes from this unique and innovative exchange program, present findings from a study of past participants' attitudes about the exchange and long-range career benefits from participation, hear first-hand about the experiences from an FIU student who participated in the exchange in March 2012 as well as the student coordinator for the March 2013 exchange, and facilitate a discussion with the audience about other innovative programs by which graduate preparation programs can foster professional growth while also increasing students' multicultural awareness and growth.	
Session 4	**Global and Civic Education** Moderator: Martha (Marti) M. Snyder	Room 115

Content Analysis of Outcome Assessment of Global Learning Foundations Courses: A Case Study
Iryna Dzhuryak, Florida International University

Making a Case for Global Education: Revisiting Pre-Service Teacher Lesson Planning Methods
Renita Ferreira, Miami Dade College

Session 5	**Social and Informal Learning** Moderator: Linda Bliss	Room 122

Students' Perspective of the Role of Facebook in Their Studies
Frank Alexander Rojas, Florida International University

Increasing Informal Learning Opportunities for Teachers in the School Setting
Amanda Giust, Florida International University

Poster Session 2: Reading	First Floor Gallery Room 100

Developing Reading Fluency through the Use of Repeated Readings
Monica Anestin, Florida International University

Effects of Reciprocal Teaching on the Reading Comprehension of Students with Autism in a Self-Contained Classroom
Gloria Janet Mori, Florida International University

Reading Strategy Intervention with English Language Learners
Janet Herrera, Florida International University

Enhancing Reading Tutoring Through Peer Tutoring
Orlena Ramirez, Florida International University

To What Extent will Reading Comprehension Improve when Implementing Graphic Organizers with my Students with Autism when Teaching Reading?
Sharon Reynoso, Florida International University

Enhancing Reading Comprehension of Students with Autism using Games
Stephanie Pena, Florida International University

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

Lunch Panel Discussion:
What can South Florida Colleges of Education Do to Improve K-12 Education?

Moderator: Delia C. Garcia, Dean College of Education, Florida International University

*Participants***:** Mildred Berry, Dean, School of Education, Florida Memorial University
Sara S. Malmstrom, Dean of the Graduate School, Keiser University
Craig A Mertler, Dean, Ross College of Education, Lynn University
Susan Neimand, Director, School of Education, Miami Dade College
Isaac Prilleltensky, Dean, School of Education and Human Development, University of Miami
H. Wells Singleton, Dean, Fischler School of Education, Nova Southeastern University

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1:25 – 2:10 p.m.
Symposia 4 & 5, Concurrent Sessions 6, 7 & 8
and Poster Session 3

Symposium 4	**Online Learning: Embracing the Future of Education**	Bayview Ballroom Room 214

	Chair: Melody Whiddon, Florida International University Discussants: Maria Vazquez, Patty Delgado, and Roberto L. Abreu, Florida International University University administrators continue to urge programs to increase online course offerings for reasons such as space and scheduling issues and increased enrollment. While there is some debate about the effectiveness of teaching online, research indicates that quality online learning provides students with an equal or better education when taught with an appropriate design and implementation (Kim & Bonk, 2006). Online educators need to be aware of online learning best practices and the technological advances and applications that facilitate successful online teaching. A framework for quality online learning will be discussed and recommendations for developing online counseling courses will be presented. This presentation will provide a student's perspective of, and experience with, online learning, including the time involved, key differences, professor's responsiveness or lack thereof, and advantages and disadvantages of online courses. This presentation will also attempt to demystify the online teaching experience through discussion of an online instructor's experience, including, but not limited to, time involved and differences in online teaching versus face-to-face teaching. Lastly, FIU Online faculty will discuss the key components of quality online learning using the Quality Matters and Blackboard Exemplary teaching frameworks. Attendees will gain a familiarity with how and where to begin in the planning and development process of online learning and will be privy to resources available.	
Symposium 5	**Partnership Building within a Context of Equity and Justice**	Room 117
	Chair: Joan Wynne, Florida International University *Discussants*: Alicia Molina, Danielle McLaughlin, Adriana Marquez, and Maria Raquel Rodriguez, Florida International University A panel of four Urban Education Master's Degree students will present their plans for collaborative action research within their individual school communities. Their research agendas grew from their participation in a course piloted at FIU's College of Education, which was designed to investigate the research across the country concerning the challenges and successes of building partnerships with parents, schools, and communities outside classroom walls. In the course, students studied those parents and communities who are actively participating in the education of children, especially in communities who are forced to live in poverty. Students explored why and how these communities do it and the implications of their work for teachers. Because this course is grounded in the philosophy of the Southern Freedom Movement and Paulo Freire who suggests education either sustains the status quo or moves toward personal and societal transformation, the major focus of the investigations were how these partnerships further the evolution of education as a vehicle for transformation within a context of equity and justice.	
Session 6	**Employment and Education** Moderator: Isadore Newman	Room 120
"Learning the Ropes": An Exploration of BDSM Stigma, Identity Disclosure, and Workplace Socialization Carolyn Meeker, Florida International University *The Framing of the Aftermath of the Chicago Teacher's Strike* Eduardo Hernandez, Florida International University		

Session 7	Pre-Service Teachers Moderator: Renita Ferreira	Room 115

Cultivating a Community of Practice Among Student Teachers and Cooperating Teachers
Raquel Munarriz-Diaz and Magdalena Castañeda, University of Florida

Prospective Teachers Serving as Physics Learning Assistants' Perspectives on Reflective Practice
Geraldine L. Cochran and David T. Brookes, Florida International University

Session 8	*21st Century Skills* Moderator: Jacqueline Pena	Room 122

Digital Literacy: A Demand for Nonlinear Thinking Styles
Mark Osterman, Thomas G. Reio, Jr., and M. O. Thirunarayanan, Florida International University

Poster Session 3: Technology in Education	First Floor Gallery Room 100

Efficacy of Computer Assisted Instruction on the Acquisition of Mathematic Skills for a Student with Autism?
Jessica Arias, Florida International University

How Computer-Based Instruction Interventions Help to Increase Student Interest in and Acquisition of Mathematical Content
Audra Young Wright, Florida International University

Computer-Based Reading Software to Increase Fluency in Struggling Readers
Heather Paschall, Florida International University

The Influence of Cooperative Learning Groups on Interim Testing Results
Maria D. Suarez, Florida International University

Enhancing Parental Involvement and Student Grades through Parent-Teacher Communication via a Classroom Website
Meaghan Garcia, Florida International University

2:20 – 3:05 p.m. *Symposium 6, Concurrent Sessions 9, 10, & 11 and Poster Session 4*

Symposium 6	Structuring Learning Environments for Teacher Education Candidates to Promote Development of Habits of Mind	Bayview Ballroom Room 214
	Chair: Teresa Lucas, Florida International University *Discussants:* Erskine Dottin, Daniela F. Foerch, Eva Frank, Lynn Miller, George E. O'Brien, Aixa Perez-Prado, Patsy Self, and Maria Tsalikis, Florida International University; Mickey Weiner, Miami-Dade County Public Schools This symposium charts the evolution of the FIU College of Education Faculty Learning Community since its inception 3 years ago. The community was formed to create a collegial group of scholars interested in developing within themselves the dispositions outlined in the COE Conceptual Framework and to incorporate these dispositions in their teacher education classes and programs. The symposium will give a brief definition and description of the dispositions, or habits of mind, deemed fundamental for effective teachers. Among them are persisting; listening with understanding and empathy; thinking about one's thinking; questioning and problem posing; managing impulsivity; thinking flexibly; striving for accuracy and precision; applying past knowledge to new situations; thinking and communicating with clarity and precision; gathering data through all senses; creating, imaging, and innovating; responding with wonderment and awe; taking responsible	

Session 9	**Online Learning** Moderator: Steve Rios	Room 117
Academic Dishonesty: A Guide for Digital Instructors Carleen V. Robinson, Florida International University *Neuroangradogy in Online Education* Alberto Roldán, Keiser University		

Session 10	**School Reform** Moderator: Susan Neimand	Room 120
School Administration Self-Efficacy: Change-Agents in an Environment of Turbulence Joseph Eberhard, Florida International University *Promoting an Operation Cease Fire Approach in Classrooms* Eduardo Hernandez, Florida International University		

Session 11	**Assessment in K-12** Moderator: Barbara King	Room 122
An Examination of the AP United States History Exam Free Response Section Jon Rehm, Florida International University *Categorical Differences in Scores of Students with Disabilities on the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test* Ellen Trexler, Keiser University		

Poster Session 4: Reducing Problem Behaviors in the Classroom/Home	First Floor Gallery Room 100
Will the use of Conscious Discipline reduce hitting and pinching in a Head Start Pre-K Classroom? Elizabeth Urgell, Florida International University *Implementing Character Education Behavior Program with Kindergarten Students* Krystal Chavez, Florida International University *Managing Aggression with Anger Management Interventions for Adolescent Students with Emotional Behavioral Disorders* Alphia E. Davis-Gittens, Florida International University *Long Mornings and Unfocused Students: Adding an Activity Break* Steven Seage, Florida International University *Effects of Parent Training on Parent Confidence Level and Student Behavior* Anniette Rivera, Florida International University	

3:15 – 4:00 p.m. *Symposium 7, & Concurrent Sessions 12, 13, 14, & 15* *and Poster Session 5*

Symposium 7	**Perspectives on Correctional Education**	Bayview Ballroom Room 214

Chair: Chaundra L. Whitehead, Florida International University
Discussants: Arkil A. Starke, Keiser University in Jacksonville, Carleen V. Robinson, Florida International University, and Stankeisha Burchell, Moore Haven Correctional Facility.

National Prisoner Statistics (2013) indicates that more than 1.6 million prisoners are presently incarcerated at local, state, and federal correctional institutions nationwide, thus, bringing the total number of individuals under correctional supervision upwards of 7 million people. The growth of the incarcerated population leads to an increased need for instructors, counselors, and volunteers to improve the inmate's skills in various areas and teach courses in adult basic education, parenting, career and technical education, college courses, and betterment programs. Considering 94% of inmates get released, it is also important to explore the educational and professional opportunities for the formerly incarcerated. This symposium will explore these issues from the perspectives of practitioners, scholars, and instructors. Topics discussed will include masculinity/gender roles of inmates and education, access to post-secondary education, creative writing programs in facilities, and cinematic portrayals of education in correctional facilities. This symposium will also explore the challenges of educators working in correctional facilities and the approaches that need to be considered in order to have successful programs.

Session 12	**Second Language Learning** Moderator: Hilary Landorf	Room 117

Richard Rodriguez, Norman Podhoretz, and Arnold Schwarzenegger: Learning English by "Immersion." Really?
Francisco Ramos, Loyola Marymount University

Perceptions of French and Creole among First-Generation Adult Haitian English Language Learners
Ildiko Barsony, Florida International University

Session 13	**Pre-School Education** Moderator: Kyle Perkins	Room 120

Development of a Game-Based Mathematics Curriculum for Preschool
Giselle Hernandez, Florida International University

Effects of Number-Way Curriculum on Pre-Schoolers' Mathematical Learning for Low Socioeconomic Status Children
Zhizhen Chen and Charles Bleiker, Florida International University

Session 14	**Teachers' Experiences** Moderator: Michael Record	Room 115

Turnover Intent Among Middle School Teachers
Thomas G. Reio, Jr. and Mirta Segredo, Florida International University

Improving Writing Assistance for Graduate Students - Improving Writing Self-Efficacy of In-Service Teachers
Maria S. Plakhotnik and Tonette S. Rocco, Florida International University

Session 15	**Critical Geography and Education** Moderator: Mido Chang	Room 122

"Life, Social Studies, and the Pursuit of Happiness: Using Classroom-based Multicultural Democratic Education to Challenge Conservative Notions of Civic Education
Eduardo Hernandez, Florida International University

Interrogating Place, Space, Power and Identity: An Examination of Florida's Geography Standards
Sarah A. Mathews and Victor M. Barrios, Jr., Florida International University

Poster Session 5: Students with Autism and Other Disabilities	First Floor Gallery Room 100

Increasing Positive Peer-Initiated Interactions in Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder Through the Use of "I Love You Rituals"
Talia Trujillo, Florida International University

How Does Peer Mentoring Help Promote Social Skills among Students with Autism
Ivette Maria Feeney, Florida International University

New Teachers in Classrooms for Children with Autism and Positive Behavior Support
Claudia Monsalve, Florida International University

Will the Use of Picture Communication Symbols Increase Communication Skills in a Child Identified with an Intellectual Disability and Autism?
Janelle Rieumont, Florida International University

Diminishing Running Off Behavior in Students with Autism Spectrum Disorder using Visual Supports
Christina Rodriguez, Florida International University

Developing Science Inquiry Skills in Developmentally Delayed Pre-Kindergarten Students Through Cooperative Learning
Trisha Spencer, Florida International University

4:10 – 4:45 p.m.
Award Presentations and Raffle
Room 117

The Lorraine R. Gay Award for Excellence in Research and Scholarship
Thomas G. Reio, Jr., Chair
Award for Best Graduate Student Paper

Barnes & Noble Best Faculty-Student Paper Award
Thomas G. Reio, Jr., Chair
Award for Best Faculty-Student Paper

Lynn University Outstanding Poster Presentation Award
Priscilla A. Boerger, Chair
Award for Best Poster Presentation

Closing
Tonette S. Rocco,
Chair, Conference Steering Committee

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CLAVE Project: Creating Latino Access to a Valuable Education at FIU College of Education

Call for Papers for the 13th Annual South Florida Education Research Conference
at Florida International University
Saturday June 7, 2014
The Cornerstones of the College of Education: *Honoring Inquiry, Promoting Mentoring, and Fostering Scholarship*

Conference Mission: The purpose of the Annual South Florida Education Research Conference (SFERC; formerly COE-GSN RC) is to enhance the existing research culture in South Florida. 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 across the lifespan in and out of school and across disciplines. .

The FIU COE Lorraine R. Gay Award for Outstanding Research: The award is presented to the best paper authored by an individual student or group of students.

The FIU Barnes & Noble Best Faculty-Student Paper Award: The award is presented to the best paper authored by a faculty-student(s) team.

The Lynn University Outstanding Poster Presentation Award:
The award is presented to acknowledge outstanding scholarship on a poster created by a student.

Who Should Submit: Papers are welcomed from practitioners, students, and faculty from any discipline interested in any aspect of education, teaching, or learning across the lifespan and across fields; management and administration of organizations such as schools, community outreach, parks and recreation, not for profit and for profit; and workforce development, globalization, international and urban issues. Papers may be submitted by single or multiple authors. Students are encouraged to submit papers based on theses /dissertations, class papers, or other scholarly work.

Paper Categories

Reports on Research: Reports on research which are empirical studies using qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approaches.

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.

Theory, Model Development, and Literature Reviews: Insights on theory, a critique of an existing model or presentation of a new model, or a review of the literature that provides a new perspective on the existing work. Examples include an in-depth exploration of issues related to teaching and learning throughout the lifespan in formal education settings and beyond.

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, universities, corporate and community organizations, leisure activities for children and adults, or other extra-curricular activities. Examples include papers which address problems and/or solutions in areas of practice such as curriculum design, strategy selection, teaching and learning, or program implementation.

Evaluation Studies or Action Research:
Reports on studies involving needs assessment, priority setting, goal analysis, evaluation or other forms of applied research using evaluation or action research approaches. Examples include reflections on proposal development, grant work, and reports on progress of the grant at meaningful stages.

Conference Timeline

Paper Submission Deadline – **Monday January 6, 2014**
Authors Notified of Submission Status – **Monday, February 24, 2014**
Authors Send Revised Papers to the Proceedings Sub-Committee –**Monday, March 17, 2014**

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Camera-Ready Papers - **Monday, April 7, 2014**

Submission Instructions

All submissions must be formatted as MS word documents. To submit papers go to **digitalcommons.fiu.edu/sferc**. You will be asked to create an account and provide some information about you (and your co-authors, if applicable) and the paper. For each paper submission you will be asked to provide the following:

* All author(s) identification/contact information and institutional affiliation (University, Department, and program) on the Cover Page.
*Paper Category (see Paper Categories list and guidelines)
*Three (3) Key Words that are not in the Title to characterize the focus of the paper
*Authorship category: student(s)-only, student(s)-faculty, or faculty-only paper
*Name and contact information of a faculty mentor/sponsor, if applicable.
*The Warrant Statement.

You will need to upload a blind copy of the paper - Name this file attachment with the first two words of the paper title (e.g., *TeacherEfficacy.doc*).

The paper should include
    *A title in **14 pt. Bold letters.**
    *An abstract of 25-50 words maximum.

The paper 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.

Research with Human Subjects: Please follow the research protocol of your institution.

FIU students, faculty, and staff should 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 FIU COE IRB representative Dr. Leonard Bliss at blissl@fiu.edu.

Review and Selection Process

The Review and Selection Committee will screen papers for adherence to Submission Instructions and APA (6th ed.) guidelines. Papers 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 paper for content, clarity, and organization. Papers may be accepted, accepted with revisions, or rejected.

Monday, February 24, 2014
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 three weeks of receipt.

Monday, March 17, 2014
Submission of the Revised Papers to the Proceedings Sub-Committee
Authors must re-submit the revised 8-page single spaced paper along with the cover letter that describes what changes were made to Proceedings sub-committee. The proceedings editors will edit every paper, making necessary formatting and editing changes. The edited papers will then be returned to the authors.

Authors are expected to return camera-ready papers.

Monday, April 7, 2014
Submission of Camera-Ready Papers 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 6th edition guidelines.

Paper Discussion Sessions: One to two papers 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 paper will be allotted 10 to 15 minutes to present the key points from the paper. Interactive presentations are encouraged. MS PowerPoint, overheads, or handouts are encouraged but not required.

Note: All moderators, presenters, and their family and friends are expected to register for the SFERC.

For questions contact Dr. Tonette S. Rocco roccot@fiu.edu or any member of the Steering Committee.

For more information about the conference, please, visit
http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/

The 13th Annual South Florida Education Research Conference at Florida International University, Saturday June 7, 2014

Honoring Inquiry   **Promoting Mentoring**   **Fostering Scholarship**

SFERC 2014 Symposia: Call for Proposals

The SFERC 2014 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 SFERC 2014 Steering Committee is responsible for selecting symposia. Each symposium is scheduled for 50 minutes. The expected format for a symposium consists of a 5 minute overview by the chair, 2-3 speakers giving 10-15 minute talks, 5 minutes for discussion between talks, and concluding with 10-15 minutes for summary and discussion.

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.
5. Title of each presentation followed by the name and contact information for each author.
6. Summary of each presentation (maximum 500 words).

Symposia may be rejected if proposals are not revised and returned according to the conference deadlines.

To submit a symposium proposal, go to **digitalcommons.fiu.edu/sferc**. You will be asked to create an account and provide some information about you (and your co-authors, if applicable) and the symposium. Name this file attachment with the first two words of the symposium title (e.g., *TeacherEfficacy.doc*). Proposals should be submitted by January 20, 2014.

Authors will receive feedback by March 17, 2014. The 13th Annual SFERC will be held on Saturday, June 7, 2014. For more information about the Annual SFERC, please, visit http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/

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The 13th Annual South Florida Education Research Conference at Florida International University, Saturday June 7, 2014

Honoring Inquiry   **Promoting Mentoring**   **Fostering Scholarship**

SFERC 2014 Poster Presentations: Call for Proposals

The SFERC 2014 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 SFERC 2014 Poster Sub-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)

To submit a poster proposal, go to **digitalcommons.fiu.edu/sferc**. You will be asked to create an account and provide some information about you (and your co-authors, if applicable) and the poster. You will need to upload a blind copy of the proposal. Name this file attachment with the first two words of the poster title (e.g., *TeacherEfficacy.doc*). Remove all author information from the proposal. Proposals should be submitted by January 20, 2014.

Authors will receive feedback by March 17, 2014. Poster presentations may be rejected if student submissions are not revised and returned according to the conference deadlines. The 13th SFERC will be held on Saturday, June 7, 2014. For more information about the Annual SFERC, please, visit http://education.fiu.edu/research_conference/

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