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The Relationship between Cultural Mistrust and African American College Students' Attitudes toward Mental Health Treatment

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Abstract

Although African American college students face multiple challenges in their quest to graduate from college, campus counseling centers are underutilized by African American students compared to their White counterparts. The purpose of this hierarchical multiple regression study was to test hypotheses based on the theory of cultural mistrust. Level of mistrust among African American college students was hypothesized to predict their attitudes toward mental health treatment and willingness to use or refer to such treatment after controlling for gender, parents' education, and parents' economic status. Based on a survey of 129 volunteer African American college students from a historically Black college/university (HBCU), a significant bivariate relationship was found between cultural mistrust and attitudes toward mental health treatment (r = -.15) but not with respect to willingness to use or refer to such services. After controlling for gender, education, and economic status, cultural mistrust did not significantly add to the predictability of either dependent variable. In addition, the two dependent variables were significantly and moderately correlated with each other (r = .36). This relationship adds to the literature on the validity of these two different measures. The results of this study provide only weak support for cultural mistrust as a predictor of attitudes and willingness. Implications for social change include promoting college counseling services specifically to African Americans that could help increase their utilization of such services and, therefore, overcome barriers to graduation.

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Examining the Differences in Facebook Behaviors between an Older and Younger Age Cohort

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Abstract

The worldwide use of social networking sites (SNS) has become increasingly popular and is currently capturing significant research attention. Facebook's targeted audience was originally college students and, for that reason, at present most reported research is based on that age cohort. This current study consists of 134 subjects and compares the behavior of 81 young adult users (ages18-28) to that of 53 older adults (ages 50 & above). Based on a reliably assessed typology developed in earlier investigations, Facebook users were grouped into five categories: Observer, Scrapbooker, Activist, Entrepreneur, and Social Butterfly. A protocol which examined the last 10 Facebook postings and activities was utilized to assess a user's typology. The following hypotheses were examined: An older cohort of Facebook users will exhibit significantly less active behavior when compared to young adult users and older Facebook users will demonstrate Activist and Entrepreneur approaches, while younger Facebook users will express more Observer and Social Butterfly activity. It is also predicted that both age groups will be similar with regard to Scrapbooker activities. Results significantly demonstrated that the older cohort of Facebook users displayed more active behavior on the SNS than younger users. The younger cohort significantly showed more Social Butterfly and Entrepreneur activity, while the older cohort showed more Activist behavior. Predictions were supported as results showed an existing overlap between both cohorts on Scrapbooking behavior. However, results also showed

an unexpected similarity in Observer behavior between cohorts; potentially a result of the difficulty capturing these behaviors for either age cohort.

Keywords: Facebook research, behavior, age

With over 800 million users (Eldon, 2012), Facebook has become the most popular social networking site (SNS) and is continuously capturing research attention. Facebook has created new ways to connect with others by allowing the exchange of photos, posts, and status updates. With all the informal ways of communication offered by the SNS, many consider it useful in helping to maintain and rebuild new and old friendships, while others feel its existence is ruining personal forms of communication (Carpenter, Green, & LaFlam, 2011). While this is no longer the case, Facebook's original targeted audience was the college population and its purpose was to allow communication within the student's school network. For that reason, most of today's published research has focused on that age group. Although research on the use of SNS is expanding, there is a lack in the purpose of use and explanation of human behavior on the website, especially among different age cohorts (Subrahmanyam, Reich, Waechter, & Espinoza, 2008).

Recently, researchers have turned to personality factors as major predictors of online behavior (Ryan & Xenos, 2011). Much of the research today involves the use of the Big Five Model to test such predictions since it evaluates an individual's personality based on how they rank on 5 bipolar factors; extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism (McCrae & John, 1992). Ryan & Xenos (2011) conducted a study to examine how personality factors affect an individual's usage on the site, as well as their non-usage. They predicted that those who formed part of the SNS would be more active by posting on walls and having a large number of friends, where as non-users would show the opposite behavior and be more introverted (Ryan & Xenos, 2011). Their results showed that individuals who formed part of the SNS did in fact score higher as extroverts and narcissists than those who refrained from using the website. This showed that certain personality types have greater interest and participate more in online activity.

A similar study done by Carpenter, Green, & LaFlam (2011) also examined the personality differences and the activity they led to on Facebook, while using the Big Five Model. Those who scored as extroverts were predicted to participate more in direct interactions and use Facebook as a method of planning future social events, as well as understanding the perspectives of their friends on the website. Conversely, they expected introverts to be less open on Facebook and to maintain online-only friendships. Results showed that scoring high on extroversion could not actually foretell an individual's online behavior; instead, openness to new experience was a better predictor (Carpenter et, al., 2011). Such studies have provided valid inferences about how personality can be observed by studying an individuals Facebook profile. Considering college students were Facebook's original audience, however, these studies focused on observing the behavior among that age cohort.

A more recent study acknowledged an older generation of Facebook users and compared their differences and commonalities in the use of the site for information sharing and privacy control (Christofides, Muise, Desmarais, 2012). A difference found between both age cohorts was that, although there was no significant difference in the number of friends was present, teens

tend to add more people regardless of knowing them personally or not (Christofides et, al., 2012). An explanation for this is that teens spend a large amount of time on the SNS in comparison to the older users. A possible implication of that conclusion may be due to grown adults having more responsibilities than the youth. Studies like this conducted by Christofides, Muise, Desmarais (2012) are among the few providing possible implications of older adult Facebook use. There is little existing evidence that demonstrates a difference in young and older adults SNS behavior and activity. This study, however, will contribute to the new pool of research by examining the difference in online behavior among college age and older adult Facebook users.

While previous studies have examined personality in relation to behavior on Facebook, not many have explored the nature of an individual's online character being unique. As previously mentioned, past research has gathered their data through the use of the Big Five Method, as well as self-reporting surveys. Conversely, this study eliminates the bias of using surveys and instead examines the self-built Facebook profiles of participants.

This study utilized the typology created by Vaughn, Warren, & Fiebert (2012) where researchers in the lab developed five different typologies (Observer, Scrap booker, Activist, Entrepreneur, and Social butterfly) based on observed Facebook behavior; creating a way to categorize online personalities. A coding sheet was also developed and used to gather the same personal information, recent activity, and wall posts of every participant. Each typology is defined by the presence of certain activity on Facebook. This current study continues to follow the typology proposed by Vaughn et al., (2012) and suggests that Facebook users can be categorized into one or more of the five typologies based on their activity on the website. It is predicted that older adult Facebook users will display less activity overall when compared to younger Facebook users. It is hypothesized that the older cohort will demonstrate Activist and Entrepreneur use and young adult users will express more Observer and Social Butterfly activity, while both age groups will overlap on Scrapbooker behavior.

Method

Participants

To compare the behavior on SNS among different age cohorts, a total sample of N=134 (81 young adult, 53 older adult) Facebook profiles were observed in this study. Young adult Facebook users were between the ages of 18-28 and older adult users were grouped as age 50 and older. Facebook users were randomly selected by choosing from the profiles of the researchers. Attempts were made to collect equal participants for both age groups; however, omitted information in the profiles of the older cohort prevented equal sample sizes.

Materials

Researchers used a specific coding sheet when observing each Facebook profile. This allowed researchers to obtain all the necessary information without having to further contact the participant. Vaughn et al,. (2012) performed a training validation prior to the data collection where all raters were trained on how to accurately code Facebook profiles. Vaughn et al,. (2012) coded a set of Facebook profiles to validate their coding system and found a significant inter-rater reliability for the coding scheme created. The same coding sheet and method was utilized in this study. The coding sheet was separated into four sections; personal information, friend

information, last 10 posts, and last 10 activities. The 'Personal Information' section considered the age, sex, martial status, education level, religious and political beliefs and picture count. The 'Friend Information' section considered the number of friends each participant had, as well as the percentage of female and organization/business friends. The 'Last 10 Posts' section consisted of a chart with spaces to fill the appropriate date of the post, who the post was posted by, the number of "Like's" it had, and the typology (i.e., Observer, Scrapbooker, Activist, Entrepreneur, or Social butterfly) that particular post falls under. Lastly, the 'Last 10 Activities' section also consisted of a chart whose columns were separated by the observed activity (i.e., commenting on both their personal and others photos and posts, how often they change their personal information or picture, how often they check into places and 'Like' a link or page) and allowed the researcher to see how active a participant was on the SNS and what type of activity he/she is engaging in.

Procedure

Researchers began by logging onto their personal Facebook site and randomly choosing participants from their list of friends. To respect the participant's privacy, names were omitted from the coding sheets and replaced with a number to keep track of data. The researcher was to have the coding sheet present and gather as much of the necessary information to fill the form. However, the researcher's main focus was the participants last ten posts and most recent activity. This allowed the researcher to keep track of the type of behavior the participant was engaging in and how frequently they were doing so. In order to separate each behavior and categorize it, five typologies were developed and utilized for this study.

Coding descriptors such as; Observer, Scrapbooker, Activist, Entrepreneur, and Social butterfly were used based on the actual behaviors being exhibited. The Observer typology was defined by the users behavior of following other peoples profiles and commenting others status', posts, and photos. The Scrapbooker was defined by behaviors such as posting photos and descriptions of their day or events they participated in. The Activist typology was described by a participant who demonstrated support on a political or environmental issue and/or organized events for associations. The Entrepreneur was one that engaged in business-related activities, sales, or entertainment. Lastly, the Social butterfly typology was defined by the user's behavior as mere communication purposes and participation in social events. When looking at participants posts, the researcher was to categorize that specific behavior into one of the typologies.

Results

Each typology was observed individually to see if one age group significantly differed from the other in their use or type of activity on Facebook. A Oneway ANOVA was conducted to determine the difference between the five typologies and the function of age. To test the first hypothesis, we compared the level of activity between young adults and older adults; focusing on the amount of "Likes" a user engaged in. Contrary to predictions, older adult users showed significantly higher Facebook activity (M=20.75, SD=.87) than the younger adult users (M=12.49, SD= 15.34), F (1,132) = 4.01, p= .047. Testing the second hypothesis, both age cohorts were observed and compared on the behaviors each typology is defined by. Results showed that younger Facebook users did not differ in the amount of Observer behavior (M= .23, SD= .60) when compared to the older Facebook users (M=.32, SD=.98), F(1,131) = .46, p=.50.

Demonstrating similar Observer behavior meant that both the younger and older cohorts engaged in similar amounts of following peoples Facebook profiles, as well as, commenting others photos, posts, and statuses. Similarly, the number of younger and older individuals did not differ on a level of Scrapbooking behaviors. To distinguish Scrapbooking behavior from the other typologies, researchers focused on the user's amount of personal shared events and found that younger Facebook users (M=2.35, SD= 2.30) showed no significant differences in the number of Scrapbooker posts in comparison to the older group (M=2.90, SD=2.87),F(1,131)=1.50, p=.223. In the Activist typology, researchers tested their prediction that older Facebook users would show more Activist behavior by comparing the amount of post supporting a specific environmental or political issue to that of the younger Facebook cohort. Results showed a marginally significant difference between groups where older Facebook users demonstrated more Activist behavior (M=2.40, SD= 2.77) than the younger Facebook users (M=1.66, SD=1.92), F(1,125)=3.15, p=.078. To test their prediction that older Facebook users would engage in more Entrepreneur behavior, researchers compared the number of business or sales related posts between the younger and older cohorts. Contrary to predictions, researchers found a significant difference in behavior between the younger group and the older adult group with the younger cohort demonstrating more Entrepreneur behavior (M=.72, SD=1.30) in comparison to the older cohort (M=.31, SD= .54), F (1,125)= 4.58, p=.034. Similarly, the younger Facebook users showed significantly higher Social Butterfly activity (M=5.20, SD=2.65) than the older Facebook cohort (M=3.77, SD= 3.07), F(1, 133)= 8.15, p=.005. This supported researchers' prediction that the younger cohort would in fact demonstrate greater use of their SNS for the awareness of social events and communication purposes.

Discussion

Results supported the researchers original hypotheses, although not entirely. It was hypothesized that each age group would display different Facebook activity, placing each cohort into different typologies; except for the predicted overlap on Scrapbooker behavior. The hypothesis was supported in the sense that both age groups showed different activity, and fit into different categories. However, not the ones anticipated. It was predicted that older-adult Facebook users would participate in more Activist and Entrepreneur activity than the younger users. Results did not support this prediction by showing that younger users, in fact, showed more recent activity and posts supporting entrepreneur or business-related issues than older-adult users. This can be explained by life events that many young adults experience. Most young adults are trying to create their future and to do so, networking is very important. For that reason, younger Facebook users may see the purpose of their SNS as a way of connecting with businesses and companies that might relate to their future aspirations. Conversely, the older adult users are likely to have already passed that stage in their lives and may not be as intrigued by business or sales related posts on Facebook. Although the older cohort of Facebook users may not be as drawn to entrepreneur-like posts, they have showed other uses for the SNS.

In the Activist typology marginally significant results showed that older adults did engage in more environmental and politically related activity than the younger cohort of Facebook users. Although the mean differences were close for both groups, results showed that younger Facebook users are engaging in similar amounts of activist behavior in comparison to the older group. This may be evidence showing that younger adult population is growing more

interest and awareness in environmental issues or political events in their country. Similarly, younger Facebook users did not significantly show more Observer behavior compared to the older group as originally expected. Meaning, both groups participate in the same amount of following people's profiles and commenting others posts and statuses. The unexpected overlap found in Observer behavior among both younger and older age cohorts may be due to the difficulty in coding this particular typology. The SNS Facebook has developed an increasing number of options for users to hide certain personal information or activity; making it difficult for researchers to gather as much activity data as the user might actually engage in. For instance, many Facebook users might hide their recent wall activity or who they have recently added as a friend. Researchers attempted to code only the Facebook profiles of those who seemed to have most, if not all, their activity visible. None the less, some profiles had to be eliminated due to missing data. Unlike the Observer typology, the behaviors that define the Scrapbooker typology were more overt for researchers to record and observe.

Supporting our prediction for the Scrapbooker typology, both age cohorts did in fact overlap on behaviors such as posting pictures of friends or family members and description of their outings. Although both age groups had small mean differences, they did not significantly differ from one another. This not only proves that both age cohorts relate in their liking of sharing photos with their Facebook friends but, despite age differences, both groups have the same purpose for the use of the SNS. Another fully supported prediction was that of the Social Butterfly typology, where young adult Facebook users significantly showed greater activity in their use of the SNS for communication and social event purposes in comparison to the older adult users. This shows that, although older adults users like to share photos, comment, and observe profiles like the younger cohort, they do not find much importance in using the SNS for social event purposes as the younger users do. This may be due to the older cohort being less interested in meeting new people and only interacting with their familiar Facebook friends. Researchers also found that the older adult cohort engaged in more "liking" of their friends post on Facebook overall in comparison to the younger Facebook users. There was a significant difference between both age cohorts, thus not supporting our hypothesis of younger Facebook users exhibiting more active behavior on Facebook when compared to the older Facebook users.

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The Modern Sex Doll-Owner: A Descriptive Analysis

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Sarah Valverde's clinical work involves community mental health services, serving populations who struggle with poverty, marginalization, and associated mental health issues. In addition Sarah works as a behavioral consultant for individuals with developmental disabilities and has served as in-home support for families with high-risk children and teens in the foster care system. She has been researching the topic of sex dolls and communicating with the doll-owning community for the past three years with the aim of introducing the phenomenon to the psychological community from a socio-cultural perspective

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Abstract

Over the last fifteen years, the sex doll industry has grown from producing inexpensive novelty items to creating a multimillion-dollar global industry featuring high- quality, realistic love dolls. These dolls are designed and advertised for sexual stimulation, companionship, artistic representations of human fantasy, and other creative pursuits, such as photography. Made of flesh-like silicone, modern sex dolls sell from $3,500-$10,000. The use of human simulacra for sexual stimulation is an enduring practice. However, the psychological community has said little on the subject. Early sexologists briefly reference Agalmatophilia or Statuphilia, a rare sexual attachment to statues. Today, the sex doll phenomenon appears increasingly prevalent across the globe. More often than not, sex doll-ownership is portrayed as pathological although no empirical evidence supports pathology to date. The purpose of this study was to increase psychology's understanding of this interesting and growing population. Specifically, a 45-item online survey addressing demographics was constructed and assessed. Additionally, participants

were asked to describe their relationship status, doll-ownership status, and satisfaction with human and sex doll partners, including sexual satisfaction and performance. Quality of life was also assessed via the Satisfaction with Life Scale (*SWLS*). Of the doll-owners who completed the survey (n=56) the majority were middle-aged white males. The demographic data collected on the male doll-owners indicates most are employed, single, hold a high school degree or higher, and identify as heterosexual. Survey results indicate doll-owners are neither significantly better nor worse in terms of psychosexual functioning and life satisfaction than the general population. Limitations of this study and future directions are discussed.

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Juvenile Recidivism in Urban versus Rural Areas: A Survival Analysis of Large Longitudinal Data

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Abstract

This paper investigates factors affecting juvenile recidivism using a large longitudinal dataset. The statistical method of survival analysis is used to measure the length of time a juvenile returns to crime after his or her first referral. The results of estimations of parametric survival models showed that juveniles residing in rural areas tended to have lower rates of recidivism. Other sociodemographic factors such as race and ethnicity, school status, family background were also found to affect the length of time between a juvenile's first and second referrals. Understanding these factors associated with recidivism may make it possible to identify juveniles at risk and formulate more effective policies to assist them.

Key words: juvenile recidivism, urban versus rural areas, survival analysis

I. Introduction

Juvenile crime remains a serious problem in the United States and continues to affect millions of people despite a downward trend in recent years (e.g., the juvenile arrest rate dropped 20 percent from 1998-2007). In 2006, the second leading cause of death for teenagers aged 15-19 was homicide, with many of those committed by juvenile offenders. For violent and property

crime, juveniles accounted for 16% and 26% of all arrests in 2007 (Puzzanchera, 2009). Many hardened criminals and serial offenders began their criminal careers as juveniles (Farrington, 1992). "It is well documented that there is a strong association between involvement in adolescent delinquency and involvement in adult criminality" (Paternoster, Brame, and Farrington, 2001). In order to alleviate adult criminal activity, society may first have to address effectively juvenile crime.

This research studies juvenile recidivism in urban and rural Pennsylvania, examining how and whether various characteristics of both the juvenile justice system and juvenile offender affect recidivism. Parametric survival models were estimated to examine how recidivism was affected by the juvenile's sociodemographic factors (sex, race, and ethnicity) and punitiveness of the juvenile justice system. Special attention was given to how the juvenile's family and living arrangement (comparing juveniles who live in single- and two-parent households) affected recidivism. In addition, this study explored whether characteristics of the juvenile's county of residence (income, Temporary Assistance to Needy Families, number of police, and arrest rates) were related to recidivism. A natural inquiry is to investigate the interactions of various sociodemographic variables and urban and rural residence on recidivism. Understanding the factors associated with recidivism may make it possible to identify juveniles who are at increased risk of recidivism.

Pennsylvania provides a unique setting to study juvenile recidivism given that it is one of the largest rural states in the U.S. Approximately 30 percent of the state's 12.4 million people live in a rural county (defined as less than 274 people per square mile). Since recidivism is an important measure of the effectiveness of the juvenile justice system, capturing the system's ability to deter criminal relapse and rehabilitate juveniles, a better understanding of juvenile recidivism will give policymakers needed information for designing and implementing intervention programs. Of course, recidivism is not only affected by the juvenile justice system but depends on the decisions and choices made by the juvenile, which are likely influenced by socioeconomic and sociodemographic factors.

II. Background

The main focus of most empirical research on juvenile recidivism has been on three major issues: first, factors that may predict repeated delinquency, including age, race, sex, severity of offense, prior record, drug use, family contact during incarceration, personality traits, academic skills, etc.; second, the effectiveness of intervention programs; and third, the issues concerning transfer of juveniles to adult courts. Archwamety and Katsiyannis (1998) compared recidivists and non-recidivists in a small sample of delinquent females committed to a state correctional facility to find that factors such as age at first offense and first commitment, seriousness of offense, and academic skills (math in particular) are associated with recidivism. In their subsequent study of a sample of delinquent males (Archwamety and Katsiyannis, 2000), they confirmed the link between academic skills and recidivism rates. The connection between education and recidivism appears to be relevant for adult criminals as well. Using data from New York state adult inmates, for example, Nuttall, Hollmen, and Staley (2003) found that those who earned a GED (General Equivalency Diploma) while incarcerated had a significantly lower recidivism rate than those who did not.

Book, Thomas, and Steinke (2004) analyzed a small sample from a rural county in Oregon to find that a community-based residential care program reduced post-program criminal activities. However, their results failed to identify factors that may reduce juvenile recidivism, when the factors considered were behavioral and personality traits of youth such as antisocial behavior, passive-aggressive personality, disturbed personality, and so on.

In a recent study using a small sample of 90 youths released from a long-term residential care facility in Michigan, Ryan and Yang (2005) found that juveniles who have frequent and substantial contacts with their family through campus visits, home visits, and telephone conversations have lower rates of recidivism. Mbuba (2004) used juvenile custody and release data from Louisiana and found that factors such as age, duration of incarceration, drug use and peer influence, but not race, are the most significant predictors of juvenile recidivism. Using a sample from South Australia, Putnins (2003) found that the use of alcohol and inhalants, rather than "hard drugs," is a significant predictor of subsequent offenses.

Quinn and Van Dyke (2004) evaluated the effectiveness of a multiple family group intervention program for first-time juvenile offenders by applying logistic regression analysis to a sample drawn from juvenile courts of two counties one of which participated in the intervention program in which participating families offered the opportunity to challenge, confront, support and provide alternatives to one another in addition to fostering communication, parental monitoring and cohesion. Their results showed that first-time juvenile offenders who received probation without the intervention were more than 9 times more likely to recidivate than those who finished the family intervention program. In a meta-analysis of 35 previous studies, Latimer (2001) found that, while family intervention treatment tends to reduce juvenile recidivism, results vary with research design; "less rigorous experimental designs tended to produce significantly lower rates of recidivism."

A majority of previous studies used simple discriminate analysis or logistic regression to examine the factors contributing recidivism. Given the complexities of recidivism data and advances in statistical sophistication, more appropriate methods can be employed to investigate issues related to juvenile recidivism. For example, applying a multivariate survival model to a sample of adolescents and young adults in California, Visher, Lattimore and Linster (1991) found that past criminal history, substance abuse, family background, and environment (measured as county property and violent crime rate) are related with the risk of recidivism.

Should a violent youth offender be tried in criminal court instead of juvenile court? In recent years, a growing number of states have moved from the traditional judicial waiver provisions to statutory exclusion provisions (Snyder, Sickmund, and Poe-Yamagata, 2000). Pennsylvania's Act 33 of 1996, for example, began to exclude by statute more juvenile offenders from the juvenile system and send them directly to state criminal court. The question is: Does transferring juveniles to criminal courts reduce recidivism rates? The empirical results by several studies are not encouraging. For example, using data from Florida which is a leading state in juvenile transfers to criminal court, Bishop, *et al* (1996) found that adult processing of juveniles in criminal court increased the likelihood of recidivism. In a follow-up study using the same juvenile offenders, Winner, *et al* (1997) confirmed the same results of higher recidivism rates for those who were transferred to adult court, except for those who committed property crimes. Fagan (1995) also found that juveniles tried under criminal courts had a higher recidivism rate, especially for robbery offenders.

III. Data

This study used a large database of juvenile activity for Pennsylvania collected and maintained by the Center for Juvenile Justice Training and Research (CJJTR). The CJJTR is part of the Juvenile Court Judges' Commission (JCJC), created in 1959 by the Pennsylvania Legislature. The JCJC is responsible for advising juvenile courts on court procedures and care of delinquents, overseeing administrative practices in probation offices, and collecting and reporting juvenile court statistics.

The period of analysis was 1997-2005, with the final data sample containing almost 200,000 observations. The CJJTR reported that prior to 1997 the data were neither reliable nor consistent with more recent data owing to changes in how the variables were collected and reported. For each year, the CJJTR collects and compiles data, which are initially entered by the juvenile court in each of Pennsylvania's 67 counties, on each juvenile referred to the juvenile court system of Pennsylvania. A juvenile may be referred to the court by police, school, probation officer, relative, social agency, another juvenile court, or district justice.

For every juvenile record, there was information on charges filed, whether the charges were substantiated, and outcome at disposition. Along with these variables there was information on juvenile's race, age, ethnicity (Hispanic or non-Hispanic), county of residence, family status (whether the juvenile's parents were currently married, divorced, separated, never married, or one or both deceased), and living arrangements (whether the juvenile was living with both parents, mother, father, relative, father and stepmother, mother and stepfather, or foster parents). From the county of residence information, a 0-1 indicator variable, which was not provided in the original dataset, was constructed to code whether a juvenile was living in a rural or urban area, with a rural area defined as fewer than 274 persons per square mile. Furthermore, the county information allowed us to add additional variables to the analysis. For example, number of police officers per capita, real (inflation adjusted) income per capita, and other sociodemographic variables in the surrounding community may affect recidivism.

This study explored juvenile recidivism, defined as the time between the juvenile's first and second referral to the juvenile justice system. The first and second referral must have led to a substantiated charge; therefore, this study explored recidivism on the basis of reconviction, one of the most commonly used measures of recidivism (Mbuba, 2005). Other ways of measuring recidivism include time to re-arrest or re-referral (regardless of disposition outcome). This research did not estimate recidivism using time to re-arrest, which is common in adult recidivism studies, since many juveniles who were referred have never been arrested. For example, a neighbor might report to the police department a delinquent act of a juvenile who lives in the neighborhood which, assuming sufficient evidence, leads to a police referral to the county's juvenile court, but not necessarily an arrest. There is more likely to be an arrest with violent crimes than with property or substance abuse crimes.

There were some other shortcomings of the data.[1] First, there was no information on whether juveniles living in Pennsylvania have committed crimes in neighboring states, so the

[1] Pennsylvania's Act 33 of 1996 created conditions in which a juvenile under age 18 could be excluded from juvenile court jurisdiction. Prior to Act 33 only juveniles charged with murder were excluded from the juvenile court's jurisdiction. Under Act 33 juveniles could now be excluded if they were aged 15 or older and

data might not have captured the complete criminal history of a juvenile. Second, the data did not include information on juveniles who were convicted of a delinquent act in Pennsylvania and then moved out of state. In survival analysis, these juveniles are treated as right censored (as explained below). As long as this censoring is random (i.e., juveniles moving out of state were not substantially more or less likely than nonmovers to commit a subsequent offense), the estimated results will be unbiased. Taken together, all the shortcomings and weaknesses of the data will have the effect of understating the extent of recidivism.

IV. Model Specification

The survival estimates were based on estimating parametric survival models in which the time to the second referral for the j^{th} juvenile (t_j) was specified with a generalized gamma distribution. The Akaike information criterion indicated that the gamma model fit the data better than the exponential, Weibull, log-logistic, and log-normal models. The regression model takes the following basic form:

$$\ln(t_j) = \beta_0 + x_j\beta_x + u_j$$

where u_j follows a generalized gamma distribution and x is a vector of explanatory variables.

The explanatory variables, consisting primarily of dummy variables, included an indicator variable of whether the juvenile resided in a rural or urban county. There was a variable indicating whether the juvenile was male to test for differences in recidivism between males and females. To help control for the effects of age, the juvenile's age and age squared (the squared term captures nonlinearities) were controlled for. A variable was included indicating whether the juvenile was black and another variable indicated whether the juvenile belonged to another race, such as Asian or Indian. There was a variable that indicated whether the juvenile was Hispanic. To test the effect of family background characteristics on recidivism, a variable was included to indicate whether the juvenile lived only with their mother and another variable indicated whether the juvenile had at least one deceased parent. A felony offense variable indicated whether the juvenile's first offense was a felony. It was hypothesized that felony offenders may have higher rates of recidivism. Another variable indicated whether the juvenile was represented by a private attorney at the time of the first offense. Juveniles with private attorney representation may come from more socioeconomically advantaged households, which may affect recidivism. An in-school variable indicated whether the juvenile at the time of the

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charged certain violent crimes (e.g., aggravated assault, rape, murder, robbery, kidnapping). In addition, the juvenile must either have used a deadly weapon or have previously been adjudicated to have committed one of the excluded offenses. Even if there is prima facie case and the exclusion criteria are met, it is possible that some cases may return to juvenile court following a decertification hearing in criminal court whereby a juvenile files a request that the case be tried in juvenile court. As a result of the foregoing exclusions, the dataset used in this study did not contain information on juveniles who committed some of the most violent crimes, and this will lead to an underreporting of recidivism, but this omission was a minor problem since the number of juveniles excluded from juvenile court was small. In 1996, only 473 cases were excluded from juvenile jurisdiction, leading to 109 convictions in criminal court.

first offense was enrolled in school. Juveniles not attending school may have had more opportunities for committing crime. A special education variable and an alternative education variable controlled for whether the juvenile attended a special education program or an alternative education program. Students in special education programs that were gifted or handicapped were likely to have lower rates of recidivism, while students in alternative education programs may have higher rates of recidivism given their past behavioral problems.

The survival model was also estimated by controlling for the county characteristics of the juvenile's residence, such as per capita income, annual per capita Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), arrest rate, number of police officers per capita, and cases dismissed from the county's juvenile justice system (the percentage of dispositions dismissed or not substantiated).[2] The county's per capita income and per capita TANF were used to test whether juveniles were more likely to return to crime in socioeconomically disadvantaged counties. The arrest rate and police per capita variables were included to test their deterrence effects on recidivism. A variable indicated whether a juvenile received a disposition warning at the time of their first offense. Since a warning was the most lenient punishment, this variable attempted to measure the so-called slap on the wrist effect. Finally, the percent of cases dismissed was used to measure the number of juvenile cases dismissed in the juvenile's county of residence, which may be associated with certain characteristics of the county's juvenile justice system.

In most cases, the estimated coefficients represent the effect a variable had on the length of time to a juvenile's second referral. A coefficient greater than one means that the variable has positive benefits on recidivism, increasing the length of time before a juvenile was expected to receive a second referral. By contrast, a coefficient less than one is associated with a quicker relapse into criminal activity. For example, suppose that the coefficient on the variable male is 0.50. This implies that for males the length of time to second referral is only half that of females. So if the average length of time to the second referral for females is 300 days, then males expected length of time to the second referral is 150 days.

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Perceived Exertion: A Comparative Study Using Different Forms of Distraction During Elliptical Training

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Abstract

The majority of American adults do not meet the recommended amount of daily physical activity. One possible reason for the low levels of physical activity is that exercise can be perceived to be too difficult and/or strenuous, which can act as a deterrent. The Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE) is a subjective assessment of work performed by an individual during exercise. It is the purpose of the study to investigate and compare the effectiveness different forms of distraction during exercise on an elliptical trainer, particularly on perceived exertion, heart rate, and duration of exercise, during sessions of no distraction (control), auditory distraction, visual distraction, and positive feedback. Subjects consisted of 3 male and 8 female untrained college students. Individuals completed 1 familiarity session and 4 testing sessions whose order was randomly assigned. Participants used the Borg Scale of Perceived Exertion and exercised until they reached a level of 16 out of 20 or until 40 minutes elapsed. Time exercised,

RPE, and heart rate were recorded at the end of each exercise session. A significant difference in RPE was observed when participants listened to music compared to the control and when participants participated in positive self talk when compared to the control. The implications from this research are that listening to music and the use of positive self talk decrease perceived exertion. This is important because reducing how hard an individual feels he/she is working out by adding a distraction may increase the likelihood that he/she will continue an exercise regimen.

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When the Therapist Loves and Hates

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> That creatures must find each other for bodily comfort,
> that voices of the psyche drive through the flesh
> further than the dense brain could have foretold,
> that the planetary nights are growing cold for those
> on the same journey who want to touch
> one creature-traveler clear to the end;
> that without tenderness, we are in hell.
>
> Adrienne Rich, 2011, p. 50

Abstract

What is the clinician's ultimate concern in clinical psychology? Reducing suffering is not necessarily consonant with improving health or well-being, just as "do no harm" is distinct from "do as much good as you can." Why is it challenging to honor the healing efficacy of loving and hateful feelings in psychotherapy? The poignant healing potential of experiencing and using these feelings in therapeutically healthy ways deserves more attention and study. There are undoubtedly clinicians already working with their own love and hate as well as their patients'. However, increasing awareness of loving and hateful feelings may serve the therapeutic process. Working overtly with the clinician's loving feelings is not easy to do in the therapeutic culture; not only are there concerns that this will undermine the goal of therapy, but there is ample evidence that this can lead to tremendous difficulty when done in an unskilled manner. Similarly, avoiding, denying, or otherwise minimizing this need is problematic. In this paper, the author demonstrates and emphasizes the need in clinical settings for the therapist's feelings, which are deserving of clinical, educational, and personal attention.

Keywords: transference, psychodynamic psychotherapy, love, hate

She looked deeply into his eyes and he looked into hers. Their bodies were very close, melding with one another. He touched her breast, grazing, and then holding it. Responding with her all, breathing in his fragrance, she embraced him. They were enthralled with one another, the love chemical flowing with the delight that they shared.

Although this may sound like a description of lovers in the first phase of their sexual relationship, it is a description of a mother/infant embrace. Many mothers, including myself, can

easily call to mind and re-experience the intensity of when our children were newborn infants. I can remember the earliest weeks during which we enjoyed a merging with each other—a state that is accepted and supported in most cultures. Longing for the skin-to-skin contact, needing to engage in the reciprocal dynamic of breastfeeding (the baby needs her empty belly to be filled, the mother needs to have her swollen breast emptied), honoring the baby's experience of her total and absolute dependence on the mother and, paradoxically, the mother's experience of total responsibility for this baby, all contribute to this early world where only the other exists. This phase can be compared to the inevitable stage of infatuation, the lustful intensity of new lovers. An "altered state" of consciousness is shared by the lover/lover as well as the mother/infant dyad. Parallels can also be seen in the psychotherapeutic "couple's" longings for contact, the wanting to feed and be fed, and the shared experience of total dependence on the other, as if no one else exists during the therapeutic hour.

Love is a dynamic process. It flexes, changes, and grows as people mature. Love can certainly bring out the best in people as individuals, and in a relationship it allows people to work as a team, to understand and be flexible, to compromise when necessary, and do whatever is demanded of them to maintain the relationship. Humans are social animals; caring for others and forming connections is hard-wired into our DNA. Caring for others—not just the physical act of caring, but also the emotional burden of concerns—changes our worldview. Loving leaves us vulnerable to loss. Yet a life lived wholly for one's own self lacks depth and humanity.

What is the ultimate concern in clinical psychology? Reducing suffering is not necessarily consonant with improving health or well-being, just as "do no harm" is distinct from "do as much good as you can." Why is it challenging to honor the healing efficacy of loving feelings in psychotherapy? Is it easier to abandon this issue than to strive to better understand it?

Some might ask: Is loving the patient mutually beneficial? What is the experience of loving—for both therapist and patient—in psychotherapy? How would more awareness of loving feelings serve the therapeutic process? What gets in the way of valuing loving feelings?

It is often the case that the therapist wants the patient to carry all of the feelings. Working overtly with the clinician's loving feelings is not easy to do in the therapeutic culture; not only are there concerns that this will undermine the goal of therapy, but there is ample evidence via ethics actions through licensing boards that this can lead to tremendous difficulty when done in an unskilled manner. Similarly, avoiding, denying, or otherwise minimizing this need is problematic.

The poignant healing potential of experiencing and expressing loving feelings in therapeutically healthy ways deserves more attention and study. Here in this paper, the need in clinical settings for the therapist's strongest feelings is emphasized. These feelings are deserving of clinical, educational, and personal attention.

Loving

This capacity for love and concern on the therapist's part is itself evidence of a thriving individual and is considered by Donald W. Winnicott (1965) to be an accomplishment; such a

capacity "develops out of the simultaneous love-hate experience which implies the achievement of ambivalence, the enrichment and refinement of which leads to the emergence of concern" (p. 75). It seems reasonable to suppose, based on Winnicott's proposition, that a clinician's caring sensibility is vital to the therapeutic endeavor, no matter what theoretical model is being used. If we as therapists begin from a place that values others and is genuinely interested in serving their well-being without displacing or diminishing our own, we are not bound to respond first from within a theoretical model. Instead, we stay with the primacy of loving and allow that to be our guide. Having our needs felt by an influential and trusted other is critical when we are children, and dynamic, loving relationships remain important throughout our lives. Healthy dependency is embedded in Winnicott's capacity for concern; it is needed to prevent psychological rigidity and to foster a willingness, and even enthusiasm, for being influenced by others. Loving is a subtle, distinct way of perceiving and being with our patients, ourselves, and others. It is rooted in vitality and wonder, and in therapy this feeling comes alive in an emotionally interactive, mutually transformative dance.

People have been grappling with definitions of love for thousands of years; there is rarely any uniform agreement on what exactly love is. Loving is hard work. When Erich Fromm (1956) defined loving as commitment of oneself to another without a guarantee, he may have meant to try again, to help the other person to help you, or to extend a metaphorical (or actual) hand at the very moment you need and want a hand extended toward you. Is it possible love is often sidelined not because it is ineffective, but because it is so demanding?

Although love can be used in a dangerous manner, it can conversely be used productively, in the service of health and healing. "Real," authentic loving feelings will emerge in the clinical setting; these feelings are not only plausible, they are in fact needed. Whereas there is considerable lip service given to what Carl Rogers (1951) referred to as unconditional positive regard or love, this is most often not about deep or authentic caring at all, but rather it refers to a neutralized affect. Unfortunately, unconditional love in this context can distort and denigrate the value of authentic loving feelings. There is an undercurrent flowing steadily through many psychoanalytic tributaries that whispers, "Care less, keep your distance, do not work that hard." The implication is that if therapists care too much, believe too readily, or get pulled in too deeply, we are foolish. Love is an experience of a deep human connection—on an unconscious as well as a conscious level—that involves generosity, recognition, acceptance, and something like forgiveness.

Being with patients in the therapy room, allowing for an intimate exchange (intercourse, in fact), holding them with words rather than with arms, and containing their intense feelings as they learn how to better contain these themselves is the very essence of my work. These functions are certainly not limited to therapy. As a mother I am constantly awed by the power of my relationship with my children. I can experience exquisite joy by their physical touch and I have no doubt that they need my touch and my words to feel loved and held. As a lover I am aware of the primitive and powerful merging with another, which transforms both of us, momentarily, into a glorious oneness.

It is important that we as therapists devote our clinical, educational, and personal consideration to our love for the client within the therapeutic context as an essential and valuable element of effective therapy. Loving feelings are valuable whichever theoretical or

psychodynamic models are endorsed. Judith Vida (2002) wrote about the role of love in psychoanalysis. She began by stating, "Because love is defined in myriad ways, it is difficult to know what we are talking about" (p. 437). When asked the question, "Do you think there is any type of love felt by the analyst toward the patient that contributes to the therapeutic action of psychoanalysis?" she responded with,

> It is not possible for me even to enter my office in the morning of a clinical day without the hope and the possibility of love. How can I say what it "contributes" when it is not an option or a conscious choice whether it is there or not? This is like saying, "Does it contribute to the therapeutic action that the analyst draws breath, has a blood pressure, and a pulse?" For me, the proper question is not "whether" or "if" but "how." How is love present—and absent—in the therapeutic situation, and how is it manifested? (p. 436)

People want to be known and understood by those who love them. In psychotherapy, these loving experiences have a transformational quality.

Hating

Most people have felt critical, angry, hateful, and exasperated toward others at some point. It makes sense, then, that the therapist must hold both the hateful and the loving feelings. The therapist needs to become a flexible feeler, and also needs to become comfortable, when appropriate, expressing a variety of feelings. Clearly, therapists are subject to the same psychological dynamics as patients. Hate is defensive in its very nature. However, there are many ways to metabolize, repress, or reject such feelings. Feeling both hatred—or aggression—and love is indeed necessary. In the history of psychoanalytic ideas, aggression has generated enormous controversy and continues to be the subject of sustained and intense interest. Sigmund Freud wrote extensively about aggressive impulses; for him they were more than a mere branch of human motivations. In *Civilization and Its Discontents*, Freud (1930/1961) characterized them rather as the primary, dominating, enduring root. He described man's aggression as an instinctual disposition as well as a "central and abiding part of human experience" (as cited in Deigh, 1991, p. 293).

Hatred is enormously complex. Without reflection and self-awareness, hatred can generate fear and a desire to blame. Hate and aggression warrant serious consideration in the therapeutic relationship. What is the function of the hate and aggression? Where does it take the therapeutic "couple"? What does the acting out of aggressive feelings come to mean? Why are these particular forms of expression valuable? How therapists understand and relate to aggressive feelings is critical in the clinical setting.

Countertransferential aggression is an accepted, sanctioned, and to some extent expected part of any analytic relational feeling therapy. However, it is a mistake to think that the therapist's ability to feel hatred alone is a therapeutic achievement. There are appropriate and productive ways of working with maladaptive aggression. Indifference, aggression, worry, and compulsive doubt may all be forms of hatred. Most therapists will, at one time or another, find ourselves in the midst of a hostile and hateful terrain; we must be familiar this terrain, and

develop some ease for when we are there. My own work with Lucy in the following clinical material touches on how both loving and hateful feelings may express themselves in the therapeutic relationship.

Lucy

My new patient was a hooker. She spit this out right after my conventional introduction of "Hello, I am Chris Peterson. Please come in." There it was, right up front, as if Lucy needed to get past this, to deal with whatever she might have expected my reaction to be, and to move on.

This was the third time a sex-worker had found her way to my consulting room. I felt an immediate liking for Lucy. She was 30, beautiful in a Bohemian way, and sported multiple piercings of her ears, eyebrows, and nose. Her face looked younger than her years, her eyes sparkled, and she practically bounced with energy. Before long, she talked about the men she serviced. Like other female patients who preceded and followed her, Lucy was dealing with a past that included abuse, abandonment, and conflicted relationships. All such patients struggle with their own histories, which could include an abusive parent or parents, a competitive relationship with their mothers, and/or leaving home at an early age to escape further pain or degradation. These women want to be loved and to be healed, but often are "looking for love in all the wrong places." Growing up in an emotionally volatile and abusive family, Lucy had little experience with feeling loved and nurtured. Love came to her through pain, abuse, and incestuous boundary violations.

I focused intensely on her stories, trying to understand her perceptions of herself and her fear of and longing for relationships to others and the greater whole of life. Lucy seemed to have a sense of engagement with me; it seemed that she was open when we were in session, but for many months there was little carry-over from one session to the next. She struggled with exposing herself and being vulnerable, and so did I. In time, Lucy and I were able to create a more meaningful and intimate connection based on mutual trust and love, but the journey toward that union was not a smooth one.

I often found myself frustrated—sometimes even to the point of exasperation—with what seemed like a snail's pace of progress with Lucy. The stagnation and endless repetition of highly predictable and ritualized patterns in each session were difficult for me to tolerate. Lucy's expression of feelings and her interpersonal interactions, enacted both in her sessions with me and in her daily life outside the consulting room, were markedly limited and ritualized. I felt my attempts to connect with Lucy in a loving way were effectively blocked by her, and I was aware of how I began distancing.

However, after many months of treatment I grew more optimistic and heartened by the growing depth and overall sense of warmth and engagement that began to evolve in many of our sessions. It occurred to me that a lowering of my own distancing defenses, and my heightened awareness and sensitivity with regard to how these functions served Lucy, helped me to do a better job of helping her modulate her responses—responses that in many instances recapitulated her early childhood traumatic experiences and painful affects. Early in treatment she knew no

other way to respond to invitations of what she thought was intimacy—she knew no other way to survive. Yet gradually she developed an awareness of the sources of her difficulty in maintaining relationships.

These obstacles to relationship intimacy had begun during her earliest childhood, followed her through her grade school years, and continued into adulthood; consciously she did not recognize the empty and often self-degrading aspects of her encounters with others. Lucy had been a prostitute for close to fifteen years, having started at the age of 15 in a desperate attempt to survive in a very primary way. With few exceptions, her experiences of sexual intimacy were comprised of her being penetrated in a very concrete and often abusive manner. Sexual vulnerability and human dependency carried risk for Lucy and challenged her sense of her capacity to survive.

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The American Male and Female 35 Years Later: Bem Sex Role Inventory Revisited

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Abstract

This study reassessed the profiles of traits associated with stereotypic males and females in 2009-2010, 35 years after the Bem (1974) Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was introduced. Qualitative changes could have resulted from other cultural trends toward occupational and educational equality or growing public awareness of the nature of gender roles themselves. The adjectives appearing in the BSRI, which produces a measure of androgyny, were rated as stereotypically male, female, or neutral by 1075 undergraduates. Chi-square tests, which assigned adjectives to genders, indicated that most of the traits formerly associated with males were now considered neutral. The characteristic "childlike," which formerly characterized women, now characterizes men. The female's stereotype was mostly unchanged, although "theatrical" appears to be added to their repertoire. There was little disagreement between the genders on the assignment of adjectives to stereotypes. Implications for the identity of American males are discussed.

Keywords: androgyny, gender role, male stereotype, female stereotype

Introduction

Bem (1974, 1975) introduced the concept of the androgynous personality as a contrast to the prevailing idea that masculinity and femininity were polar opposites. An androgynous personality, in contrast, exhibits many of the characteristics of both stereotypic males and females. Its opposite, the undifferentiated personality, does not exhibit many of either. In principle, androgynous personalities are not confined to activities, interests, and occupations that are consistent with gender stereotypes (Orlofsky, Cohen, & Ramsden, 1985), and could

potentially live more rewarding lives (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Green & Kendrick, 1994; Lombardo & Kemper, 1992; Major, Carnevale, & Deaux, 1981; Markstrom-Adams, 1989; O'Heron & Orlofsky, 1990; Williams & D'Alessandro, 1994) although there was some disagreement on this point (Marsh & Byrne, 1991; Whitley, 1983; Woodhill & Samuels, 2004).

There have been some significant transitions in Western society over the past 35 years regarding the nature of male and female stereotypes, however. The objective of the present study, therefore, was to revisit the traits that initially comprised the stereotypes as Bem (1974, 1975) had identified them and reconsider whether they contribute to notions of male and female stereotypes as young adults see them today. Although others have asked whether Bem's list of characteristics really comprises the stereotypes and produce reliable measurements of the constructs (Ballard-Reisch & Elton, 1992; Hoffman & Borders, 2001), another decade has passed, and the psychological issue is not whether the traits really measure today's stereotypes, but whether the stereotypes that were once known to be socially controversial still exist at all. The answer to this question will be informative as to whether the androgyny concept as a personality theory construct is still viable. The exposition that follows evaluates trends in the adoption of stereotypes and trends in the changing content of male stereotypes specifically.

Stereotype Adoption

The traditional masculine stereotype is tough, strong, and independent, whereas the feminine stereotype is weak, fragile, and vulnerable (Gough & Peace, 2000, p. 386). The androgynous personality and the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) that measures it were conceptualized during a historical epoch characterized by widespread concern about gender stereotypes and their negative impact on women. Many of society's norms, particularly for employment and expectations for raising children, changed as a result. Not surprisingly a round of research questions was posed to examine whether and how people had changed. To some extent people become more androgynous as they get older, but the crossover is tempered by the historical epoch during which they formed their initial gender roles (Strough, Leszczynski, Neely, Flinn, & Margrett, 2007). If one were to consider just young adults, self reports of masculine traits increased for both males and females during the twenty years since Bem's original study, but there was no indication that self-report of feminine traits had changed (Twenge, 1997). In a two-generation study, Guastello and Guastello (2003) reported that college-age young adults were more likely to exhibit androgynous characteristics if their parents did also. In the same sample, interest and activity patterns for young men were becoming more androgynous, but young women were becoming more stereotypically male (relative to the 1970s definition).

According to Woodhill and Samuels (2004), the research results were actually mixed as to whether androgynous personalities were better off in any meaningful way. They identified part of the problem as being associated with the two stereotypes having both positive (socially desirable) and negative attributes; one may be androgynous in all the wrong ways. Another part of the problem is that society at the turn of the century had sounded the death knell for the stereotypic male. "The old framework, however, has not yet been replaced by an unambiguous, socially sanctioned, alternative notion of what it is to be male…" and that there is "an apparent confusion of identity for modern men" (p. 19). The next section of this paper elaborates on some

more specific features of the male stereotype that have been transitioning according to gender theorists, and which plausibly led to the "death knell" that Woodhill and Samuels described.

Content of Male Stereotypes

According to Connell (1995) there are several types of expressions of *hegemonic* masculinity, most of which serve the purpose of establishing a dominance hierarchy that feminists found offensive. The common stereotypes were the warriors, the athletes, those who do physically demanding jobs, and the breadwinner, which are espoused to varying extents by individuals. Developing skills is an accepted means of enhancing one's long-term employability beyond that of a laborer and for moving up the hierarchy. In the Don Juan stereotype, masculinity is expressed through the sexual exploitation of women or other treatments of women as sex objects.

The "average guy," according to Wetherell and Edley (1999), typically does not identify with the extreme icons of masculinity, which he regards as absurd. More conventional levels of athletic behavior and risk tasking are closer to the norm, as are the competent technician or the executive who is "in control" of things. Others are willing to acknowledge some elements of gender non-conventionality in interest patterns or apparel preferences, such as when men's jewelry proliferated in the 1970s.

Connell (1995) extracted several themes from men's discourse that explain their masculine proclivities. The biological explanation emphasizes physical differences between men and women, their evolutionary purpose and what might seem to be reasonable divisions of labor as a result. The psychoanalytic explanation, which was rooted in Freud's Oedipal complex where boys identify with men and no longer identify with their mothers; they maintain a psychological distance between masculine and feminine expressions, often with the support and encouragement from other men in their environment. Hence we have plausible origins for the marginalization of homosexuals and effeminate males.

There were other psychoanalytic writers who also contributed to the distancing interpretation of the male psyche, where emotional flooding and feelings of vulnerability are not permitted (Gough, 2004). Yet others (Guastello & Guastello, 2003) observed that Jung's (1959, 1960) theory of personality held that the personality contained a masculine component and a feminine component, known as the animus and anima respectively. For men, the animus is closely aligned with the outer personality, the persona, whereas the anima is more closely aligned with the hidden portion of the personality, the shadow. The relationship was inverted for women; the anima is aligned with the persona, and the animus was aligned with the shadow. Better-integrated personalities, however, allowed the expression of both the anima and animus, hence the concept of androgyny.

The gender roles explanation captures the arbitrary nature of many if not most divisions of interests and employment patterns between males and females. The problem with gender role explanations, according to Connell (1995), is that they rely on definitions of masculinity and femininity that invoke singular concordances between work roles, education, and social expectations. Although social trends might have loosened some restrictions, role concepts still

resulted in unfair treatment of women and marginalized male groups; unfairness is bolstered by authoritarian personalities.

The fourth explanation arises in the themes of political feminism that seeks to change societies in a new direction (Connell, 1995). Feminism brought political rights, equal employment and equal educational opportunities for women. To do so required the support of men, which it received. This is not to imply that *economic* gender equality has been achieved; that is a complex problem that expands beyond the personality issues of concern here. The standing problem for men, nonetheless, is that men who verbally support feminist thinking in conversations, (e.g., university class discussions), found that they are shunned by the females. Men who support feminism are often regarded with suspicion, as if anything males might try to contribute to the conversation is somehow wrong or an attempt to manipulate the situation back to the hegemonic state (Holmgren & Hearn, 2009). Thus "biting one's tongue" has become an effective strategy for some men, even in the company of other men whose views about women's issues are not yet known (Gough, 2001).

In other narratives, some men regard themselves as victims of feminism (Gough & Peace, 2000). Men have been chided for treating women as sex objects, yet men have noticed growing numbers of advertisements where men are treated as sex objects too. Expressions of masculinity are censured, but effeminate alternative masculinities are not socially acceptable, particularly to other men. The social role conflicts are stressful as the men in their study experienced greater responsibilities assigned to them, and additional health risks as a result. Any objections they might express about their circumstances are regarded by feminists as "constructions" to preserve gender inequality.

Hypothesis

In light of the ongoing entropy in the composition of gender stereotypes, the present study investigated whether the traits that were once associated with stereotypic males and females are still regarded in the same way and to what extent. In particular, the trends reported by previous researchers strongly indicated that some erstwhile male characteristics would be shared by both genders, and the males would not have acquired any specific new characteristics. The results of the analysis could possibly warrant a renorming of the SBRI or new types of investigations of stereotypes altogether.

Method

Participants

Participants were 1075 undergraduates from two US Midwestern universities who were enrolled in psychology courses and volunteered for psychological research; 504 were male and 571 were female. The sample was 89% White, 4% Hispanic, 3% African-American, 3% Asian, and 1% Other. The region of the country is known to be relatively slow to uptake cultural changes compared to the coastal regions. Data were collected in 2009-2010.

Procedure

Participants were contacted in class and offered extra credit points for their participation, and were reminded that alternative opportunities for extra credit existed if they chose not to

participate. They were handed a consent form and the data collection form that listed the 60 adjectives from the BSRI (Bem, 1974, p. 156). They were instructed to classify each item as typically male, typically female, or not gender-specific. The participants also reported their sex and ethnicity. The total participation time required not more than 15 minutes.

Results

Table 1 shows the primary results for the classification of adjectives. All frequencies were found to deviate from equal thirds by χ^2 tests, which were significant at $p < .001$ for all adjectives. Column 1 of Table 1 lists the original position of the item in the BSRI preceded by whether the item was originally classified as male, female or neutral. The most frequently assigned category based on the present sample is underlined. There was one genuine tie where exactly the same number of people classified "helpful" as neutral (its original category) or female.

For the female items, 16 out of the original 20 were still classified as typically female, based on the most frequently assigned category. Three items – loyal, shy, and yielding – were reclassified as gender neutral. The last previously female characteristic, childlike, has been reclassified as stereotypically male.

For the male items, only 9 of the original 20 were still classified as typically male. The other 11 items were recategorized as neutral: acts as a leader, ambitious, analytical, defends beliefs, displays leadership ability, independent, individualistic, strong personality, takes a stand. The current rendition of a stereotypic male is aggressive, assertive, athletic, competitive, dominant, forceful, makes decisions easily, masculine, risk-taking, and childlike.

For the neutral items, 15 out of the original 20 were still classified as neutral. The remaining five items – conscientious, moody, secretive, sincere, and theatrical – were recategorized as stereotypically female.

The last column of Table 1 shows χ^2 tests for gender differences in the distribution of categorizations. There were nine significant differences, although three of them could have occurred by chance. The nine pairs of distributions are compared in Table 2. In only two cases did males and females assign a trait to a different category. Women classified "conceited" as a male characteristic, but men classified it as neutral. Women classified "helpful" as a female characteristic, but men classified it too as neutral.

Does Emotional Intelligence Impact an Adolescent Recovery Program?

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Abstract

Adolescents in a substance recovery high school treatment program were found to relapse at a rate of 80% after returning to high school. This study looked for factors that may be related to this relapse such as emotional intelligence (EI), attachment, relationship skill, and parental factors including the degree of parental protectiveness and parental spirituality. Results indicated that emotional intelligence is significantly related to an adolescent's ability to develop a healthy positive internal self and may indicate that students who were less able to use emotions to impact their thinking were unable to harness their emotions for problem-solving as shown by increase in relapse rates. Discussion suggests that the addition of training in EI during the treatment program may therefore help reduce relapse rates.

Keywords: adolescent recovery, emotional intelligence, attachment, parental factors

Myriads of treatment programs for adolescents exist using a variety of modalities for recovery. Although outcomes vary, several commonalities have been found in adolescent substance abuse populations. Attachment issues, social and emotional skill deficits, negative perceptions of others, and poor interpersonal relationships are all typical issues that must be addressed for successful recovery. Prior research has suggested that anxiously attached adolescents tend to over-report problems and their pre-occupation may be a hyperactivation of the attachment system in the teen version of a cry of distress (Allen, 2008). They may be over-reporting symptoms but their parents tend to ignore or disbelieve them which often lead to externalizing behavioral symptoms (drugs, sexual activity, illegal activities…). Teens who internalize problems are more prone to depression and suicidal ideation and have more passive and enmeshed mothers (Allen, Moore, Kupermine, & Bell, 1998).The dismissive/avoidantly attached adolescents tend to have poor communication skills, are easily led by peers, do not seek emotional support and have higher risk of substance abuse and conduct disorders (Allen, Porter, McFarland, McElhaney, & Marsh, P.A., 2007).

Hope Academy is a substance recovery high school at Fairbanks Treatment Center in Indianapolis, Indiana. According to Hope Academy's research, statistically about 80% of students relapse from recovery upon returning to high school after treatment. Hope Academy offers an accredited high school curriculum coupled to a recovery program with additional targeted therapeutic and supportive services. If the teachers, staff, and therapists were aware of each student's strengths and weaknesses in regards to emotional intelligence and attachment, more targeted recovery coaching and therapeutic interventions could be designed to optimize

student sobriety and school success. For the current research study, the MSCEIT and attachment measures were added to the standard assessment package at Hope Academy, so that the resulting deficits could be directly implemented into recovery goals and social skills training as a measureable part of the recovery support program. The relationship between the attachment measures (PBI and ECR-R), the MSCEIT and the measures of spirituality (LCGS/PSQ) will be correlated. Scores from the students' Developmental Asset Profile (DAP) will also be correlated with each measure.

Our current research investigates the role of emotional intelligence, attachment and spirituality in Hope Academy's adolescent recovery program. Long-term predictions are that students who make gains in total emotional intelligence scores after treatment (pre-test-treatment-post-test) will have significantly longer periods of sobriety and greater gains in academic success than those who do not. Recovery interventions include an educational component on emotional intelligence, re-working a student's internal working model in counseling, dealing with insecure attachment issues, and integrating their current assets to move toward these emotional health goals. For this study, we will be examining the relationship between the clients' presenting problem (drug use), their developmental assets and how those areas relate to attachment, EI and spirituality.

Method

Participants and Procedure

There were 49 students of Hope Academy in this study. Each student completed all the measures upon intake to the school. The age of respondents ranged from 12-20 years (M = 17.49, SD = 1.15). The gender breakdown was 31 males and 18 females. All were single. Ethnicity was 44 Caucasian, 4 African-American and 1 Asian. The age range of first drug use

was 7-16 years (M = 13.05, SD = 1.66). Mean years of drug use was 4.45 (SD = 1.66) and most frequent drug of choice was marijuana. 30 of the 49 students were raised by both parents, 7 by the biological mother, 2 by the biological father, 2 by grandmother, 1 by biological father/ step-mother, and the remaining 7 did not report. During the study, 8 students graduated from the program and 3 were expelled. 11 students relapsed once and 21 had multiple relapses.

Materials

Six instruments were used in the data collection for this study: Parental Bonding Instrument (Parker, Tupling, & Brown, 1979), Parent Spirituality Scale (McDonald, Beck, Allison, & Nosworthy, 2005), Loving Controlling God Scale (Benson & Spilka, 1973), The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000), the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000), and the Developmental Asset Profile (Search-Institute, 2008). Each of these instruments is briefly described below.

Parental Bonding Instrument. The Parental bonding Instrument (PBI) was used to determine the student's perceived relationship with their parents (Black Dog Institute, 2008). The PBI was developed by Parker, Tupling, and Brown (1979) to measure the "bond" between parent and child by the retrospective perceptions of the adult child (our subject). The test is conducted through a paper and pencil self-report, a 25 item measure that separately evaluates attitudes and behaviors of both mother and father. The PBI was based on research findings (Roe & Seligman, 1963; Schaefer, 1965; Parker, 1990, 1992) that suggested interpersonal behavior had two underlying components: "affection-hostility" and "dominance-submission" (Parker, 1983). The PBI has both a "Care" and a "Control/Overprotection" scale. The Care scale involves perceived experiences of parental warmth, empathy, affection, and closeness or emotional coldness,

indifference and neglect. The Control scale measures memories of control, intrusion, prevention of autonomy, overprotection or independence and autonomy. Using a 4-point scale, students rate each parent on how they believe the item accurately corresponds to their memories of that parent during their first 16 years.

Parent Spirituality Scale. Similarly, the Parent Spirituality Scale is a retrospective look at both mother and father's spirituality during a child's developmental years. It is a brief, 7 item scale that assesses parental spirituality and parental hypocrisy in parallel maternal and paternal forms. "Spirituality" examines the closeness of relationship with God and the desire to grow in that relationship. It evaluates how a parent's life was centered on the spiritual, sacred quality of character. "Hypocrisy" measures how the parent's behavior was inconsistent with his/her stated beliefs. How well did they "practice what they preached", or did they pretend to be what they were not (McDonald et al., 2005)?

Loving Controlling God Scale (LCGS). To measure the student's current (adolescent) view of God, the Loving-Controlling God Scale (LCGS) was used. The LCGS is a brief scale developed to measure loving and controlling God images (Benson & Spilka, 1973). The respondent is asked to evaluate 10 pairs of words and rate them on a Likert scale from 0-6. To obtain the Loving God score, scores on five pairs of adjectives were added together. These are rejecting-accepting, loving-hating, damning-saving, unforgiving-forgiving, and approving-disapproving. The Controlling God index includes summing the scores on the remaining adjective pairs: demanding-not demanding, freeing-restricting, controlling-non-controlling, strict-lenient, and permissive-rigid. The maximum score on both scales is 30.

low avoidance and thus healthier relationships. A recent longitudinal study evaluated 78 individual's relationships from infancy through their mid-20's. They evaluated their infant attachment and then assessed their relationships, social skills and emotions in childhood, early elementary school, adolescence and adulthood. They found that both the experiences and

Bullying in the Counselors' Working Environment: A Texas Wide Survey of Counselors

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Abstract

As a relatively new concept in the counseling profession, social justice is called the fourth force in counseling. Though it can be defined many different ways, most counselors will agree that social justice, in general, is a means for counselors to identify ways to help a client on the societal level. As people spend so much time in the working environment, the treatment they receive there is an important part of their lives. Mistreatment or bullying in the working environment can cause an array of problems for the victims, which can manifest in ways such as loss of production and emotional distress in employees. An important part of being successful in the helping professions is self-care. If the counselors are being mistreated in their own environment this will affect the treatment they are offering their clients. This study was conducted in order to investigate counselors' experiences of bullying in the working environment. The questions asked give indications of the type and level of bullying counselors experience and how they cope when being bullied by coworkers.

Keywords: social justice, bullying, counselors, self-care

Defining Social Justice

Social justice is the fairness associated with equal treatment of people from all societies regardless of race, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation or mental disability. Social justice focuses on giving all people equal rights and opposes discrimination (Lee & Hipolito-Delgado, 2006). The act of advocating for those who are disadvantaged or have less power than the general population is also part of social justice (Hays & Erford, 2010). Although definitions of social justice may differ from person to person, most people agree that others are to be treated with kindness, fairness, and empathy (Hatfield & Rapson, 2005). According to Toporek and Vaughn (2010), the foundation of social justice is equity. It is the belief that all people, from all walks of life, deserve fairness and equity (Chang, Hays, & Milliken, 2009).

History of Social Justice Studies

Most people believe that all human deserve to be treated with kindness. However, the way in which people perceive and define social justice can dramatically alter their views of others and their own actions. In addition, the impact of authority and peer pressure, as well as one's own emotions, can have an impact on a person's view of social justice. By examining infamous studies, Hatfield and Rapson (2005) demonstrate that a person's definition of social justice can be dramatically altered in certain situations.

The presence of an authority figure or pressure from peers can have an impact on how a person defines social justice and how that person treats others. Two studies which bring relevance to this point are Stanley Milgrim's famous shock experiment and the Stanford Prison Experiment. Milgrim's study demonstrates that in the presence of authority figures, people will let go of their views of social justice and give in to what the authority figure is demanding. The subjects in the study, who continued to administer dangerous electric shocks to a stranger despite their serious apprehension, demonstrated this concept. Although the subjects openly displayed their discomfort in administering the dangerous shocks, they continued to do so when the researcher instructed them to (Hatfield & Rapson, 2005). These studies implied that when bullies hold higher hierarchy position in an organization or a group, they can influence other members to impose additional harm on the victims.

In addition to the power that authority figures and peers have over a person's concept of social justice, Hatfield & Rapson (2005) point out that an individual's emotions have a large impact on the view of the relevance of social justice as well. Historical events, such as the Holocaust or the September 11th attack on the World Trade Centers spark anger and discriminatory hatred in many people. During the Holocaust, millions of Jewish people were murdered mercilessly out of a general hatred for the Jewish community. A countless number of people were involved in the mistreatment of the Jewish people, giving no thought to the concept of social justice. In addition, the September 11th terrorist attack caused an increase in discrimination and hatred toward people who practice the Islamic faith or appear to be of Middle-Eastern descent. Those who discriminate against these people are not concerned with social justice because they are filled with an overwhelming hatred. There is "considerable evidence that angry and hate-filled people are likely to abandon concerns with social justice,

fairness, and kindness and to vent their feelings on those they dislike or those different from themselves" (Hatfield & Rapson, 2005, p. 174).

Social Justice in the Field of Counseling

Counselors have always advocated for their clients in different ways, whether a career counselor advocating for equitable representation of all races in the workplace, or family counselors advocating against child and spousal abuse. However, only recently has social justice become a solidified part of the counseling profession (Toporek, Lewis & Crethar, 2009).

According to Toporek, Lewis, and Crethar (2009), in the past, counselors interested in social justice would meet together in attempts to spark an interest in social justice among their profession, to come up with new ways to advocate for their clients, and to provide support for one another. Counselors for Social Justice (CSJ) was created as a division of The American Counseling Association (ACA) at one of these meetings. The creation of this division of ACA provides counselors with a place to develop and share ideas and information regarding social justice in their profession. By establishing CSJ as a division of APA, the importance of social justice in the counseling profession is publically recognized. However, in spite of the obvious benefit of advocating for social justice for clients, some counselors are reluctant to take a stand due to the possible cost. Counselors actively advocating for social justice for their clients are at an increased risk for burnout and harassment from their peers who disagree with what is being fought for (Chang, Hays & Milliken, 2009).

Shortly after the establishment of CSJ as a division of ACA, Jane Goodman, a former president of ACA, selected a Task Force to create Advocacy Competencies for counselors that would guide them in advocating for social justice. The Advocacy Competencies were approved by the ACA in 2003. The competencies assist counselors in recognizing the impact of social and cultural factors on their clients, and guide them in advocating with and for their clients (Toporek, Lewis & Crethar, 2009).

Social justice, for counselors, entails fighting against the discrimination and oppression of their clients, and fighting for equitable treatment regardless of race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, mental disability, or gender (Lee & Hipolito-Delgado, 2006). In addition to incorporating social justice into the field of counseling, Toporek and Vaughn (2010) suggest that it be incorporated into the training and supervision of counselors. It is important for counselors-in-training to understand the oppression and social injustices faced by people as a result of their culture, race, gender, mental disability, or sexual orientation (Toporek & Vaughn, 2010).

There is a relationship between mental illness and oppression. According to Chang, Hays, and Milliken (2009), discrimination is based on a person's race, culture, gender, and sexual orientation; research shows that people in these groups are at a higher risk of mental illness. Due to this fact, there has become an increased awareness of the importance of social justice in the counseling profession. The experience of oppression has serious consequences in the lives of the oppressed, including psychological trauma. As a result, counseling supervisors are adding a social justice element in their supervision and training of future counselors.

According to Chang, Hays and Milliken (2009), supervisors have the responsibility to teach future counselors to be advocates for their clients using a three-tiered model. The first tier

is self-awareness. It is important for the counselor to be aware of the prejudices and biases that they may hold in order to be sensitive and understanding of the client's cultural and social needs. Self-awareness will aid in the development and growth of the counselor so that they can advocate for their clients. The second tier, client services, suggests that supervisors teach future counselors the ways in which certain social classes can impact the lives of their clients. The third tier is community collaboration. This means that it is not only important for future counselors to understand the relationship between mental illness and oppression, but for the general community to understand and acknowledge it as well. This tier expands the role of the counselor from advocating for their client to advocating for the counseling profession in general.

Social justice is fighting for equality within a culture. In a counseling setting, advocacy means using a societal view to create change for those treated with injustice or inequality. Advocacy in the counseling profession is an interplay between the needs of the client and environment in which the client lives (Stewart, Gibson Semivan, & Schwartz, 2009). The counselor's advocacy role grew out of the realization that counselors are treating for the negative feelings which come out of being oppressed as a member of a group which is not valued by society at large (Comstock et al., 2008).

Social Justice and the Workplace

As social injustice refers to society at large and advocacy refers to the society as it relates to a client, *rankism* refers to exploitation in the workplace. In his 2003 book, *Sombodies and Nobodies*, Robert Fuller first coins the term. Rank is an important way for management to enforce the rules and desires of a company in the workplace. It is used as a means of differentiating between levels of authority and responsibility in a company. However, when a person with rank, earned or unearned, uses the position to mistreat others it can create animosity among other associates (Ingram, 2006). Fuller defines rankism as "classism in the workplace" (as cited in Ingram, 2006). Rankism is a phenomenon which comes directly from inequity, albeit acknowledged inequity, in the workplace. Fuller writes that the negative consequences of rankism can be organizational and personal. The individual who does not feel valued by the supervisor may not be performing at best because of low self-esteem, or in an attempt to purposefully undermine the organization. The rankism experienced at work may also cause an individual to take out frustrations in personal relationships (as cited in Ingram, 2006).

In addition to rankism, bullying in the workplace can be the cause of a person's distress. A bully is defined as "a person habitually cruel to others who are weaker" (Merriam-Webster, 2005, p. 64). For children and adolescents, bullying in a school setting can take place in different ways. Bauman and Del Rio (2006) conducted research investigating the perceived damage of overt bullying and indirect or relational bullying. Indirect, bullying through ostracization or manipulation, was found in this study to be perceived as less harmful. However, Sharp (1995) found this to be the kind of bullying which had the most long-term consequences. Adult depression and suicide are among the consequences of having been bullied as a child (Elledge et al., 2010).

In a 2010 study, Elledge et al. examined strategies for coping with bullying for boys and girls in a middle school setting. They found that the successful coping strategies differ by sex, and that strategies for children not usually bullied do not work for children who are chronically bullied (Elledge et al., 2010). The differences in successes between a person who is chronically

bullied and one who is not, suggest that children who are chronically bullied have fewer strategies to prevent or circumvent the bullies' behavior. As these findings show that the victims of bullying seem to be unable to avoid being victims. Pepler (2006) recommends looking at a wider cultural cause for the behavior. This is important because the chronic bulling can result in a host of negative effects for the victim as stated above.

Adults can also be subject to bullying while working. Workplace bullying is "the persistent exposure to interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from colleagues, superiors or subordinates" (Einarsen, Hoel, & Natelears, 2009, p. 24). According to Bray (as cited in Longo, 2010), bullying involves the repeated occurrence of harassment between an individual in a position of power over a subordinate. Harvey, Heames, Richey, and Leonard (2006) describe six reasons for which bullying is still a strategy for some people in the workplace. They write that bullies lack the necessary proficiency to succeed in the modern workplace because of new dynamics in the workplace; an accelerated change in working environments, for example technological changes and more internationalism; increased time pressures; diversity in the workplace; downsizing in organizations, causing a survival mentality and reduction in direct supervisors; and badly defined boundaries which go unchecked because of lack of attention and funding. The diversity in particular, Harvey et al. (2006) write, has heightened tension and caused an increase in power struggle among minority groups. Ford (2009) suggests that disruptive behavior in the workplace is caused by differing opinions on how needs should be met which leads to tension and aggression. In addition to interpersonal problems, high workload, lack of control over tasks, and minimal worker rewards contribute to the creation of an unhealthy work environment (MacDermid et al., 2008).

There are three aspects of a situation that can contribute to bullying in the workplace, which are the environment, the victim and the bully (Harvey et al. 2009). Environmental factors that contribute to bullying include bad leadership, which cannot identify or manage bullying behavior, bad physical workplaces, which include people working in secluded areas, managers' lack of skills to or desire for intervention, and a culture of low employee morale as bullying becomes part of the culture. Harvey et al. (2009) also write about the characteristics of the victim of the behavior, namely that the victim can either seem too passive or be a rival or threat to the bully.

Need for a Healthy Work Environment

For many Americans, the majority of the day is spent at the workplace, and the quality of the work environment impacts employees. Healthy workplaces are recognized as contributing to individual quality of life as well as public health (MacDermid et al., 2008). In a healthy work environment employees feel valued and productive (Bowes, 2008). According to the National Quality Institute and Health Canada, "a healthy organization is productive, effective, experiences high morale, high employee engagement and a healthy bottom line" (Bowes, 2008, p.15). Healthier workplaces usually create happier and more productive employees, whereas unhealthy workplaces can lead to stress and decreased job satisfaction (MacDermid et al., 2008).

Unhealthy work environments are created when issues such as employee relationships, bullying, work pace, break time, physical demands, and violence are not properly handled. According to the Joint Commission (2008), disruptive behavior in the health care workplace can include overt and covert actions that threaten the performance of the team. The most common

form of disruptive behavior in the workplace is emotional, such as verbal abuse, bullying, and lateral violence (Longo, 2010). Longo and Sherman (2007) define lateral violence as associated with aggression and negativity and is usually seen between coworkers on the same level.

Regardless of the causes, the effects of a negative work environment are visible in both the physical and mental health of employees. According to Barling, Loughlin, and Kelloway (2002), job strain has been linked to overall health. According to the Demand Control Model (DCS), high psychological demands, lack of control over tasks, and a perceived lack of social support made workers more susceptible to physical and mental problems (MacDermid et al., 2008). Lowe, Schellenberg, and Shannon (2003) found that employee perception of workplace health predicts job satisfaction, commitment, attendance, and pursuit of alternate occupations. If

Attitudes Towards Poverty Revisited

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Abstract

Attitudes toward the poor can range from blaming an individual for his or her poverty to blaming the system (i.e., the economic and political milieu). Prior research has shown that attitudes toward the poor in the United States tend to be negative, meaning Americans typically believe that persons who are in poverty are responsible for putting themselves in that situation. The general hypotheses in this study predict that age and gender affect a person's attitudes toward people in poverty. The poverty scale of this study is drawn from previous work, and the individual factors are used as the measurement instrument to assess individual sources of blame and differences in gender and age. Data from a survey at a large university in the Western United States is examined to assess the effects of gender and age on attitudes toward poverty. Confirmatory factor analysis provided support for a three-component model of poverty attitudes while structural equation modeling demonstrated that individual and corporate blame are independent of each other, but modulated by views on entitlements. Gender differences in views of entitlement then modify blame.

Keywords: poverty attitudes, structural equation modeling, gender

Historically, how have people in the United States viewed poverty? Initially people treated an individual's state or condition of poverty as his or her own fault or failure. This continued until the 1930s when the United States found itself in the midst of a worldwide depression where the free enterprise system of laissez-faire capitalism was inadequate (Patterson, 1982). Views of poverty are intrinsically intertwined with the evolution of our nation. Immigration, population growth, and the development of a complex social structure due to industrialization, civil rights, and issues related to women and minorities, bring many dimensions to understanding attitudes toward those in poverty.

President F. D. Roosevelt initiated a series of programs, after his election in 1932, to alleviate or ameliorate the worst conditions of individual poverty and to begin to address its root causes. Programs initiated under The New Deal put people to work and underwrote guarantees of living wages and conditions. More recently in 2002, Americans continued to favor increased government aid to the poor. At this same time, President Bush initiated his faith-based initiative that permits those organizations designed to aid the poor to dispense aid (Faith Based Initiative, n.d.); this was a move away from dealing with the structural causes of poverty and an apparent return to an individualistic attribution for poverty. The 2012 election campaign rhetoric further highlights the importance of poverty attitudes as a social issue. The stark contrast between Republican and Democratic candidates in views of social welfare entitlements underlies a difference in attitudes towards those in poverty.

Poverty, as defined in this study, is the state or condition of having little or no money, goods, or means of support and, therefore, the condition of being poor by the standard guidelines of the government and the culture. People are said to be living in poverty if their income and resources are so inadequate as to preclude them from having a standard of living considered acceptable in the society in which they live. Governmental standards of poverty are typically based on a specific threshold that can be income based or consumption based. The Department of Health and Human Services set the 2012 poverty guideline for a family of four at $23,050 (HHS, 2012). The U.S. Census Bureau utilizes a slightly different set of poverty thresholds (the Census thresholds present a more nuanced set of guidelines although the difference in absolute number is small) to determine the number and percent of people living in poverty. According to the Census Bureau, the official poverty rate in 2011 was 15.0%, which is a total of 46.2 million people in poverty in the United States (DeNavas-Walt, Proctor, and Smith, 2012).

Poverty Attitudes

Feagin (1972a) examined the scope of America's attitudes toward the poor, and specifically toward welfare programs by studying the stereotypical character of such attitudes and their reasons for being (Feagin 1972a). Feagin (1972b) assessed attitudes toward traditional welfare programs such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children and three newer (at-the-time) proposals: a guaranteed-job plan, a guaranteed-income plan, and an equal-income plan. The results of the opinion survey (1972a) show that a majority of Americans in 1969 held poor people responsible for their poverty and were correspondingly reluctant to support new programs aimed at eradicating poverty. Caucasians over the age of 50 with more education were more

likely to blame the poor individual for his or her state, while ethnic minorities under the age of 30 with less education were more likely to blame societal structures for the plight of the poor (Feagin 1972a).

Whether Americans tend to blame the individual or society for poverty is of significance due to the strong relation between such attitudes and the likelihood of an individual to support or not support welfare and other structurally based aid programs aimed at combating poverty. Those who blame society are generally inclined to support these programs, while those who blame the individual are generally inclined not to support these programs (Bullock 1999). Similar to the findings in the Bullock study, Wagstaff (1983) also found that individuals with a more conservative political orientation tend to make more dispositional attributions in accounting for poverty, and generally possess more negative attitudes toward the poor than those who are less conservative.

It stands to reason that if the poor themselves are not to blame, then by logical extension they are innocents stuck in an unjust situation that should be remedied by the well intentioned. If society is to blame, then the defective society should be corrected by the well intentioned in such a manner as to ensure a more level playing field. Those who blame poor people for their own situation naturally feel far less inclined to have their tax money put to use helping those who they believe to have sealed their own fate through negative characteristics and/or through freely made negative decisions.

The Feagin Poverty Scale, created by Feagin in 1972, conceptualizes three exploratory poverty indices as individualistic explanation (which places the responsibility for poverty primarily on the poor themselves), structural explanation (which blames poverty on external social and economic forces), and fatalistic explanations (which cite such factors as bad luck and illness as explanations for poverty). Much of the research on poverty attitudes has focused on individualistic versus structuralist explanations for poverty. Such research has typically found more support for individualistic views of poverty among Americans (Feagin, 1975; Kluegel and Smith, 1986). Kluegel and Smith (1986) further demonstrate that high status individuals favor individualistic explanations while low status individuals will use structuralist explanations ("but not necessarily with greatly diminished support for individualism") (1986, p.93). Thus, individual background and status plays a role in determining people's attitudes towards poverty.

Demographic Indicators of Attitudes toward Poverty

One background characteristic related to status is age. Feagin (1972) found that those who were over 50 were more likely to make individualistic attributions for poverty than those in youth and early middle age (who were more likely to make external attributions for poverty). However, the research does not suggest a motivating factor for these age-related attitudes, specifically whether these age-related attitudes are a result of generational cultural differences or a shift in views that generally corresponds with aging.

The lack of recent research on the impact of age on attitudes toward the poor and on attributions is a particularly striking absence. Determining whether the attitudes common among the elderly are a product of generational influences or of age itself will be an important element for predicting future changes in attitudes toward the poor.

Another demographic characteristic related to status that may have an impact on personal attitudes towards poverty is gender. Previous research has often overlooked gender as a determinant of attitudes toward the poor although some research has been conducted. While Hunt (1996) found women were more likely to support structuralist explanations for poverty than men, Kluegel and Smith (1986) and Cozzarelli, Tagler and Wilkinson (2002) found no significant difference in attitudes toward poverty based on the gender of those surveyed. However, those surveyed viewed the poor differently based on the gender of the poor individual, generally having more sympathy for poor women than for poor men (Cozzarelli, Tagler, and Wilkinson, 2002). While gender differences may possibly be noted in other types of attributions, few gender differences in attributions for poverty were noted. Due to the current dearth of research regarding gender as a factor in attitudes toward poverty and the conflicting findings when it is included, it is important to re-examine gender in current research, particularly as it connects to status-based explanations for poverty attitudes.

Research Questions

The review of the literature leads to several research questions for the current study. First, are poverty attitudes comprised of component factors that can be validated empirically? Once the component factors of poverty attitudes are identified, then the second question is how do demographic characteristics connected to status (age and gender) affect the components of poverty attitudes? Instead of looking at poverty attitudes as a single construct, this research will examine each of the components of poverty attitudes to explore how status affects those component beliefs. Thus, the theme of this paper is to revisit earlier work on attitudes towards poverty to better clarify differences in poverty attitudes.

Methods

To answer these research questions, this study utilizes survey data collected from students at a large university on the West Coast. The sample used for the analysis, the procedures for administering the survey, and the survey instrument are all described in greater detail below.

Sample

The sample size for this five-year compilation survey was 1,075 students enrolled in a lower division general education course titled Principles of Sociology. Respondents ranged in age from 13 to 52 years with an average age of 20.6 years. The gender breakdown of the sample was that 66% were women and 34% were men.

Procedure

Self-administered surveys of 17 questions related to the causes of poverty were distributed to college students. The survey was administered in classes over a five-year period through March, 2007. Students were informed that refusal to participate in the survey would not impact their grade and that their responses to the survey items would be confidential. The use of this data was reviewed and approved by the University Institutional Review Board.

Survey Instrument

To examine the component factors of poverty, questions were selected from two early studies. Attitudes about the attribution of poverty to the individual come from a scale used in the reports *God Helps Those Who Help Themselves* (Feagin, 1972b) and *America's Welfare Stereotypes* (Feagin 1972a). This scale was derived from 1,017 adult participants from all parts of the United States, randomly selected to represent a cross-section of demographic groups. Attitudes about the workplace as a cause of poverty and attitudes towards governmental entitlements were assessed using items selected from Schwartz and Robinson (1991). The Feagin Poverty Scale was also used to measure social work students' and non-social work students' perceptions of the causes of poverty (Sun, 2001) and has been used in other studies since its inception.

Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with 16 statements (the set of survey questions is available in Appendix A). One set of statements reflect attitudes discussed by Feagin (1972a) and these statements include: poverty only happens because people are too lazy to work; we should not concern ourselves about poor people; the Bible says we will always have them; poverty is natural; the government should not pay people not to work because it only encourages them to be lazy; welfare people have more children than other families in the United States; we shouldn't pay new undocumented immigrants welfare. These statements reflect attitudes toward poverty in terms of who is considered deserving of poverty assistance.

A second set of statements reflect attitudes discussed by Schwartz and Robinson (1991), and these include: one reason for poverty is the low wages paid by companies; one reason for poverty is that corporations do not treat employees as stakeholders; companies treat employees as the cheapest and most easily replaced part of their corporation.; it is hard to have employee loyalty to the company when companies treat them so badly; poverty is created by the greed of the 'owners of the means of production' according to Karl Marx.

Schwartz and Robinson (1991) also include a dimension of fundamental rights, or entitlements. These statements were: 'everyone should have the right to decent housing for themselves and their family; everyone should have the right to a job, which gives them a sense of worth and self-respect; everyone should have the right to free medical care; everyone should have the right to education to any level which they can achieve and everyone has the right to a complete and balanced diet.

For each statement, respondents were asked to rate their opinion on a six-point Likert-scale that ranges from SA (strongly agree) to SD (strongly disagree). Some items were reverse coded so that the high score of the respondent would reflect the attribution of blame.

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A factor analysis on the survey questions provided a starting point for a measurement model using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and also created uncorrelated dependent variables in

Desensitization and Skills Training for Test Anxiety

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Abstract

This study compared test anxiety levels of workshop participants with anxiety levels of a waitlist comparison group. Seventy-nine self-referred undergraduates were assigned to either a four-week test anxiety workshop or a waitlist group. Workshop sessions included psychoeducational and systematic desensitization components. Paired *t*- tests demonstrated more significant decreases in state anxiety and test anxiety for the treatment group than for the waitlist group, as hypothesized. However, trait anxiety dropped significantly in both the treatment and waitlist groups, but moreso for the treatment group. These data support a multimodal treatment model in the management of test anxiety.

Keywords: test anxiety, systematic desensitization, trait anxiety, state anxiety, multimodal treatment, undergraduates

Most undergraduate students have learned to manage test-related anxiety, so that it is expressed adaptively in test preparation and performance. However, some students' high anxiety levels have a disorganizing effect, impairing performance and leading to strong expectations of failing or underperforming. Debilitating test anxiety may be an issue for up to 20% of college students (Ergene, 2003). Ergene (2003) also noted that more data is needed to demonstrate the

value of interventions for test anxiety in controlled studies. Thus, interventions that include comparison groups need to address both cognitive and physiological dimensions of anxiety, reducing anxiety symptoms in relation to test-taking and building confidence in having strategies to manage anxiety.

A number of the early interventions for test-related anxiety focused on systematic desensitization. Systematic desensitization, with its focus on both physiological and cognitive facets of anxiety, has been shown to significantly reduce test anxiety (Ahgar, 2008; Gambles, 1995; Putwain, Connors, & Symes, 2010). Previous studies have shown that both state and trait anxiety contribute to test anxiety and that both can be decreased with desensitization techniques (Trent & Maxwell, 1980). While both respond to this intervention, trait anxiety has been shown to be more responsive to desensitization strategies than has state anxiety (Trent & Maxwell, 1980). Zettle (2003) also reported that systematic desensitization showed efficacy specifically in managing trait anxiety. This is of particular interest as Trent and Maxwell (1980) also noted that trait anxiety was more closely related to test anxiety than was state anxiety.

More recent studies have emphasized the cognitive component of test anxiety. Davis, DiStefano, & Schutz (2008) identified patterns of cognitive coping strategies for test anxiety among undergraduate students, including such dimensions as emotion regulation and problem solving. Ramirez & Beilock (2011) have had success in using expressive writing to prevent negative cognitions from interfering with working memory while taking a test, resulting in higher test scores. A lack of confidence has also been shown to increase test anxiety (Stoeber, Feast, & Hayward, 2009). Given the potential for both physiological symptoms and negative cognitions to impede performance in testing situations, an eclectic approach to treatment is necessary (Blankenstein, Flett, & Watson, 1992; Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 1996; Ramirez & Beilock, 2011).

Currently, most treatment programs incorporate anxiety management, but few include test preparation or test-taking skills as part of their intervention (van der Ploeg, Schwarzer, & Spielberger, 1984, Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 1996, Powell, 2004). Powell (2004) found that the combination of progressive muscle relaxation, brief systematic desensitization, and test-taking skills training reduced test anxiety among medical students taking national board examinations. Raffety, Smith, and Ptacek (1997) found that people with high trait anxiety had deficits in proactive test-taking and problem-solving coping skills and had lower examination scores. The added psychoeducational component, i.e. study skills and test-taking skills, incorporated in this study creates a unique and more complete approach to reducing test anxiety.

We hypothesize that a multimodal intervention that includes systematic desensitization and test-related skills training will decrease participants' cognitive and somatic symptoms of test anxiety. The findings of both Powell (2004) and Ahgar (2008) support this hypothesis. Additionally we hypothesize, based on the results of Trent and Maxwell (1980) and Zettle (2003), that both state and trait anxiety would be reduced by this intervention.

Method

Participants

Seventy-nine self-referred undergraduate students volunteered to participate. Their ages ranged from 18 to 51 with a mean age of 20. Twenty-six of these participants were initially on a four-week waitlist and then received treatment. The majority of participants were female

(92.00%). All participants were enrolled at the Midwestern university where the study was conducted.

Materials

All subjects completed informed consent forms and provided demographic data for age and gender as part of the pretest assessment. Two validated self-report measures were used in the study: Sarason's (1978) Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) and Spielberger's (1983) State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). Sarason's (1978) measure consists of 37 statements to which participants answer true/false such as, "I usually get depressed after taking a test." The TAS shows test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .55 to .78 and split-half reliability of .91 (Raju, Mesfin, & Alia, 2010). Raju et al. (2010) also reported the internal consistency reliability to be .84.

Speilberger's (1983) STAI is organized into two groups of 20 items each, with items 1-20 assessing state anxiety and 21-40 assessing trait anxiety. State anxiety is a response to a specific event, like taking a test or giving a speech. Trait anxiety is conceptualized as a stable, characterological predisposition to anxiety. A sample item for state anxiety would be, "I am tense" while a sample item for trait anxiety would be, "I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be." For all items participants rate the relevance for them on a scale of 1 (almost never) to 4 (almost always). Test-retest reliability of trait anxiety for college undergraduates, across 20 days, showed values ranging from .73 to .86, whereas test-retest reliability was lower for state anxiety (r = 16 to .54) (Speilberger, 1983). The author also reported alpha coefficients above .93 for both state and trait anxiety (Speilberger, 1983). The STAI has shown concurrent validity with the IPAT Anxiety Scale, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (TMAS), and the Zuckerman Affect Adjective Checklist (AACL) (Speilberger, 1983). Speilberger (1983) reported that factor analyses showed clear distinctions between state and trait anxiety, and also that the STAI is an appropriate measure for evaluating the outcome of therapeutic interventions.

Procedure

A paired pre-test/post-test design was used. Seven four-week workshops were offered across three academic years for students who self-referred for test anxiety problems. The 26 students initially in the waitlist condition were not randomly assigned: rather, assignment was based on scheduling conflicts. All 79 participants completed pre-/post self-report measures: Sarason's (1978) TAS and Speilberger's (1983) STAI. After completing posttest measures, all waitlist participants were invited to join a treatment workshop.

Weekly sessions ran approximately 75 minutes. The initial session focused on skills training in test preparation and introduced controlled breathing techniques. The second session included test taking strategies, reviewed breathing techniques, and added progressive muscle relaxation. The last two sessions incorporated information on parasympathetic response but emphasized use of cognitive techniques including systematic desensitization and cognitive rehearsal. Participants received handouts and homework assignments to practice their skills in managing physical and cognitive symptoms of anxiety.

Results

It was hypothesized that test anxiety, state anxiety, and trait anxiety scores would show more significant reductions in workshop participants compared to waitlist participants. These predictions were supported, although a smaller but significant reduction in trait anxiety in waitlist participants was also observed. A series of paired t-tests were conducted to analyze the

data. For workshop participants, reductions in test anxiety scores ($t = 8.370$) and trait anxiety scores ($t = 4.066$) were significant at $p < .0001$. State anxiety scores also dropped significantly ($t = 3.119$, $p < .003$; see Table 1).

For waitlist subjects, test anxiety actually showed a slight but nonsignificant increase during the four-week period ($t = 0.203$, $p < .840$), and state anxiety showed a similar slight but nonsignificant reduction ($t = 0.642$, $p < .527$). The significant reduction in trait anxiety scores within the waitlist group ($t = 3.000$, $p < .006$) was unexpected and inconsistent with the hypotheses (see Figure 1).

Discussion

The findings of this study supported the efficacy of a multimodal treatment approach for test anxiety. The combination of relaxation and cognitive-behavioral strategies to reduce anxiety was effective for trait and state anxiety as well. The reduction in symptoms for the treatment group was significant, whereas students on a waitlist showed only a significant change in trait anxiety, and that reduction was less than that of those students who had received treatment. The current findings strongly support a comprehensive approach to treat multiple manifestations of test anxiety (Blankestein, Flett, & Watson, 1992; Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 1996; Ramirez & Beilock, 2011).

Consistent with the hypotheses, test anxiety was significantly reduced only in treatment participants; however, contrary to hypotheses, trait anxiety dropped significantly for both treatment and waitlist participants. Conceptually test anxiety would likely be tied to state anxiety in that the anxiety symptoms are in response to a specific cue, i.e. the testing environment. Still, previous studies examining the relationship of test anxiety to state and trait anxiety have shown mixed results. DeVito and Kubis's (1983) study did not support Sarason's view of test anxiety as a form of trait anxiety; still other studies found that test-anxious students did in fact show tendencies for strong dispositional anxiety proneness (Kondo 1997; Speilberger &Vagg, 1995; Trent & Maxwell, 1980; Zettle, 2003). Trent and Maxwell (1980) and Spielberger and Vagg (1995) reported that trait anxiety scores changed more than state anxiety scores in test-anxious students. Possibly students practicing desensitization and relaxation techniques in diverse settings as part of their homework learned to generalize these skills to broader manifestations of trait anxiety (Zettle, 2003). But that still does not address the drop in trait anxiety scores in the waitlist participants. Perhaps the expectation of soon receiving treatment lowered the dispositional anxiety of students on the waitlist.

A major limitation of this study is that over 90% of the participants were Caucasian women: thus generalizations should be cautious. The implications of the findings also can only be generalized to undergraduate students; however, other studies have shown similar reductions in test anxiety with secondary school and graduate level students (Ahgar, 2008; Chapell, Blanding, Silverstein, Takahashi, Newman, Gubi, & McCann, 2005; Paul, Elam, & Verhulst, 2007; Powell, 2004). The other major limitation of this study was that assignment to waitlist versus treatment was not random but rather based on conflicts with offered times for workshops. Because these workshops were offered as a service on campus, it was most ethical to try to accommodate students' schedules and minimize the number of students who had to wait for treatment. There was no obvious pattern to the schedules of students who were waitlisted before receiving treatment, so it is unlikely that there was systematic error variance attributable to the

nonrandom assignment, but it is possible. Random assignment would have been preferable in terms of clarifying sources of bias but would have been inconsistent with the priority of serving as many students as possible.

This study has strong practical implications for interventions in educational settings to help students increase their test performance. Previous studies have shown that test anxiety can have a negative, inverse relationship with academic performance (Chapell et. al., 2005; Ramirez & Beilock, 2011). Therefore, in-house workshops like the one used in this study could provide skills that support students' overall academic performance and potentially raise their test scores. Test anxiety is amenable to treatment. Participation in a relatively brief multimodal intervention significantly decreases not just test anxiety but also state and trait anxiety in undergraduate students. A multimethod strategy, including studying and test-taking tips, along with mastering the fundamentals of controlled breathing and muscle relaxation, helps college students keep their anxiety symptoms at more adaptive levels in testing situations (Kondo, 1997; Powell, 2004). Additionally, cognitive-behavioral strategies such as systematic desensitization, in which students learn to challenge anxiety-provoking thoughts and pair a relaxation response to anxiety-provoking cues, help students approach tests with more confidence (Davis et al., 2008; Ergene, 2003; Putwain et al., 2010). Future research may want to tease apart the relative contributions of each component of the treatment, but the current data support modulating test-related anxiety with a multimethod approach, including a distinct psychoeducational component.

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Development of Empathy in Trainees

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Abstract

Therapeutic work focused on building awareness of self and others and development of perspective-taking requires therapists who are able to engage in meaningful human interaction with a diverse clientele. The opportunity for successful therapy depends on therapists whose own perspective-taking and frames of reference are unconditionally inclusive of the different other. This paper focuses on how we might better understand the influence of intellectual and ethical developmental positions of trainees on perspective taking and empathy in therapeutic interaction. In addition, we will explore what types of pedagogy might be instrumental in student development toward a more inclusive, empathic position with clients who are different from the trainee. This paper examines beginning graduate trainees' two-page reflections on their own empathy and how they see the program's impact on their empathic stance. Using the methodology of phenomenology and a developmental-phenomenological method, themes emerged that suggest a correlation between student responses and the classic developmental work of William G. Perry, Jr. Student narratives are shared indicating themes and students' current developmental positioning according to the Perry Developmental Scheme. If we better understand the correlation between a student's intellectual and ethical development and her ability to be empathic to the different other then we can work on designing pedagogical approaches that encourage perspective taking, facilitate the ability to deal with uncertainty and increase the student's capacity to commit unconditionally to an empathic stance with the different other. We call for follow-up research at the point of post- internship experience.

Keywords: development, perspective-taking, empathy, hermeneutics

As therapists, empathic presence is one of our personal and professional goals and we recognize its importance in all human relationships. If we have the good fortune to teach trainees, we often see our novice graduate students surprised at how a therapist-client difference they chafed at in the beginning of a therapeutic relationship eventually becomes deeply understood and then helpful to client care. We therapists who work both therapeutically and as educators of therapist trainees not only attempt to model a widened perspective taking, we also seek out novel ways to help trainees achieve the developmental milestones of becoming more conscious of themselves and others, more curious rather than judgmental about the different other. We strive to help them achieve greater clarity of the process of their own evolving self and that of the different other as meaning makers, leading to more compassion in their understandings of the developmental journey, as a whole.

We attempt to teach our trainees to sit, open with engaged care and a not-knowing stance, toward clients who can be so different from the trainee. In supervision we work at helping them to dwell together with their clients in a type of "sympathetic reverberation" (Lewis, Amini and Lanon, 2000, p. 130) (also see Arizmendi, 2011;Hunter, 2012) filled with patience, insight and care. Gibbons, (2011) suggests that this understanding of therapist empathy is similar to a musician's understanding of music as "a whole-bodied process to be increasingly mastered, through dedicated training and practice" (p. 250). Applying research in their field, Kouprie and Visser (2009), state that, "empathetic understanding goes beyond knowledge: when empathizing you do not judge, you relate and understand why certain experiences are meaningful to these people" (p.438).

As we, therapist educators, model an "ethic of care", it is here that our students learn to generously consider the different other. Bohart and Greenberg (1997) deepen our understanding of the generous consideration process with the following:

> First, empathy includes the making of deep and sustained psychological contact with another. . . . Second, empathic exploration includes deep sustained empathic exploration or immersing of oneself in the experience of the other. . . . Third, empathic exploration includes a resonant grasping of the "edges" or implicit aspects of a client's experience to help create new meanings (p. 5).

"Each one of us *is (italics added)* what he pursues and cares for. In everyday terms we understand ourselves and our existence by way of the activities we pursue and the things we take care of " (Heidegger, 1975, p.158). Grasping Heidegger's profound statement as it relates to the empathic counselor makes clear that the development of empathy in counselors must be unpacked. If we are to examine the structures of care that inform our practice and more importantly our ethical core, both as therapists and models for trainees, we must continue to help trainees reflect on what they (and we) 'pursue and care for'.

The Natural History of Empathy

Historical studies of the nature of empathy (Baldwin, 1906, as cited in Selman, 1975) suggests that the young child (before four years of age) demonstrates an "organic" form of empathy. Accompanying the advent of a notion of self, the child, with a slow-growing awareness of his separation from the different other, notices and occasionally entertains other perspectives different from hers. This increasingly requires a renegotiation of self and other in a "safe enough" environment. Selman sees this as "the dialectical process of reflectively understanding

relations between the self (ego) and other (alter)" (p. 36), an ongoing, lifelong engagement not without its complexities (see also Truax & Carkhuff, 1967; Clark, 2006).

Although its roots are innate, empathy is a learned behavior of the developing brain (Elliott, et al., 2011). As Decety (2010) suggests: "[e]mpathy belongs to self-conscious emotions, which rely on complicated and distributed brain networks" (p. 206). Clearly, reflection on action is an important piece of the puzzle. Trainees' own personal therapy helps them wade through the layers of thoughts and feelings that drive behavior; it can open the doors to becoming conscious of the cognitive and emotional 'lay of the land' and their own 'situatedness' out of which they choose to act. In supervision we can help them understand that 'others' also have layers of thoughts and feelings derived from a personal geography of the mind that may be completely dissimilar to theirs.

Exploring Development Of Empathy

How would we define our current empathic stance? How did we, as skilled therapists, develop this expanded ability to enter the experience of the other without judgment and without a sense of threat to the self? What can help us to promote this developmental process in our clients or the trainees with whom we come in contact? Supiano and Vaughn-Cole's (2011) study of students' developing sense of self as empathic professionals found that professional development of care is positively impacted by their own personal experience of grief and the direction and modeling of emotional regulation by their instructors when caring for the distressed other.

> Qualitative findings suggest that grief and the students' construction of the meaning of their loss can mediate the students' developing sense of self as a professional helper. Further, student

> narratives suggest that professional and personal growth can be enhanced by teacher-facilitator provision of emotional guidance and modeling in the care of suffering persons. (p.87)

Development and integration of the intellectual and the ethical selves, with all the accompanying range of personal cognitions and emotions (Gerdes & Segal, 2011), goes through various processes and stages, all the time hopefully building more expanded schemata for comprehending ourselves and others. This results in the fully developed self uniquely taking shape through life events, and the evolving interpretations thereof.

Meaning Making

Meaning making is an activity of all humans (Kegan, 1986). The growth of empathy requires that we loosen our grip on our own current epistemic structures while we entertain alternate perspectives. This is easier said than done because our identities are intimately connected with the products of our meaning making. Our current perspectives are born out of our personal biology and natural setting; our developmental position (Kegan, 1986) and our "situatedness" in our multi-faceted environments (Gieser, 2008, p. 301). Hermeneutically speaking, our current "knowing" or our "horizon", points to influences (e.g. particular cultural, familial, historical context) that help determine the content of our current meaning making. Of course, this personal, developmental position has a direct effect on our perspective. Shifting the lens requires engagement in the developmental process of assimilation and accommodation, resulting in change and hopefully broadening of perspective. It requires tolerating an experience of cognitive dissonance and resolution--a circular process of reinterpretation by a meaning making (verb) being (Chang, 2010). Hermeneutic researchers know this as the recursive and ongoing

engagement in the hermeneutic circle. Each exercise of empathy requires entering the hermeneutic circle over and over, becoming ever more comfortable with "not knowing". As

Developing multicultural awareness among Psychology students through international service learning programming

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Abstract

Surveys of student experiences have been conducted in most of the major countries that support study abroad programs (Opper, Telchler, & Carlson, 1990). Of particular interest to universities sponsoring study-abroad travel curricula are inquiries posed to investigate the success, failures, costs, and benefits of such programs (Dwyer & Peters, 2004). The impact of idiographic

personality variables, however, on integration and processing of a cross cultural experience has been neglected in this literature.

In the current study, 21 graduate and undergraduate psychology students from a small Midwestern university participated in a three-week field research project dedicated to assessing the epidemiology of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder in Ghana, West Africa. Students conducted one-on-one interviews with a diversity of Ghanaian nationals in order to develop an understanding of the prevalence and symptomology of mental health symptoms following exposure to a traumatic stressor. Students utilized daily journaling and group discussion to evaluate multicultural experiences and chart personal growth. Pre-, post- measures of personality type and cultural attitudes quantitatively assessed individual changes within group members and were used to assess the efficacy of the program in terms of student learning. The question of key interest to the course instructors was, which personality variables were the best predictors of multicultural learning outcomes at the conclusion of the trip? A better understanding of this issue may assist in future selection, training, and debriefing of study abroad participants as well as in the development of a curriculum sensitive to the interpersonal styles and competencies of the individual participants.

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Emotional Intelligence Among Black Belts: Predictor of Success

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Such topics often deal with the distribution of prime numbers, a topic with particular applications toward information security.

Abstract

An emerging body of research suggests social and emotional abilities play an important role in predicting personal and professional success. Although analytical and technical skills may serve as a minimum requirement for success, it is emotional intelligence (EI) that is often the attribute that distinguishes outstanding performers from average performers. Because scant research exists measuring EI levels among black belt holders and to address a gap in the literature, this study identifies EI competencies that are predictors of success for individuals in this group. Just as certain competencies and attributes contribute to success and effectiveness in life and in the workplace, those who train in the martial arts must also possess and acquire certain skills, qualities and attributes to excel in their discipline. The purpose of this study is to determine whether black belt martial artists possess higher levels of emotional intelligence than the general population and to identify those specific emotional quotient subscales that appear to contribute to their success in the martial arts. Utilizing the BarOn EQ-i assessment, the researchers investigated the emotional intelligence of 77 adults who held a rank of 1st degree black belt or higher and found the black belt group possessed a higher than average total emotional quotient (EQ) than found in the general population and scored higher on all 15 EI subscales.The findings of this study will support the need for developing a new model or framework for professional development based on the practices, philosophies, and approaches traditionally found in the marital arts.

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For the complete paper, please contact the author.

Parental influence on talent development: Interviews with 20 Nobel laureates

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Brief Bio:
Echo Wu is currently an Assistant Professor in College of Education at Murray State University (MSU), Kentucky. She completed her Ph.D. degree at the University of Virginia in 2004- 2007, and was a Research Assistant at the National Research Center for Gifted & Talented (NRC/GT) during that time, before she worked as an Assistant Professor at the Hong Kong Institute of Education in 2007-2011. In 2011-2012, Dr. Wu worked as a Research Scientist at NRC/GT, and started to work at MSU in August 2012. Dr. Wu's teaching and research interests include nature and needs of the gifted, parenting, social-emotional development, and cultural perspectives of giftedness.

Abstract

The literature on parental influence on the development of talent among gifted children points to certain factors as being highly significant. This paper examines parenting experiences and beliefs that concern a small group of individuals who have achieved extreme levels of talented performance: winning a Nobel Prize. Twenty individual interviews were conducted through either personal interviews or phone interviews. Analysis of the interviews revealed that these Nobel laureates have common as well as unique experiences and beliefs about parenting. It is hoped that implications of this study will be of interest to a broad audience including parents, teachers, practitioners, researchers and many others.

Proposal:

Since 1901, the Nobel Prize (NP) has been the highest award for outstanding achievements in a number of academic and non-academic fields, notably physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, peace, and later, in 1968, economic sciences. Over the years, NP winners from all over the world have received global attention for their exceptional performance in their fields and for the extraordinary contributions that they have made. Much of the attention has been focused on their academic work and lives, their educational background, and their achievements in certain areas.

Despite a great deal of information on their academic achievement, there is relatively little known about a unique and important part of the lives of these eminent people: their parental background and familial environment in the early years, how they grew up to achieve great success, and what roles their parents played in shaping their later success. Existing literature has indicated that parental influence plays a crucial role in their children's talent development. It has been of great interest for me, a researcher and a parent, to understand how the parents of these high performers have contributed to the achievements of their children.

The purpose of the present study is to explore this set of issues by way of individual interviews, using the Nobel laureates' own words to explain their experiences, beliefs, and practices concerning their parents' parenting, and where applicable, their own parenting with their children. Specifically, I am seeking to answer the following research questions: (1) what are the major parental influences that may have contributed to their talented performance? (2) What are the beliefs and practices of the interviewed NP winners concerning parenting and talent development? (3) What are the implications and suggestions for parents and educators in general that can be drawn from the interviews?

There are 20 interviews in total, including 11 personal face-to-face interviews, 8 phone interviews, and one email interview. This study aims to understand the unique parental and familial situations and environments in which the Nobel laureates grew up and developed their talents. It was also expected that this study would provide implications to parents in general on how to better nurture talented performance in their children. The individual interviews were supplemented and triangulated by information from the internet, including autobiographical input, interviews, CV's, and lectures from the NP organization's official website, and from other resources, such as personal emails.

Initial results from the data analysis will be shared and discussed.

BUSINESS PROCEEDINGS

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No alterations are made to the manuscript content. With the exception of minor typesetting, manuscripts are printed as submitted.

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LEADING CHANGE

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Abstract

Researchers have examined the female paradigm of management as distinct from the male for decades. The findings related to gender differences are contradictory (Gilligan, 1982; Hatcher, 2003), however, and, thus reinforce the need for additional scrutiny of gender influences on managerial success, particularly in critical areas such as leading change. Managerial competencies previously associated with successfully driving change are primarily interpersonal skills, particularly in communications and the ability to motivate others (Gilley, McMillan, & Gilley, 2009). Given that women have been found to have an advantage in the interpersonal realm (Kabacoff, 1998), we question whether they are more successful in driving change. This study examined managerial effectiveness in implementing change, with specific emphasis on gender differences. Is one gender more effective than another with change? Do women have an advantage in driving change due to their perceived interpersonal skills? We hypothesized that they do. Our quantitative study involved 779 respondents across multiple industries. Multiple, linear, and ordinal regressions and t-tests were used. Our results support prior studies that found no significant difference in communication, motivation and change initiative skills between male and female managers. We add to the research base by specifically examining effectiveness in change management. Our respondents indicated that men and women are, statistically, largely equally ineffective in implementing change. The rapid pace of change encountered by organizations compels the need for more research in this area.

Introduction

While historically considered an untapped resource, female workplace participation has continually increased since the 1950's (Conlin, 2003). Despite the increase of women in the workplace, fewer than 16% of corporate officer positions in America's 500 largest companies are held by women (Forsythe, 2004). A woman's fitness to serve in a leadership or management role has been traditionally

judged by how she compared to her male peers.

In 1973, Schein concluded that bias in gender roles created a stereotype. This stereotype made it difficult for women to progress through the managerial chain of command. The perception was that women were inferior to men as managers/leaders. That mindset started to change over the next decade. Values once besmirched as feminine were now being hailed as essential for every manager. Intuition, communication, and social aptitude began to be incorporated into managerial training (Claes, 1999).

Today, women are being welcomed into management in ever increasing numbers because of the values and skills they inherently possess. Overall, bosses see men and women as equally effective (McGregor & Tweed, 2001). Meanwhile, peer and direct assessments rate women slightly higher than men (Kabacoff, 1998). In a recent study conducted by Catalyst, organizations with the highest percentage of women in top management positions financially outperformed those with the lowest percentage by 35% (Frink, Robinson, Reithel, Arthur, Ammeter, Ferris, Kaplan, & Morrisette, 2003).

Leadership/Management Styles and Competencies

All managers bring varying management styles, interpersonal skills, and communication tools based on their unique life experiences. Researchers have begun to look at the female paradigm of management as distinct from the male (Bryans & Mavin, 2003, Helgesen, 1995). Prior research has repeatedly extolled the fundamental differences gender creates in values, strategies, and management styles (Gilligan 1982; Hatcher 2003; Rosener 1990, 1995). Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) further extended the gender leadership styles, and identified women with transformational qualities and males with transactional. Usually, these differences are used to justify change (or the lack thereof) in management staffing choices.

Konrad and Kramer's (2006) study of women on corporate boards found that the presence of three

women on a board changed its entire culture to be more supportive and collaborative. Studies have shown a correlation between the proportion of women on top management teams and organizational performance (Krishnan & Park, 2005), and between gender diversity and financial performance (Catalyst, 2004). Meier, O'Toole, and Goerdel (2006) found that gender did make a difference on managerial practices, but that these differences depended on the practice.

Male management has been the gold standard of business for hundreds of years; effective, archaic and controversial. Throughout modern history the overwhelming majority of managers have been white, affluent males from similar backgrounds and life experiences. Even in today's culture, the prevalent attitude is that men make better leaders and better supervisors than women (Duerst-Lahti & Kelly 1995; Kanter 1977; Stivers, 2002). Typically, men are viewed as more likely to grasp organizational vision and strategic planning, Kabacoff postulates. He further describes males as more innovative, restrained and persuasive (1998).

When compared to the male leadership style, females are usually rated higher by their subordinates (Conlin, 2003). Kabacoff (1998) also found that female managers score higher on leadership oriented towards production. In addition, women were rated as more communicative and empathetic, and were viewed as more democratic, interactive, and conscious of others' needs. Female managers were generally more helpful, which resulted in more effective coaching and development (Burke & Collins, 2001; Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Other studies show that women may have the edge over men in certain aspects of effective leadership (Anderson, Lievens, van Dam, & Born, 2006; Bornstein, 2007; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003). Moore, Grunberg, and Greenberg (2004) found that there were benefits to working for a female supervisor for both men and women. Eagly (2007) contended that although women tend to lead in a style most associated with effectiveness—

transformational leadership--this does not result in subordinates preferring women to men, nor does it translate to success for women leaders in terms of career advancement (Baxter & Wright, 2000; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Heilman, 2001; Lyness & Thompson, 2000; Maume, 2004; Timberlake, 2005).

It is important to note, however, that abundant research contends there are no significant differences between male and female managers (Donnell & Hall, 1980). For example, Hyde's (2005) meta-analysis revealed that women and men are more alike in their abilities than they are different. Arditi and Balci's (2009) study of construction workers concluded that female project managers do not differ much from male project managers in terms of their managerial behaviors, although they do perform better in "sensitivity," "customer focus," and "authority presence." Additional meta-analyses (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995) show that women were more transformational in their leadership style, yet overall differences between male and female leaders were small.

Leading Change

Today's business environment calls for properly implemented change programs aimed at improving operating processes. However, many organizations encounter failure due to the lack of a competent leader to guide them through the process (Gill, 2003). Strong, committed change leaders are critical to implementing any change initiative (Daft, 2008; Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 2009; Yukl, 2010). The change leader provides the motivation and communication necessary to propel the change effort forward.

Increasing emphasis on the role of change as critical to organizational success has prompted numerous investigations of change competencies, practices, methodologies, and results (Ford & Gioia,

2000; Friedman, 2005; Gilley, McMillan, & Gilley, 2009; Johansson, 2004). Despite the popularity of the topic, little empirical investigation has explored the influence of gender on success rates of change leaders.

Types of Change Leadership

Change is often described as transactional or transformational (Burns, 1978), with transformational leadership exerting a positive influence on change (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008). Transactional change represents a traditional managerial give-and-take or quid-pro-quo approach; change is mandatory, not optimal. Successful change is rewarded, while failure to change is punished. In contrast, transformational change relies on shifts in assumptions, culture, strategy or other significant paradigms, and may be considered extreme or revolutionary (Denning, 2005). Burns and Riggio (2006, 5-7) identified four components of transformation leadership as 'idealized influence' (role modeling), 'inspirational motivation,' intellectual stimulation' (questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and using new ways to approach old situations), and 'individualized consideration' of others' needs.

According to Rosener (1990), women prefer to use an interactive, collaborative, transformational leadership style whereas men favor an authoritative, transactional leadership style. Women tend to be more personal, encourage participation, share power, energize, and enhance the self worth of others (Burns, 1978; Paton & Dempster, 2002). The interactive style uses a collaborative process in which influences for decisions are developed from relationships. Bass (1985) explains that the transformational leadership style brings about significant change in both followers and the organization, which supports…

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WORK STRESS AND RESTRUCTURING: ORGANIZATIONAL BEST PRACTICES AND DEMOGRAPHICS

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Abstract

This paper presents two research studies. Study 1 identifies where the most stress is felt across the entire US economy—what kinds of people doing what kinds of jobs in what kinds of organizations. Using a nationally representative database of employee opinions and demographics, the characteristics most associated with unreasonable levels of stress include lack of perceived self-competence, lack of progressive organizational practices, and layoffs. Industry, job type, and personal demographics (e.g., gender, ethnicity) were not as potent as these other variables. In Study 2, the relationship between employee opinions and organizational restructuring efforts. Employees in organizations undergoing mergers or acquisitions felt less favorable about their employment relationship. This suggests that recently acquired organizations find it hard to create climate of employee well-being. This is likely due to the higher levels of uncertainty about current position and announced and/or anticipated changes. Further, organizations that have been acquired seem to have less clearly successful customer processes than those doing the acquiring.

Work Stress and Restructuring: Organizational Best Practices and Demographics

Stress at work can seem ubiquitous. Especially through the recession, the pressures to do more with less have become intense. Also clear, however, is that some organizations manage better than others. Further, stress is not uniformly spread within any given organization – some employees perceive more and some less. The first study of this research program is an examination of factors associated with perceived work stress. Particularly relevant to operations

in a difficult economy, aspects of major organizational change – layoffs, mergers, acquisitions – were included in this research. Following up on the first study, a second examines the relationships between organizational change and employee opinions.

The negative effects of stress are well-known and well-documented. For example, Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, and Schilling (1989) found that almost 20% of the variance in mood scores can be explained by daily stressors. Given the increasing amount of time Americans are spending at work (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), it is especially important to understand job-related stress. For example, an estimated 54% of sick days (Elkin & Rosch, 1990) and seven to nine percent of employee health care costs (Manning, Jackson, & Fusilier, 1996) are attributable to job stress and stress-related illness.

Beyond daily stressors, larger organizational changes such as mergers, acquisitions, and layoffs resulting from them have been found to impact workers. Like stress, layoffs are a pervasive presence in today's organizations. The pressures toward layoffs are easily understood – reducing head count and therefore costs, but not so easily achieved. In this paper, we use survey data to examine the interrelationships between stress, layoffs, and perceived organizational performance. There is substantial research on layoffs and their relationship with stress and negative health outcomes. In particular, layoffs have been found to be associated with increased stress (Uchitelle, 2006), reduced morale (Cascio, 2002), negative health effects (Gallo, Bradley, Siegel, and Kasl, 2000), stress-related illness (Strully, 2009), and even death (von Wachter and Sullivan, 2009). This list does not include the increased stress, reduced morale, and reduced trust in upper management found in "survivors" of layoffs, which are also well-

documented (e.g., Cascio, 2002). The purpose of this study is to understand the characteristics of employees and organizations where more vs. less stress is perceived.

Method – Study 1

Participants

This research is based on results from a large-sample employee attitude survey that has been employed since the mid-1980s. In 2008, 25,321 full-time employees from 16 countries were surveyed online. They formed a representative sample of industries, jobs, ages, and tenure.

Measures

Among the items was one measuring the degree to which the respondent felt there was a "reasonable" level of stress in her/his job. This was measured by a self-report question answered on a standard Likert scale "The stress level at work is reasonable." While all jobs have some expected and unavoidable level of stress, this item is designed to measure stress above and beyond what is normally expected. Additionally, a variety of job and personal characteristics were included in the survey and in the analyses.

Results – Study 1

Levels of job stress vary from country to country. The lowest stress levels are in India (with 12.7% of full-time workers reporting "unreasonable" levels of job stress) and the highest are in Saudi Arabia (with 38.3%). Workers in the United States are the 12th most stressed. As Kowske and Woods (2008) report, comparing across nations, while interesting, is difficult due to the variety of employment laws, employee protections, and job opportunities available. For the remainder of these analyses, therefore, we focus on the results from the United States.

Primarily, we examined where the most stress was felt across the entire US economy—what kinds of people doing what kinds of jobs in what kinds of organizations. This data set is particularly well suited to answer these questions. To evaluate where perceived stress is higher or lower, a variety of demographics were available, grouped into four distinct categories: Organizational Characteristics (e.g., size, industry), Job Characteristics (e.g., job type, travel demands), Personal Demographics (e.g., gender, ethnicity), and Job x Personal Characteristics (e.g., length of service, self-report performance rating).

Additionally, various organizational events and practices were also captured within the database. First, recent major organizational changes (e.g., layoffs, acquisitions) were included. These events are typically stressors for workers who "survive" them (Wiley, Brooks, & Hause, 2003). Second, a set of progressive organizational practices were also included. This set reflects organizational practices supported by research as being related to organizational performance (e.g., conducting regular performance appraisals or employee opinion surveys, providing customer feedback, cross training, quality programs). These practices were identified based on relationships to organizational performance (Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

To avoid cross-cultural confounds in this initial research, analyses were based on respondents from the United States alone, with a final sample size of 10,439 employees. The bulk of the analyses are based upon simultaneous Chi-Square analyses as run through SPSS's CHAID software (Chi-Square Automatic Interaction Detection). The p values reflecting each demographic item's relationship with the stress dependent variable were ranked, revealing the demographics with plausibly the most impact on stress. The demographics with the strongest relationships with stress are briefly summarized.

- Self-report performance rating: Excellent performers feel the least stress; Needs improvement, Adequate, and new-to-the-job performers feel the most stress; with Good performers and, interestingly, probationary performers in the middle.
- Employee opinion survey: Organizations engaged in the practice of conducting an employee opinion survey had less stressed employees than those that did not.
- Length of service: New employees report the least stress, with levels generally increasing through 15 or more years of service.

The next five most potent demographics include progressive organizational practices as related to lower stress (quality programs, cross-training, customer feedback processes), organizational layoffs as contributing to stress, and whether one worked in the organization's headquarters or not (with working at HQ associated with less stress). Interestingly, the specifics of the work itself (job type, managerial duties, hourly vs. salaried) were not as strongly related as those characteristics listed above, nor was the organization's industry. Personal demographics such as gender and ethnicity were also not among the most potent demographics.

Discussion – Study 1

The broad conclusions, therefore, from this research are that stress is less dependent upon the work one is doing, and more upon (a) the competence with which one does it, (b) accumulated tenure, (c) the progressive style with which an organization operates, and (d) organizational performance stressors such as layoffs. Increased competence and progressive organizational policies can be easily understood as increasing a worker's perceived control and potentially reducing stress.

Study 2

Building from Study 1, it is clear that major organizational change can play a significant role in workplace stress. But to add complexity, it is also clear that employees will not react the same and stress levels will change depending on job or organizational success and relatively

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHING PRESENCE, SOCIAL PRESENCE, LEARNER MOVTIVATION, AND SELF-REPORTED LEARNING AMOUNG FACE-TO-FACE MBA STUDENTS

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Abstract

The Community of Inquiry framework includes the teaching, social, and cognitive presences. The model has been used extensively in the study of online education and has been suggested as valuable for the study of face-to-face education. The COI framework holds that learning is the result of an interaction between the teaching and social presences; however, the ability of the framework to explain learning has been inconclusive. This study examines a revised COI framework that includes a fourth presence, learner motivation. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the teaching and social presences of the Community of Inquiry (COI) framework, learner motivation, and self-reported learning. A survey instrument was developed that included items from the COI measurement instrument, items from the literature that measure student motivation, and items from the literature that measure self-reported learning. The study surveyed 126 face-to-face MBA students enrolled in

MBA courses. Of the students who were offered the survey, 114 completed responses were received for a 90% response rate. Study results found that teaching presence and learner motivation, collectively, were significant predictors of self-reported learning. Social presence was not identified as a significant predictor of learning. However, significant differences were identified between quantitative and nonquantitative courses. These findings suggest the merit of including a student motivation dimension within the COI framework. Lastly, the findings indicate analysis using the community of inquiry framework should consider the impact of differences among courses and disciplines.

Introduction

Akyol, Garrison, and Ozden (2009) conclude that different learning environments must be studied to develop effective learning experiences. Additionally, the authors proposed that the Community of Inquiry framework provides a well-structured model to create effective learning communities. Likewise, Nagel and Kotze (2010) asserted that the COI framework could serve as a good instrument for examination of teaching quality.

While recognizing the growth and impact of online education, Garrison and Kanuka (2004) acknowledged the need to examine online and face-to-face education so that the strengths of each method can be utilized. Despite growth in online education, Harrington and Loffredo (2010) reported that many students prefer face-to-face education and acknowledge the value of examining both the online and face-to-face formats. Similar findings and recommendations were provided by Paechter and Maier (2010). These findings suggested a potential value of analysis of face-to-face courses using the same framework recently applied to online and blended education.

Online education has grown at a dramatic rate (Shea, Vickers, & Hayes, 2010). Educational institutions have expanded online and developed blended delivery of courses to provide greater student access, as well as satisfy market demands. At the same time, this accelerated growth has raised questions about student learning outcomes (Patterson & McFadden, 2009). Despite an increase in research, questions regarding student learning continue (Simmering, Posey, & Piccoli, 2009).

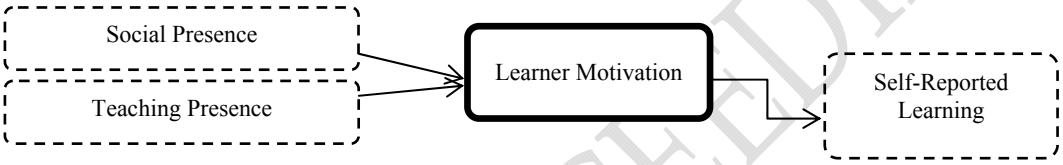
As described by the COI framework learning occurs through the interaction of teaching and social presence (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000). Shea and Bidjerano (2010) suggest that a more complete understanding of the learner's role in the learning experience might enhance the COI model's strength. The present study proposes the inclusion of learner motivation within the COI framework. In so doing, the present study examined the impact of teaching, social presences, and learner motivation on self-reported learning. This study found that teaching presence and learner motivation were significant predictors of self-reported learning.

The Problem

The COI framework has been presented as a model for understanding learning (Rourke & Kanuka, 2009; Swan & Ice, 2010). Questions have been raised regarding the COI model's strength in explaining learning (Annand, 2011; Rourke & Kanuka, 2009). Shea and Bidjerano (2010) suggested that the current model might not reflect a state of completion, recommending that a learner presence component be considered in the COI framework. While Shea and Bidjerano (2010) considered self-efficacy and effort regulation as possible components of learner presence, the present study explored the association of learner motivation and the teaching and

social presences of the COI framework. In addition, the present study examined the strength of the teaching and social presences of the COI framework and learner motivation in explaining self-reported learning. Figure 1 presents the proposed model of this study.

Figure 1: Study Model



Literature Review

Community of Inquiry Framework

The COI framework was first presented by Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2000). It was proposed as a generic model that could provide order and methodology for studying effectiveness of computer conferencing. A process model of online learning, the COI has a constructivist view as its core (Swan, Garrison, & Richardson, 2009). Learning is produced through the interaction of three components: teaching presence (TP), social presence (SP), and cognitive presence (CP) (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000). Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2010) report that the COI framework has been referenced at least 600 times.

A team of researchers collaborated to develop an instrument to measure COI. Arbaugh, Cleveland-Innes, Diaz, Garrison, Ice, Richardson, & Swan (2008) presented the foundational article for instrument validation. This instrument has been used and validated in other research studies (Burgess, Slate, Rojas-LeBouef, & LaPrairie, 2010; Diaz, Swan, Ice, & Kupczynski,

2010; Shea & Bidjerano, 2009; Swan et al., 2009). The present study used items from the Arbaugh, et al. (2008) instrument as measures of TP, SP, and CP.

Teaching Presence (TP)

The dimensions of teaching presence were derived from Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, and Archer's (2001) study. The dimensions of TP were defined as 1) course design and organization, 2) facilitated discourse, and 3) direct instruction. Course design and organization reflected the planning and design of the structure, process, interaction, and evaluation. Facilitation of discourse consisted of interaction between students and the instructor to achieve course learning objectives. Direct instruction identified instructor behavior regarding course knowledge and pedagogical practices. Construct validation of these components of teaching has been supported (Arbaugh & Hwang, 2006).

Research on teaching presence (TP) broadly supports its association with learning. Shea (2006) reported a significant association between TP and Classroom Community Scale items. Garrison (2007) concluded that TP was a significant determinant of learning. Arbaugh (2008) reported that the association between TP and perceived learning exceeded the association between SP and perceived learning. TP explained 67% of the variance in cognitive presence, with little additional variance from social presence (Shea & Bidjerano, 2009). Garrison, Cleveland-Innes, and Fung (2010) proposed that teaching mediates between social and cognitive presences. Teaching presence and social presence explained 69% of the variance in cognitive…

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SHOULD THE POLICY GOAL BE HAPINESS OR ECONOMIC GROWTH?

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Abstract

There have been calls in the public sphere for a movement away from using real GDP per capita as a measure of well-being to using a more subjective, survey based indicator of "happiness" or "life satisfaction" as a direct measure of societal well being. As recent research finds that increasing GDP per capita corresponds to increasing happiness, contradicting earlier work in this area, whether or not the policy focus should be on maximization of the growth rate of real GDP per capita is an open question. This paper sheds light on this debate by considering the relationship between happiness and those aspects of GDP commonly criticized as not representative of well-being.

Introduction

In 1972 Bhutan's King suggested that a "Gross National Happiness" statistic would be a better indicator of progress than Gross National Product for his country, as it would capture non-material, culturally important aspects of authentic life in his small country. More recently, political leaders of larger, more developed economies have called into question the validity of using real GDP per capita as a measure of well-being.

In February 2008, French President Nicolas Sarkozy formed a commission, chaired by Nobel Prize winning economist Joseph Stiglitz, to study and present a report on the limitations of GDP as an indicator of economic performance and social progress and to suggest alternatives. The resulting "Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and

Social Progress" was completed in September, 2009 (available at http://www.stiglitz-sen-fitoussi.fr/en/index.htm). Among other suggestions, the report recommends that subjective measures of well-being should be included in a measure of living standards, including people's self reports of their "… happiness, satisfaction, positive emotions such as joy and pride, and negative emotions such as pain and worry". It should be noted that critics have suggested that the French are interested in alternatives to GDP only because France's GDP growth has lagged other developed countries' growth rates: e.g., from 1982 to 2007, France grew at 2.1% per year while the US grew at 3.3%. In 2007, using GDP as the measuring stick, Americans were 33% richer than the French.

In November 2010 British Prime Minister David Cameron tasked the Office of National Statistics with measuring the nation's well-being. In a speech at the Treasury, Cameron said "…we will start measuring our progress as a country not just by how our economy is growing, but by how our lives are improving, not just by our standard of living, but by our quality of life… it is high time we admitted that, taken on its own, GDP is an incomplete way of measuring a country's progress" ("The Independent," November 25, 2010, available at http://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/cameron-defends-well-being-measure-2143595.html).

Political calls for a focus on subjective well-being or "happiness" have coincided with a surge in academic interest in the topic. Interest has been fueled by various waves of surveys such as the General Social Survey and the World Values Survey, which encompass dozens of countries and thousands of individuals, and ask questions related to subjective well-being.

The debate over the proper measure for societal well-being has important implications, including whether the focus of economic policymaking should be the maximization of the growth rate of real GDP per capita, or some other, "truer", measure of well-being. This paper begins an exploration into this area by considering those elements for which real GDP per capita is most often criticized and their relationship to "happiness".

Background

Criticism of real GDP per capita as a proxy for well-being is not new. The widely accepted problems, which even those in favor of its use as a proxy agree on, are (1) the exclusion of non-material dimensions of well being such as spirituality and the benefits of leisure (where, with GDP, less leisure implies greater production and therefore greater well-being, contradicting the expected positive relationship between leisure and well-being) (2) the exclusion of non-market activities (which generally decrease the measure) (3) the inclusion of items which are actually harmful (e.g. negative environmental externalities associated with increased production) and (4) as a measure of the "typical", it omits anything related to the distribution of income within a country (where societal income inequality is presumed to lower well-being). These inadequacies are so widely accepted as to be noted in most introductory economics textbooks (see, for example, Mankiw (2012)).

Given these longstanding criticisms, many alternative measures of well-being have been proposed. One set of alternatives generally begins with GDP and then adds missing valuable items and subtracts disamenities in order to focus in on a consumption measure believed to be closer to well-being than is production. Papers in this tradition begin with Nordhaus and Tobin

(1972)'s Measure of Economic Welfare. A full summary can be found in Morse (2004). A newer contribution along these lines is Jones and Klenow (2010), which calculates a consumption-equivalent measure of welfare based on consumption, leisure, inequality, and mortality data. However, none of these measures have gained traction as a policy actionable alternative to real GDP per capita.

In contrast to attempts to measure consumption more precisely, other alternatives to real GDP per capita construct composite indices based on societal attributes deemed to reflect well-being. Perhaps the most well known alternative is the United Nation's Human Development Index (HDI), which is constructed by combining measures representing health, education, and living standards (represented by the logarithm of income, so that increases in income are of diminished importance). The HDI is supposed to be a more accurate measure of well-being than real GDP per capita. The index proposed in Kula, Panday, and Parrish (2008) is along these lines but uses subcomponents of characteristics deemed to be more conducive to the individual attainment of well-being by providing an environment which enables choice and freedom. Again, however, recent calls for replacing real GDP per capita as the default summative measure of well-being have not focused on maximizing the HDI or other composite indices, but on explicitly subjective "happiness".

There have been two main, conflicting results on work focusing on the relationship between happiness and real GDP per capita. Easterlin's (1974, 1995, 2005a, 2005b)) results have been coined the "Easterlin paradox", as they suggest that within countries, higher income individuals are happier, but that people in rich countries are not happier than those in poor countries. The explanation put forward to explain the paradox is rather simple: people are

concerned with relative differences in income, not absolute – they want to "keep up with the Joneses". Furthermore, some results have indicated a satiation point with respect to income and happiness: Layard (2003), e.g., notes that at levels of income over $15000 per person, happiness is independent of income per person. These findings lend credence to the view that maximizing GDP per capita should not be a policy goal. In fact, if relative income differences are the true driver of happiness, then income equality should be the goal.

More recent research has called into question these results, beginning with Stevenson and Wolfers (2008) and extended in Sacks, Stevenson, and Wolfers (2010). Stevenson and Wolfers (2008) find no evidence of a satiation point: increases in real GDP per capita increase happiness. They also find that people in rich countries are happier than those in poor countries and that the poorer you are, the less happy you are. These results stand in stark contrast to those of Easterlin (1974). Stevenson and Wolfers (2008) attribute this to the data used: they use data on a large sample of countries, both rich and poor, and use several survey sources for happiness and life satisfaction data, while Easterlin (1974) used two international datasets of countries with similar attributes. Stevenson and Wolfers's (2008) results show that a policy goal of maximizing economic growth will maximize happiness, suggesting no need for current calls to replace GDP growth as a policy objective.

The goal of this paper is to explicitly consider three of the most common criticisms of real GDP per capita as a measure of well-being – not accounting for the negative impact of pollution, not accounting for income inequality, and not recognizing that leisure has a beneficial impact on well-being - and their relationship to happiness, in an effort to determine if economic growth is the proper societal goal for policymakers. Since a policy goal of maximizing economic

growth would be consistent with stable prices and unemployment at or near its natural rate, this paper will also investigate how the relationship between happiness and the three criticized…

THE PROBLEM OF SPATIAL INEQUALITY IN THE REGIONS OF TURKEY: AN EXPLORATORY SPATIAL DATA ANALYSIS

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Abstract

Turkey is formally composed of several provinces used as administrative units. The definition of regions is only used for geographic classification purposes (for example Marmara, Aegean, Southeastern areas) and the regions have very important spatial disparities. For instance, the provinces located in the Southeastern and Eastern Anatolia areas are known to be lagging behind in economic and social terms. The Ministry of Development calculates Socio-Economic Development Index to understand different levels of socio-economic development. The index values explained two times in the last decade (2003 and 2011).

The aim of this paper is to perform an exploratory spatial data analysis on the growth and development level of the 81 Turkish regions over 2003-2011. While choropleth maps indicate that the Western part of the country is significantly more developed than the East, the tools of spatial statistics reveal the presence of spatial dependence across provinces. The presence of heterogeneity is reflected in the distribution of LISA statistics. Overall, our results shed new light on the distribution of socio-economic development across Turkish regions and its relation with R&D, migration rates and human capital, three indicators of development.

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DISSECTING THE TURTLE: AN EXAMINATION OF THE TURTLE TRADING SYSTEM

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Abstract

This project examines a mechanical trading system that was utilized by the "Turtle Traders" during the 1980s. The Turtle Trading system was created by Richard Dennis who modified and earlier breakout system espoused by Richard Donchian. The mechanical trading system was extremely advanced for its time. This article demonstrates that the system is still quite sophisticated, thirty years later. This system began to circulate on the Internet in the 1990s and became a popular strategy in the decade of the 2000s; generating numerous websites, training seminars, and best-selling books and home study courses. As popular as the system became, and still is, the question as to "how well it works" is not well defined. This project breaks the system down into its simplest elements and reassembles it, one piece at a time. As the system is reassembled it is tested on corn futures contracts from 1979, which was the approximate time that the system began being employed. As the model is reassembled and becomes more sophisticated, the results of the trading system are immediately observable. Once the model is completed the overall results of the trading system are summarized, including rates of return and observance of volatility. The results of the trading system included a profitable rate of return of more than 77% for less than one year. These results are impressive and indicate that further research is warranted. Future research opportunities include, but are not limited to: extending the model to future years to determine the effectiveness of the model when it entered the public domain, testing the model as information became widely available through computers and the Internet, extending the trading system to other tradable markets including other futures markets and individual stocks. Finally, and interesting application of the system is to analyze the evolution of the efficiency of markets over the past three decades as the availability of online trading and 24/7 markets have increased and become the predominant methods of trading and investing.

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A Framework for Specifying Business Models

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Abstract

The concept of a business "model" has been growing in popularity, but as a concept it is still subject to multiple conceptualizations and definitions. This paper collects and extends current literature to present a structural framework for specifying a firm's business model. The framework can be applied in a research context to investigating types of business models and characteristics of business models. The framework conceptualizes competition among firms as competition among alternative business models, enabling a more complete model of competition than previous literature. It can also be applied in practice to designing specific business models and to assessing a model's fit with the environment and its ability to compete in a marketplace. The paper illustrates the usefulness of the framework through an application to the analysis of the evolution of the video rental industry, specifically looking at the competition between the Blockbuster Video and Netflix business models, with implications for the current changes in the industry as streaming video emerges. The paper concludes with suggestions for both practical and research applications of the framework.

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THE INFLUENCE OF ENTERPIRSE SYSTEMS ON BUSINESS AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY STRATEGIC ALIGNMENT

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Abstract

Business strategy is important to all organizations. Nearly all Fortune 500 firms are implementing Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems to improve the execution of their business strategy and to improve integration with its information technology (IT) strategy. Successful implementation of these multi-million dollar software systems are requiring new emphasis on change management and on Business and IT strategic alignment. This paper examines business and IT strategic alignment and seeks to explore whether an ERP implementation can drive business process reengineering and business and IT strategic alignment. An overview of business strategy and strategic alignment are followed by an analysis of ERP. The "As-Is/To-Be" process model is then presented and explained as a simple, but vital tool for improving business strategy, strategic alignment, and ERP implementation success.

Introduction

Business strategy is important to all organizations. Over the last 20 years there has been a growing interest in business strategy and how it is managed. Where does the company wish to go? Where is the company now? A good business strategy answers these questions. Business processes are defined by business strategies. Competitive advantages are gained through solid strategic management and business strategy objectives (Hakanson 2006).

In 1977, Bostrom and Heinen (1977) suggested that many of the social problems associated with the implementation of information systems (1S) were due to the frames of reference held by system designers. Information technology, and technology in general, has

come a long way since then. Today technology is a core part of most every business. Most businesses cannot function without some sort of computer and some type of software to run on that computer. The larger the business, the more IT infrastructure is needed.

In recent years, many businesses have looked to Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) to improve the implementation of their business strategy and to improve integration with its information technology (IT) strategy. An ERP system is application software designed to model and automate many of the basic processes of a company, from finance to the shop floor, with the goal of integrating information across the company and eliminating complex, expensive links between computer systems that were often never meant to talk to each other (Kimberling, 2006; ERP, 1999). These systems offer online real-time information, which reduces processing time and frees managers and analysts from taking time to gather decision-making information.

ERP is now being promoted as a desirable and critical link for enhancing integration between all functional areas within an enterprise, and between the enterprise and its trading partners (Kyung 2002). There is a large history of both successes and failures when it comes to these ERP systems. The upside is great, but the risk of failure is also great. The current ERP implementation effort at the Department of Defense (DOD), the world's largest ERP system, makes this very clear (see Perera 2012).

The question now becomes, what are the critical components of a successful ERP implementation and how is this impacted by an organization's business and IT strategy? Since both IT strategy and business strategy have proven to be important to the success of an organization, must the two strategies be aligned? And if so, how is this accomplished. To begin

to answer these questions, we must first develop a clear understanding of what strategy and alignment is, and what it is not.

Business and IT Strategic Alignment

Strategy Overview

Current research on the modern Strategic alignment of information systems reveals that improvement methodologies are becoming increasingly popular while integrating new software in to their respective environments. Strategic alignment is touted as the key to achieving the goals established by the CEO and the Board of Directors (Papp 2004). Strategic alignment is an ongoing process that has remained a major issue within companies in the United States and across the globe. When the Strategy of the business and IT department align, the organization seems to run more smoothly and sets the foundation for improvements in business processes and performance (Papp, 2004, Atkins 1994).

Business strategy is built upon three principles which include: business scope, distinctive competencies, and business governance (Kimberling 2006). "Scope" of business refers to the breadth of activities your business engages in. Business scope includes the markets, products, services, groups of customers and clients, and locations where a business competes as well as the buyers, competitors, suppliers and potential competitors that affect the competitive environment for a business.

Distinctive competencies are the success factors and the core competencies that give firms potential edges in a competitive market. Examples of distinctive competencies include:

brand, research, manufacturing and product development, cost and pricing structure, and sales and distribution channels.

Business Governance is a set of policies and business processes that set the way that the organization's businesses are run. It is how companies create their relationship between the board of directors and management of stockholders. Also business governance is how the company is affected by government regulations, and how the firm manages their relationships with strategic partners (Papp 2001, Papp 2004, Kimberling 2006).

The business's organization infrastructure is divided into three groups as well, they include: Administrative structure, processes, and skills. The administrative structure of a business is the way that the company organizes its businesses within the firm. There are several examples of which include: functional, vertical, horizontal, geographic, central, and de-central components. "Processes" are how the operating strategy and business activities in a firm flow. Process improvement is a major issue within the process group, which are groups put together by the business to ensure the smooth running of the company, especially during an ERP implementation. Then lastly there are skills. The skills of a company's organization infrastructure are the strategies that a company takes when it comes to motivation of employees, hiring and firing, culture, and human resources consideration. These skills come in handy when the company may have weaknesses within itself. If a company does not feel they are comfortable with the groups they have, proper arrangement can turn that weakness into strengths. All of these things occur to make the business run effectively but how do they relate to information technology (Papp 2001, Papp 2004, Kimberling 2006)?

Strategy: Technology scope is the most important applications and technologies that each company uses within their respective firms.
Systemic competencies: they are what the information system is capable of that distinguish the services that the IT department has to offer.
IT governance: The IT department assess the authority of risk, resources, and responsibility of the IT that is shared between business partners, IT management, and service providers.

Figure 1. IT Strategy Components (Papp 2001, Papp 2004, Kimberling 2006, Barnes 1999)

Strategic Alignment

The Strategic Alignment Model (SAM) of Henderson and Venkatraman (1999) continues to be widely used as the basis of Business/IT Alignment theories. The model is shown in figure 2 though the details of the model will not be explained here. See Papp (2001) for a clear and comprehensive explanation of the model. The key message of this model, as well as that of many other studies, is that to become a successful company, one should make sure that the IT strategy is fully aligned with business strategy.

Enterprise Resource Planning

Overview of ERP

ERP systems are becoming ubiquitous in the corporate world. They also continue to penetrate the small- and medium-sized company as firms like SAP and Oracle go after these large markets. Although the benefits of these systems are many, businesses today seem to be moving toward this technology primarily because the systems are considered to be a source…

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BEHAVIORAL INSIGHTS REVEAL A CONSUMER OF MIXED RATIONALIY

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Abstract

The general assumption in economics is that consumers act rationally and will maximize their utility by obeying the law of demand. The authors wanted to study this assumption in more detail so they designed a 24 question survey and administered it through an online website to 402 consumers. A review of related research showed that perhaps consumers aren't always rational. In fact, the results of this survey show that not all consumers act rationally. Some consumers act rather irrationally under certain circumstances. A consumer's age and income level also factor into their rationality. Most consumers surveyed considered themselves to be more rational than the average consumer. These findings do not fully support the general assumption in economics that consumers act rationally. Future research should focus on why consumers act irrational in certain circumstances.

Introduction

Consumers are assumed to act rationally in modern Economics. To define rationality is to say that every choice a consumer makes maximizes their utility and obeys the law of demand.

Adam Smith wrote about consumers acting out of self-interest in *The Wealth of Nations* (Smith, 1986). This idea of a self-serving consumer led John Stuart Mill's to argue that consumers should seek the greatest level of happiness. Smith and Mill set the precedent that the consumer is perfectly rational. This became one of the ultimate truisms in economics. It was upon this axiom that many economists based their models.

The idea of a consumer with "perfect rationality" is not without some critics. Herbert Simon contended that a consumer cannot possibly have complete knowledge of economics (Simon, 1972) but it was Daniel Kahneman who put limits on rationality.

Kahneman suggested that pure rationality is unfeasible (Kahneman, 2003). He also supported the idea of "bounded rationality" (Kahneman, 2003). Kahneman explains that consumers perceive their future utility to be higher than is actually experienced (Kahneman, 2006).

Because no study could explain the exact order of thought that goes through one's mind, it seems that the best way to validate either rationality or irrationality is to ask consumers what decisions they make when faced with certain choices.

The intent of this paper is to study the assumption that consumers act rationally. It would be unlikely that consumers are 100% rational or 100% irrational. How a consumer makes a choice is based largely on their preferences and needs. It is hard to persuasively paint an image of a consumer that is ever-wise and calculating. Nor is it believable that consumers are all hasty, emotional choosers the moment money is put in their possession.

Survey Method

The Participants

There were 402 participants in this survey. The participants were asked about their age and gender. There were no significant differences with gender in correlation with rationality. However, there was some correlation between rationality and age which will be discussed in the Findings portion of this paper.

The Survey

With consideration of previous research and a strong desire to avoid any hypothesis bias, a survey was carefully constructed. The first five questions ask about the participants' demographics. The survey asked general questions to measure whether consumers engaged in so-called irrational behavior. Based on a previous study about the rationality of gambling (Delfabbro, 2000), the researchers decided that gambling/lottery was a somewhat "irrational" behavior since it is general knowledge that gambling is almost always not in favor for the gambler. This does not regard any emotional utility gained from gambling.

There are also questions pertaining to impulses and emotions when making purchases. Finally, there are questions about the perception of the participants' own rationality.

All surveys were anonymous to maintain academic integrity. The questions were asked in a manner that was deemed unbiased toward rational or irrational behavior and the answers available allowed for equally rational or irrational responses.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic data was collected on 402 consumers through an online survey. Data analysis was performed using JMP statistical software provided by the SAS Institute. Demographics are shown in Table 1.

Descriptive Group	Subgroup	Count	Proportion
Gender	Female	138	0.3433 (34.3%)
Age	18-20	18	0.0448 (4.5%)
	21-30	37	0.0920 (9.2%)
	31-40	64	0.1592 (15.9%)
	41-50	114	0.2836 (28.4%)

Annual Salary	≤ $ 12,000	45	0.1119 (11.2 %)
	$ 12,001-25,000	35	0.0871 (8.7 %)
	$ 25,001-45,000	66	0.1642 (16.4 %)
Marital Status	Single	70	0.1741 (17.4%)
	Engaged	5	0.0124 (1.2%)
	Married	292	0.7264 (72.6%)

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

Participants were questioned on a scale of 1 to 10 on how rational they considered themselves to be and how rational they considered other consumers to be when making purchases. Table 2 displays the minimum, maximum, median, and mean response for these questions. Participants perceived themselves to be more rational than other consumers.

One of the most interesting results of the survey was the mean difference between the respondent's perception of their own rationality versus the rationality of others. The mean difference was 2.26 points. On average, survey participants view themselves at least 2 "points" more rational than other consumers.

Variable	Min	Max	Median	Mean	SD
Your Rationality	0.0	10.0	8.0	7.4776	1.6640
Others Rationality	0.0	10.0	5.0	5.2164	1.4267

Table 2: Your Rationality and the Rationality of Others

Findings

Five questions asked about purchasing lottery tickets, which is considered

somewhat irrational by the authors since the probability of winning is known to be relatively low. The results show 9 participants actually gambled with borrowed money. Also, 47 participants perceived their chances of winning at lottery to be greater than 25% and 114 believe that luck, destiny, or God influenced their gambling outcomes.

We performed Pearson chi-square tests on the data. We found that participants who are male, who are > 60 years old, and have a salary > $70,000 consider themselves to be more rational than others.

Participants who were male and those > 60 years old were less likely to think their emotions affect their decisions. Participants who were 18 through 30 years old and those who earn < $25,000 were more likely to be influenced by their friends. Participants who were aged 18 through 30 years old were more likely to purchase a want instead of a need. In fact, 120 participants purchased a want instead of a need.

Participants aged 18 through 30 years admitted to purchasing something they wanted that was relatively expensive just because it was expensive.

Conclusions

Many economic theories depend on an assumption that all consumers act rationally. However, this study showed that 89.8% of participants impulsively purchased a product which they later regretted. Additionally, almost 30% of participants purchased a want instead of a need. Further, 29% of the participants purchased an item just because it was expensive. These findings do not support an assumption that consumers are always rational. In fact, some

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THE THREATS TO PHARMACEUTICAL R & D FROM FREE RIDERS

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Abstract

Rising health care costs are, as noted in the debate surrounding the recent passage of the health care reform bill, a significant political and economic issue in the U.S. The high cost of prescription drugs is a significant contributor to these rising costs. This has stirred up considerable debate over the issue of prescription drug costs and concerns that patients are being unfairly taken advantage of by 'greedy' corporations. Pharmaceutical companies counter that prescription drug prices are a result of significant R&D costs, risk, and the existence of 'free riders' in the market. The existence of free riders has led to significant inequities in the distribution of pharmaceutical R&D costs.

R&D Costs

Patent protection is an important factor in motivating and rewarding risk taking and innovation. No one seeks to deny legitimate returns to individuals or organizations that assume the risk of innovation.

Pharmaceutical companies justify their prices as necessary to cover the R&D and FDA approval costs for both their successful products as well as their failures. As a result, the cost of any specific prescription drug is unrelated to the actual cost of manufacture and may not even be directly related to the total costs associated with that specific drug. This can lead to public relations nightmares, such as the negative publicity, which surrounded the pricing of AZT for AIDS patients.

In recent years there has been a significant increase in the number of prescription drugs available and their use. These drugs can either prolong life or enhance the quality of life for their users. A factor in this growth has been the steadily increasing life expectancy of the population. Prescription drug expenses in the US were $320 billion in 2011, over 700% greater than the $40.3 billion spent in 1990 (IMS Health, 2012a). This represents 10.5% of the nations health care costs. Health care costs make up 14.9% of GDP. From 1999 to 2009 there was a 39% increase in the number of retail prescriptions filled (2.8 billion to 3.9 billion). This compares to a population growth of only 9% (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2012). In 2011, 62% of the population was taking at least one prescription drug (IMS Health, 2012a). IMS Health forecasts that global pharmaceutical spending will grow to $1.2 trillion in 2016 (IMS, 2012b).

No one disputes the significant expenditures on R&D and clinical trials by the pharmaceutical companies and the risk involved with successfully bringing a new drug to market. In the U.S. in 2011, pharmaceutical companies spent over $49.5 billion on R&D (PhRMA, 2012). It takes an average of 10 to 15 years and more than $1.2 billion (in constant 2000 dollars) per drug (including failures) for development, animal testing, clinical trials, and FDA approval. (WSJ, 2013). Less than one percent of drugs move from the preclinical phase to the marketplace (WSJ, 2013). Concern was expressed by Janet Woodcock, the FDA's former director of drugs, that the escalating cost of developing new drugs was threatening "a veritable golden age of drug development" (Dickinson, 2004). Creating further difficulties for the pharmaceutical industry, Kim and Marschke found a decline in the patent yield (Kim & Marschke, 2004). This reduction in yield may be a consequence of the fact that "few, if any,

optimization techniques have found there way into the pharmaceutical research portfolio arena." (Coopersmith and Arvesen, 2004).

It is felt that large potential rewards are needed to compensate for the significant risks assumed by pharmaceutical companies in the pursuit of new drugs. Without the potential for significant rewards, funding for R&D will dry up (Donlan, 2000; Glover, 2000; Hess, 2000; Shlaes, 2000; WSJ, 1999; WSJ, 2013). Historically, the long lead times for competitors to develop comparable drugs allowed the patent holders a number of years of 'monopoly' profits. Advances in drug discovery techniques have, in many cases, reduced this time from years to months (Hunt, 2004).

There is disagreement on what constitutes an acceptable level of return for the level of risk assumed and with the validity of the R&D numbers released by the pharmaceutical industry. Pharmaceutical manufacturers were the most profitable U.S. industry from 1995 to 2002 and, in 2007 to 2009 were the third most profitable industry, with profits (as a percent of revenues) of 19.3%, which is approximately three times the Fortune 500 average for all industries (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2012). Many argue that up to 50% of the industry's R&D budget is spent on drugs that add nothing, but are "me too" products in an already crowded market (Angell, 2005) or are merely repackaged versions of an older drug backed by an expensive marketing campaign (Gladwell, 2004). Marcia Angell, former editor-in-chief of the *New England Journal of Medicine*, feels that drug companies charge too much, engage in deceptive research, produce inferior products, borrow the best ideas from government funded scientists, buy the affections of physicians, and are "now primarily a marketing machine to sell drugs of dubious benefit." (Angell, 2005).

Another factor affecting the costs of drugs is the relative inefficiency of the pharmaceutical industry. SG&A expenses account for 17% of a typical large American firm's revenues, but are 33% in the drug industry (even when excluding the large American sales forces). Between 1999 and 2003, the number of pharmaceutical sales representatives in the U.S. increased by 54%, to 90,000. The industry also scores poorly on a number of management and operational efficiency measures (The Economist, 2003).

However, even if one discounts some of the expenses and questions the required level of profit, substantial resources are still required. The question then becomes, from whom are these resources obtained?

Sources of Revenue

Global sales of prescription drugs generate a number of revenue streams. Ideally, revenue is received from all purchasers of the prescription drugs and all purchasers contribute equally to cover R&D expenses and profit margins. However, not all revenue streams are captured by the patent holder and the different revenue streams are not equally profitable.

Counterfeit Drugs

One segment of global revenue of a prescription drug not captured by the patent holder is that of counterfeit drugs. Counterfeit prescription drug sales were an estimated $75 billion in 2010 (Gillette, 2013). According to the World Health Organization, approximately eight to ten percent of pharmaceuticals sold worldwide, and up to 30% of drugs sold in Asia and Latin America in 2011, were counterfeit (AP News, 2012a). It is estimated that, worldwide, upwards of 100,000 people die each year from substandard and counterfeit drugs. China, a leading source of counterfeit drugs, has begun a crack down on counterfeit drugs and, in 2007 arrested and then

executed the director of the nation's food and drug agency for approving counterfeit drugs (Gillette, 2013). In the U.S., the laws against counterfeit drugs are very weak, with minimal consequences for those caught and convicted. Also, it is relatively inexpensive to set up a counterfeit operation — only about $50,000, including $20,000 for a pill press (AP News, 2012a).

Compulsory Licensing

A second area which reduces global revenue for a pharmaceutical patent holder is compulsory licensing. A 2003 WTO agreement on the Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) allowed developing countries facing a public health emergency to issue 'compulsory licenses' to manufacture generic versions of patented drugs. TRIPS, through the Doha Declaration, also allows those same countries to export generic drugs to other developing countries (essentially those on the UN's list of least developed countries) (World Trade Organization, 2006). The differences in prices can be substantial. The price for an antiretroviral triple combination AIDS drug was approximately $10,439 from the originator company in an industrial country. In India, a generic version was priced as low as $201 (Subramanian, 2004). In 2004, Malaysia enacted a law allowing it to import generic AIDS drugs for "noncommercial" or non-profit distribution (Foley, 2005).

Price Controls

For typical products, R&D costs are amortized over the total output. This is then factored in[illegible]

REGULATIONS, BENEFITS AND COMPARISONS OF SEGMENT REPORTING: THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN IFRS 8 AND IAS14

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Abstract

This research paper focuses on the segment reporting of the International Financial Reporting Standards. First, we review the definition of segment reporting and its importance and necessity in contemporary practice. The main differences of two segment reporting disclosure regulations, IFRS 8 versus IAS 14, are then compared. We provide further discussion of the benefits of segment reporting for current accounting practices, and finally, compare the effects of segment reporting IFRS 8 and IAS 14.

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CHINA'S GRADUALISM APPROACH TO SYSTEMIC TRANSFORMATION: SUCCESSES, CHALLENGES

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Abstract

China initiated its process for economic restructuring in 1979. Unlike the 'big bang' approach to systemic transformation adopted by some Eastern European economies that began in the early 1990's, China adopted a calculated and circumspect course of actions in 1979. The year 1979 was a full decade before systematic transformation became commonplace in former Communist economies of the Soviet bloc. Pilot reform projects preceded every key domain in need of restructuring and/or reorientation. Only when successes in the experimental projects proved incontrovertible was the scope of reform permitted to widen and speed accelerate. Paralleling reform measures on the domestic front were China's proactive measures liberalizing its foreign investment and foreign trade policies. The end result is that its reform success has propelled China to being the world's second largest economy merely 30 years after reform began. This paper first provides a historical note elucidating the imperative for economic restructuring. It then highlights the administration's justification for permitting elements of the socialist-market system in a Communist state. An outline form presentation of restructuring on the domestic front is then followed by an examination and analysis of China's liberalizing policies fronting its external economic relations. The paper concludes with highlights on patent successes as well as veiled challenges which, if untended, would likely compromise China's envisioned future successes.

Introduction

Deng Xiaoping succeeded Mao Ze-Dong as China's paramount leader in late 1978. After decades of mismanagement under Mao, Deng's accession to power brought about economic restructuring and modernization to China. Deng's approach to systemic

transformation comprised of calculated phases of economic liberalization. Politically, however, the Communist Party would remain absolute. Thus, economic freedom would not be accompanied by political liberalization.

A Background Note

The People's Republic of China was founded on October 1, 1949. The West immediately imposed an embargo on China. In response, Mao Zedong promptly allied China with the former U.S.S.R and its Warsaw Pact satellite-countries. Financial and technical assistance flowed into China primarily from the former Soviet Union. A host of development projects directed by Soviet experts were agreed upon between the two countries. After Stalin's demise in 1953, Nikita Khrushchev denounced his predecessor's dictatorial reign. Mao, who later proved to be more ruthless and more dictatorial than Stalin, openly denounced Khrushchev's revisionism in 1960. Immediately thereafter, the U.S.S.R. unilaterally annulled all treaties on economic assistance to China. Mao's distrust of foreign powers deepened. "Self reliance" became Mao's maxim for China's development path.

While some economies in the Pacific Rim busied themselves creating preconditions for economic takeoff in the 1950s and 1960s, Mao took China onto a path of economic isolationism. Mao's talent resided in his ability to instigate political movements that espoused "class struggle" and "ideological purity." In the process, tens of millions of people from every social and political stratum ended up in labor camps and prisons. Through fear, Mao nurtured a cult that made him a demigod in China. By the 1970s, the ascending stars over the four Asian Tigers began shining ever brighter while China's economy lagged farther behind.

Shortly before his demise in 1976, Mao designated Hua Guofeng as his successor. Hua attempted to gain support by adhering to Mao's ideology. Hua failed to recognize that the first generation revolutionaries—many of whom were purged by Mao during the so-called "Cultural Revolution" —were setting the stage to dismantle Mao's legacy. During the Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee meeting of the Communist Party in 1978, numerous leaders who had been purged by Mao were officially "rehabilitated." Party leaders who had been removed from office, exiled or publicly humiliated by Mao returned to center stage, with Deng as China's new paramount leader.

Deng was a pragmatist who believed in tangible results. For Deng, truth was to be found in facts and not in ideology. Among the resolutions of the Party's leadership meeting were eliminating "class struggles," restoring economic order, and "seeking truth from facts." The Party's resolution in 1978 was a veiled rebuke of the cult that Mao had carefully cultivated for himself through the fear that he had instilled. However, under no circumstance was the public to question the absolute leadership position and authority of the Communist Party. It was made clear from the onset that political freedom would not be accompanying economic reform.

The dawning of reform commenced in late 1979 under the reform-minded Premiership of Hu Yaobang, with Deng charting the overall direction. A two-pronged reform approach was adopted: (1) reforming facets pertaining to the structure and functioning of the domestic economy; (2) liberalizing foreign economic relations. Integration of China's domestic economy into the world arena began in 1979 with quasi-free market experimentation and phased opening-up of China's economy to the outside world.

Paving the Way for a "Socialistic-Market" System

Under the directive from Deng, the 2nd session of the 5th People's Congress adopted the policy that would permit limited re-emergence of market activities in China. It was the first time since 1949 that the merits of the market system were given circumscribed and tacit approbation. Central Planning, however, was to retain its pivotal role in mapping China's development path. According to Deng, planning does not equate with a socialist system because market economies also resort to planning. Conversely, introducing market mechanism into a socialist economy does not equate with capitalism because markets do exist in socialist economies. Rhetorical jargons aside, Deng was fully cognizant of the Command system's wastefulness and the merits of market efficiency.

Domestic Realms of Reform

Having inherited three decades of structural rigidities and functional inefficiencies from Mao, the scope of Deng's reform scheme was to be wide and the depth profound. With varying speeds, intensities, and sequential orders, parallel reform measures were adopted. All domains required reform, but the initial focus of reform was centered on the most pressing domains, and on those that would reap more immediate and bountiful returns than others.

Given the size of China's population and the complexity of China's social and cultural fabrics, reform in all major domains began with well-defined experimental pilot projects. Select few reform domains are briefly highlighted herewith.

Administrative Decentralization. Structural rigidities required administrative decentralization. Private initiatives were given tacit permission to surface for the first time since

1949. While administrative decentralization began, the scope and the level of the Central Planning Commission were curtailed. Provincial and regional administrations received increased autonomy for planning their respective investment, production, distribution and consumption objectives. On the enterprise level, the state-owned enterprises [SOEs] were granted emerging rights for self-administration, bringing into play the objective measures of costs, values, prices and profits in their decision making processes.

Legal Reform. With the foreknowledge that foreign investment and foreign trade were to be the catalyst for reawakening China's vast productive potentials, new legislative measures governing business relations became indispensable. Concurrent with administrative decentralization was reform in the legal sphere. Within the first ten years of economic reform (1979-1989), China enacted 580 new laws, of which 55 percent dealt with domestic and foreign economic operations and relations.

Agriculture

More than three quarters of China's population were either still directly engaged or working in farm-related industries in 1978. A pilot project began with only 18 farm households in AnHuei province as participants. In late 1978, these 18 households were permitted to work independently from the agricultural communes. The sole stipulation was that they must deliver the assigned production quota to the commune by the end of the season. Yield over and above the assigned quota—instead of going into the commune's coffer—would be awarded to the participating households. The pilot project was a glaring success. In time, farmers elsewhere were permitted to leave their respective communes they had been herded into in the late 1950's and

SOCIAL SECUIRTY AND MEDICATE: AN EARNED ENTITLEMENT

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Abstract

There has been much talk, recently, about government entitlement programs. These programs include food stamps, Medicaid, Medicare, and the Social Security OASDI program. During the Presidential election campaigns, it was noted that 47% of Americans were not paying any income tax, and many of these persons were receiving some type of government assistance. There was an impression that many of those who were receiving entitlements, had not earned them.

This paper attempts to show that with respect to the Medicare and Social Security OASDI programs, the amounts "contributed" to them, plus the earnings that the taxpayer would have earned had these amounts been invested in the stock market, would have grown to an enormous amount. In fact, the programs should be reclassified as "earned entitlement" programs to differentiate them from the "gift" type of programs such as food stamps and Medicaid.

The amount of a worker's paycheck that is "contributed" to the "Social Security / Medicare" system is currently 7.65% up to an earnings level of about $110,000. (actually it is temporarily just 5.65%, but is expected to rise to 7.65% again in 2013). Above about $110,000, only the 1.45% Medicare tax applies. These "contributions" are matched by employer contributions of similar amounts. However, the employer does receive a tax deduction for the "contributions" that he makes on behalf of his employees. This often reduces the effective amount of "contributions" paid into the system by and for the employee to a level of about 12.5% of his wages up to the Social Security limit (currently about $110,000). Similarly, self-employed persons pay a self-employment tax of 15.3% on their first about $110,000 of earnings each year which approximates the employee and employer contribution amounts for an employee.

This paper focuses on a worker that has earnings equal to the Average Wage Index (AWI) for the past 40 years. This hypothetical worker will retire at the end of 2012. Rather than contributing and having amounts contributed on his behalf to the Social Security/Medicare system, this worker instead invests all of these funds into the stock market. To determine the amount that these contributions would grow to, the S&P 500 index that is adjusted for dividend payments is used. Both the case of investing 7.65% and the case of investing 12.5% of a worker's salaries and wages are examined. At the end of 2012, a final amount is determined. From this, a 15% capital gains tax is subtracted. What is left is what the worker's investment would have been worth, had he been allowed to invest in the stock market rather than the payroll tax system.

The results clearly show that the average taxpayer has sacrificed a huge nest-egg to be a part of the "Social Security / Medicare" system. This is definitely an earned entitlement. [note: the

exact amount that the investment would have grown to is not known at this time. It will be computed at the end of 2012…this information will be included in the final paragraph of the abstract when it becomes known].

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ACTION RESEARCH SUSTAINABLE BUSINESS: CASE STUDY PROGRESS IN PERU 2012

Dr Kylene Quinn
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Overview

Economic growth and resource efficiency are two sides of the same coin. They are both prerequisites for the sustainable growth of modern societies and are essential to face the current environmental, social and economic challenges. Growing global scarcity and competition for resources has raised their importance. It has also highlighted the interdependency between economic growth, resource use and the environment.

"Sustainable growth is embedded in the concept of sustainable development, which evolved from environmental concerns, and is based around development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. In industrial terms this means growing industry while keeping the environmental, and also the social and economic impacts at a sustainable level" (The European Commission on Enterprise and Industry Spring 2012 p 1.1).

Methodology

In a recent tour of businesses in Peru, South America, I witnessed the progress Peruvians are making in key industries to increase sustainability of their resources. I used action research methods to research the companies. I plan to return September 2013 to survey more companies and enlarge the sample.

Coffee Industry

David Bisetti, Owner of Bisetti Coffee in Lima is trying to reclaim the "roasterie" idea of brewing coffee at home. In the past, Peruvians have consumed instant coffee while exporting their quality beans overseas. David hopes to teach customers to brew at home, introducing French press machines and teaching cupping classes to educate consumers. David also works with local farmers who produce coffee beans to develop custom roasts that he does in his shop, and links growers with restaurants for greater local consumption. To find out more contact him: David@coffeebisetti

Pamela Cabellos Solei, the Marketing Manager for Starbucks in Peru oversees 45 stores licensed to local investors. The beans are harvested locally, shipped to Seattle for roasting, and returned to Peru packaged as "Peru" coffee and sold in stores. The Arabica from Arica is a project developed with farmers and grant funds from the corporation.

"Educating people about coffee and improving the quality of the product " are Starbucks goals according to Pamela. To David, "Starbucks increased awareness and spread the coffee culture in Peru and standardized coffee prices during the previous 'glut' of coffee. Fair trade pricing and sustainability of crops is important to the industry."

Mining Industry

Urbina Gonzalo (Yale MBA) is an Environmental Scientist working with rural communities on how to value resources such as water and determine environmental impact of operations such as mining. He called Peru the "Capitalist frontier" citing the 60's agrarian reform followed by the 1968 military coup and the 1980's terrorism in rural areas, all left economic chaos. The recent stability of the government has reduced the chaos and lead to a reduction of a dependence on mining. Peru still has the largest Gold Mine in the world jointly

run by Peruvian and American companies. But the difference is now the government is reinvesting its profits in development projects that work according to Gonzalo. Half of the royalties go to local districts for approved infrastructure projects.

Urbina suggests Peru "slow down their growth so as not to repeat what has happened in Brazil". He mentions the 2012 Gancocha project where water rights are being taken back from the government and given to landowners as an attempt for the people of Peru to control more of their own 'destiny'. Taking the 'law into their own hands' was his example of the "Capitalist frontier" as it relates to resources.

Corporate Social Responsibility program at the National Level: Peru 2021

A visit to the offices of 'Peru 2021' and a discussion with Director Henri La Bienvenu Mercado described the business vision for Peru in 2021. He has organized a 90 company partnership around socially responsible goals for the next 9 years. He holds an annual CSR conference and provides awards to companies exhibiting CSR practices. The stories are shared online with links to the companies. Henri says " the environment is the driver of change. While CSR costs the consumer more money the next generation is more willing to pay for it". The NGO has created a code of ethics and they are training companies and enforcing ethical standards. Henri claims "consumers are driving environmental movements such as reducing plastic, sanitary napkins, diapers and other disposables. The carbon footprint and carbon credits, people are being educated that a bottle of water in the toilet tank can make a difference". For more information: Peru2021.org

University Programs

Carlos Orbegozo Roto, MSc. And Professor at the University of Lima is a Green Energy consultant to local firms. He recently attended a seminar of 90 area universities to discuss green energy for residences, industry and transport areas. Topics discussed included: efficient lighting, consumption habits, solar water heaters, smokeless ovens and green building materials. The Universities want to train students and lead the next generation into a "commitment of climate neutrality" consistent with the Clinton Climate Iniative, ESCO and COFIDE. Carlos believes the "learn by doing" model works best when teaching future generations.

Brazil nut Farming

A visit to a brazil nut processing plant in Candela Peru showed the changes going on in that industry to become more sustainable. The farmers collect the nuts in the field from the floor of the Amazon Rainforest. They bring the nuts in for processing. A 68 kg sack pays 270 soles (about 90 US dollars). The nuts are dried to remove any moisture or mold. They rebag and store them until they can be hand sorted to 4 levels of quality. They are then rebagged and stored in burlap until they are sold to a processor. According to the owner "the opening of the Interoceanic highway through Peru from the Pacific to the Atlantic ocean allows them to compete with Brazil by reducing transport cost and time."

Lumber Industry

A visit to Bozovich Lumber Company, the largest exporter of wood products such as Ironwood, reveals a lot has changed in the lumber industry to increase sustainability. In earlier years, according to the owner, lumber was 'clearcut' and now there is no more mahogany or cedar available. Thanks to forest management policies of recent years, wood is more 'selectively' cut and then reforested to allow for greater yields. Important trees are now left as

animal preserves. The owner feels the new policies are helping. “You receive a certificate for providing water tests, leaving certain trees and following the rules, violaters are fined and certificates are removed for not following the rules. This makes it better for everyone.”

Farming Industry

A visit to Mr. Casanova’s organic farm was a lesson in agroforestry for sustainability of crops. Mr. Casanova described that they used to ‘slash and burn’ which damaged the soil, now they rotate crops and use drainage ditches to improve the soil. They can grow ground pineapple, papaya, bananas, plantains, mango and yucca root year round.

Ecotourism Industry

Perhaps one of the best examples of a sustainable business can be found in the Amazon Rainforest at the ECO LODGE Posada Amazonas in Tambopata. Rainforest Expeditions started these lodges (also Refugia Amazonas and Tambopata research center) to train the local people in tourism and eventually turn over the lodges (in 2020) to the locals to run. According to Claus Tiki a leader in the local community the purpose of ecotourism is “to involve the community in the process not just provide a job.” The lodge provides tours of the rainforest to guests, provides electricity only from 6-10 pm and the rooms are open to the rainforest no walls or doors to keep creatures out. The hope is that guests will become “one” with the rainforest and learn to respect its role in the environment. For more information: www.perunature.com or info@rainforest.com.pe

U.S. companies such as Crooked Trails of Seattle WA take tourists on volunteer

village

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ENHANCING STUDENT PARTICIPATION THROUGH TECHNOLOGY AND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Barbara Lamberton
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Abstract

Increasingly, business educators look to innovative teaching methods to provide students with a transforming and exciting learning environment. One of the challenges in teaching is to stimulate creativity and teamwork while encouraging participation of all the students. Most business students need additional learning experiences to help them develop team building skills, "think outside of the box" and learn how to build a consensus among team members with divergent perspectives. This paper presents the results of quasi-experimental study that compared the effectiveness of storyboarding (with and without technology) to traditional classroom exercises in managerial accounting. A collaborative management technique used by many businesses, storyboarding has been proved to be an effective management technique in business. Yet, little or no experimental research has been done on examining the value of storyboarding in an educational setting.

The total number of study participants included 71 students with 32 students being part of the control group and 39 being part of the experimental group. The results indicate that most students agreed or strongly agreed that storyboarding helps to establish an atmosphere that encourages everyone to participate. The majority of students also felt that storyboard helps them generate more solutions, makes a boring assignment more interesting, and gives them a better chance to participate. In terms of technology enabled storyboarding, most students felt that technology enhanced the storyboarding process and increased their mastery of accounting learning objectives.

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Visioning Beyond Debits and Credits: Utilizing Applied Research to Develop Innovative Business and Accounting Graduate and Undergraduate Curriculum

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Abstract

Accounting has evolved from simple balance sheet preparation to management of complex transactions within the contemporary business environment. Existing research suggests accounting curricula and instructional methodologies persistently fail to develop professionally relevant skills among students to poise them for successful transition into the workforce. These deficiencies include: (1) communication; (2) technology; (3) problem solving; (4) critical thinking; and (5) international accounting. As business structures and demand for various types of financial reporting evolves, academic institutions must critically assess current and emergent programs. Through this process, organizational leaders' acute awareness of a myriad of curriculum (e.g., accreditation criteria, market demand, trend development anticipation) and ethical (e.g., social responsibility; ethical decision making) dimensions is imperative. Further, they must discern how program (re) conceptuatlization exists within both the academic institutions' mission (e.g., liberal arts education) and marketplace demand. The purpose of the current study is two-fold. First, the authors explore convergent and divergent forces which have shaped (both positively and negatively) accounting education (e.g., historical perspective of accounting education, theory, internal controls, corporate governance, higher education institutions' social responsibility). Second, the authors discuss integration of these data with primary qualitative research conducted (among accounting students and organizational leaders) to develop an innovative accounting curriculum program proposal for undergraduate and graduate students.

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Rural Field Experiences with Urban Pre-Service Teachers

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Abstract

Urban pre-service teachers often only have experiences in classrooms and schools that are very similar to those they attended as P-12 students. This lack of diverse experiences leads pre-

service teachers to see elementary education in a very limited scope. Most existing studies examining education system are focused on urban education systems. While this is still an area for research, the lack of meaningful multicultural preparation and the fact that most teachers come from isolated ethnic groups create problems for functional multicultural understanding.

The partnership between two universities from different states (one rural and the other urban) allowed pre-service teachers from both areas to spend one week within the other state's P-12 schools, tutoring, observing, and teaching in order to understand the differences and similarities between urban and rural education. This collaboration has helped better define learning outcomes that urban pre-service teachers experience when exposed to varied field experiences.

This article is based on qualitative data that have been collected through student discussions and reflective journals. The data show that urban pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices fundamentally changed due to this experience. They were exposed to a variety of pedagogies and disciplinary measures that were both new and effective. Findings include the students' initial biases prior to the experience and how they evolved. This paper presents empirical evidence to support recommendations for program improvement and pre-service teacher learning in the area of diversity.

Keywords: Rural and urban education, teacher preparation, cultural awareness, bias.

Introduction

According to Melnick & Zeichner (1995), most teacher preparation programs seek a pluralistic view of education, yet provide their candidates with monolistic experiences. In other words, teacher preparation programs believe in providing multicultural education from various perspectives (i.e. urban, suburban, and rural) yet only have their candidates complete field work in one setting. Due to current challenging economic times, this phenomenon continues. Few colleges of education can offer their pre-service teachers cultural exchanges as a part of their training without an established funding source, which requires institutions to substantiate their practices with research.

Most of the existing studies examining the education system are focused on urban education systems. Therefore, the state of rural education systems is greatly under researched. Very few attempts to close the rural and urban educational achievement gap have been made (Whittle & Denaux, 2007).

The lack of meaningful multicultural preparation, and the fact that most teachers come from isolated ethnic groups, usually excludes direct meaningful interaction with different cultures, and creates problems for functional multicultural understanding (Cannella & Reiff, 1994; Fereshteh, 1995; Gay, 1993; Russo & Talbert-Johnson, 1997). Meaningful interaction entails sufficient exposure to other types of students so that teacher trainees gain an understanding that there are cultural differences and commonalities between themselves and other students in terms of general worldviews, how lives are lived, and how families are organized and disciplined. Having this knowledge of others can surely facilitate communication between teachers and students of other cultures, which may lead to healthy relationships, student satisfaction, and positive learning climates for both teachers and students.

This article presents recommendations for effective teacher preparation in the area of diversity, and will enhance the ability to describe practices for program approvals, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accreditation, and Specialty Professional Association (SPA) recognition for standards concerned with diversity. The methodology and outcomes originate from an appreciation of multiple perspectives that are shaped by the active role of each one of the participants in the project.

Background

Several years ago the College of Education, where the authors of the present article work and study (Urban Institution 1), established a partnership with another institution from a rural environment (Rural Institution 2). The partnership concept originated while discussing diversity issues at an NCATE conference in the fall of 2006. During one of the discussions, it was noted that one aspect of diversity that may had been overlooked was location (urban, suburban, or rural) of schools. Most of the teacher candidates from the urban institution had gone to school and done their fieldwork in an urban environment, and they were not as well rounded as they could have been. They had limited exposure to different populations from suburban and rural locations. Urban Institution 1 proposed that their candidates might have preconceived biases about rural populations, rural teaching, and rural schools that should be explored.

Institution 2 had, at that time, been bringing their teacher candidates from the rural environment to the city where Institution 1 is located, in order to have an urban experience during their teacher preparation program. Through this partnership, a program where teacher candidates were offered an opportunity to participate in field experiences in a different setting was developed. It was decided that Institution 1 would explore sending teacher candidates to a rural area to engage in a weeklong immersion model as well. This would conclude with the candidates teaching a lesson within the school(s) and classroom(s) they were placed.

Consequently, Institution 1 sent several administrators to the area where Institution 2 is located to look at schools and develop partnerships that could lead to such an experience. The representatives looked at three schools initially, and selected two for the candidates to begin the program. It was decided to hold the first experience over spring break in 2007 so there would be little disruption to the coursework of the candidates. As a result, a fall exchange where rural pre-service teachers come to Urban Institution 1 to discuss their weeks' experiences in urban schools and a spring immersion week at rural/tribal schools has occurred each year since the partnerships was established.

Literature Review

There are three essential concepts that have guided this study: (1) rural vs. urban education, (2) bias, and (3) diversity, cultural awareness and acceptance. A discussion of the three areas is presented below.

Rural education vs. urban education

Does it make sense to take urban pre-service teachers to rural schools to complete a portion of their clinical field hours as a means to become better teachers who develop the capacity to meet the needs of diverse learners? The precursory answer may seem to be an easy, "No." After all, rural schools face unique student populations (Barley & Bringham, 2008). Their unique set of circumstances are high poverty, low education levels of parents, need for teachers to have expertise in several subject areas, and an economic difficulty in offering varied content courses.

However, McCracken and Barcenas (1991) conclude that it might be wise to require pre-service teachers to have clinical field experiences in rural schools. After studying responses of seniors and high school administrators from 10 rural schools and five urban schools in Ohio, they note:

> It appears that there are disadvantages to being either very large or very small. The challenge is to provide stimulating learning environments with the broad educational programs characteristic of large urban schools along with the supportive social structure characteristic of small rural schools (p. 39).

Both rural and urban schools claim difficulties in recruitment of highly trained teachers. Teacher turnover and economic hardships are major obstacles for providing quality education to their students (Barley & Bringham, 2008; Ingersol & Merrill, 2010). It appears that the struggle to provide meaningful teacher training, or the purview of a particular location is not new. In a report about the annual convention of the New England Educators published in the *Journal of Education* (Winship, 1920), conclusions were made that rural teachers need specialized training to meet the needs of their students. Truscott and Roden (2006) claim the need for specialized training to meet the mismatch of urban students and their teachers as one measure are needed to offset high teacher attrition rates in urban schools. A common conclusion despite the school's location is the call for pre-service teachers to spend more time in the classroom to come to know the students, their parents, and the communities (Barley & Bringham, 2008; Ingersol & Merrill, 2010).

A study from the US Department of Education released in 2012 discusses survey results of over 15,000 first year teachers in 2009. Data breakdowns by rural, urban, and suburban school locations demonstrate that urban teachers (52.3%) are less likely to be teaching subjects that they are certified to teach than their rural (68.9%) and suburban (63.1%) counterparts. Grade point averages show no discernible difference at 3.4 for urban and rural teachers, while 39% of urban teachers reported attending a highly selective university and only 21% for rural teachers.

The literature seems to point to a long-standing need for teacher training in the field and that while there are differences in rural and urban education, there are also commonalities that are still worth exploring.

Worldview development and bias

> A woman is making a ham in the oven and prior to baking it, cuts off the ends. When questioned by her daughter as to why, she replies, "That is how it is done. I learned it from my mom, your grandmother." The girl persists and the mother calls the grandmother to ask why. The grandmother replies, "That is how it is done." The girl still

> isn't satisfied. She asks her grandmother to call her great-grandmother and ask why. The grandmother reluctantly agrees and calls the great-grandmother. The grandmother asks the great-grandmother, "Why do we cut the ends off of hams before we cook them?" The great-grandmother states, "I don't know why you do, but I do because I don't have a pan that will fit a full size ham!"

According to Koppelman (2014, p. 9) bias is "a feeling in favor of-or opposed to-anything or anyone." This is contrasted with a stereotype that "always refer to people." Therefore, an educator could be biased towards any aspect of education: pedagogy, curriculum, geographical region, standards, classroom setup, management techniques and/or students, to name a few.

Biases contribute to a person's outlook. Coben and Ratner (1983, p. 5) correlate bias and cultural tendencies, when they indicate:

> Members of a society share the prevailing cultural tendencies in different degrees. These differences can be traced to factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, nationality, and social class…cultural variations in the United States can also be traced to distinctions between urban and rural life and between geographical areas.

Hence, a myriad of diverse and complex factors interact to influence how people view the world. Both environment and various constructs (i.e. religion, culture, etc.) shape a person's reality.

> Each person has his or her own personal story about the nature of reality. Genetic tendencies, religion, culture, and geographic region, together with all the experiences people have both internally and in relationship to their environments, give rise to their *worldview*, or their general way of viewing themselves and the world around them (Schlitz, Vieten, & Miller, 2010).

We call this reality a "worldview." Worldview, then, is a construct of biases from one's own reality. An educator from a minority group in an urban environment will have a different worldview (set of biases) than a Caucasian educator from a rural environment.

Grey (2010, pp. 1-2) indicates that teachers often "have great difficulty understanding the community and the social or academic settings in which they find themselves," and teachers' beliefs greatly affect how and what material is delivered to students (Reys, Lindquist, Lambdin & Smith, 2009; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991). Therefore, biases formed from a worldview towards rural or urban education can very easily exist, and can dramatically affect what a teacher expects to see, as well as what is delivered to students in these settings.

Diversity, cultural awareness and acceptance

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Improving Preschool Family/Student Motivation and Achievement through Multicultural Teaching and Learning

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Abstract: During a one-week research project at a university early childhood center, located in the southeast United States, the researcher collaborated with several stakeholders—parents and educators to explore the inclusion of 10 multicultural educational experiences to familiarize twenty, three to five-year olds about the diversity and family practices of the Chinese, Korean, African-American, Hispanic, and Native American cultures. Findings for this qualitative study drew perspectives collected during observations of classroom instruction, interviews with parents, children, and student teachers, intern reflections, and videotaping of children's spontaneous interaction. One aim of this exploratory study was to forge trusting partnerships between parents (of five distinct countries) and educators at the early childhood center in an effort to meaningfully incorporate each child's household and cultural knowledge with

classroom instruction. A second aim of this study was to enrich the children's regular classroom learning with developmentally appropriate activities that instilled in them a greater appreciation of people around the world. This study illustrates the intrinsic value of classroom teachers integrating multiculturalism with daily classroom routines from the beginning of a child's school learning with the goal of nurturing respect for and acceptance of others.

The Use of Dispositional Assessment in Teacher Preparation Programs as a Means of Preparing Ethically Responsible Teachers

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Abstract

At the turn of the century the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Educators (NCATE) added the assessment of dispositions to the standards for teacher education programs. More than a decade later teacher preparation institutions still struggle with how to define and assess the dispositions of their teacher education candidates. While it is often clear-cut as to whether a candidate has the knowledge and skills to become a teacher, it is much more difficult to determine if the proper dispositions exist. Even more challenging is the process involved when unacceptable dispositions surface in a candidate. Should a candidate be counseled out of the program? Can a candidate legally be removed from a program or denied licensure for dispositional issues alone? Are dispositions inborn or can they change with experience? This paper looks at one institution's journey in exploring these questions and ambiguities in assessing disposition of teacher education candidates. While the journey produced as many questions as answers, it was evident that change was necessary in the current dispositional assessment process. After reviewing many options, a pilot project was implemented in the fall of 2010 with full implementation in the fall of 2011. The new process provided validity and reliability that was previously missing. However, after further review of the literature, as well as data collected during implementation of the new process, a need for additional change emerged, most noticeably the need for candidates to engage in self, group and written reflection surrounding the disposition process and assessment data.

Keywords: Dispositions, Standards, Assessment, Reflection

Introduction

The media is plagued with stories about teachers who have behaved in a manner unbecoming their profession. In Ohio alone, the Department of Professional Conduct received 8,252 allegations of misconduct against teachers in 2010. This number continues to rise each year and has nearly doubled since the 4, 771 allegations in 2005 (Office of Professional Conduct 2010 Annual Report- Submitted to the State Board of Education May 2011). So it would seem obvious that colleges and universities that prepare teachers would have solid gates in place to assure that no candidate is being licensed if there is any doubt of the student's ethical credibility. Not necessarily the case, however, as a couple cases of blatant and repeated dishonest behavior by teacher education candidates in 2007-2008 prompted one faculty member to investigate university policies and procedures for dealing with such misconduct.

In the first scenario, a student had missed numerous classes for what appear to be a very good reason. Her mother was dying of cancer, the student had medical power of attorney, and the mother was in a hospital three hours away. So there were many occasions, i.e., emergency surgeries or near death experiences when the student needed to return home. Faculty was very supportive of her needs during this difficult time and allowed classroom attendance and assignments to be the least of her worries. Imagine the shock when, about six weeks into the semester, she confessed that the stories about her mother had all been lies. In fact, she had been living this lie for the past three semesters.

In the second situation, several faculties had e-mailed concerns to an advisor about an education major who had habitually missed class. Throughout several meetings with him and communication with faculty members, it appeared he was having a string of bad luck. He had been in the hospital on one occasion, a death in the family on another, and on still another occasion he and his mother were involved in an automobile accident. When one of his professors called his house to check on them his mother was unaware of any recent hospital stay, any recent death in the family and certainly no automobile accident. These two scenarios, both happening in the same academic year, led one faculty member on a search for possible answers to the following question: What processes are in place at teacher preparation institutions to monitor and assess the ethical and moral qualities of teacher education candidates?

When asked whether a student could be denied licensure on grounds of such unethical behavior, both the education department chair and assistant dean of the College of Education were unsure of the answer. There were definite gates in place as students progressed through the program, but all were linked to academic success. Candidates had to maintain a certain grade point average, obtain a C or better in certain key courses and earn predetermined cut off score on Praxis exams; but there was nothing in writing about being removed from the program or denied licensure approval by the institution based on ethical misconduct.

Conversation with the university legal counsel also took place and the result was discouraging as well. The major area of concern was the lack of an official process in place whereby students were made aware in writing of the conduct expected of them throughout their education program. Without such a written contract holding them to certain expected behaviors, it would be difficult to deny a student licensure based on behavior such as blatant lying when all other requirements were successfully met.

Soliciting ideas from other teacher preparation institutions became the next step in answering how to deal with behavior unbecoming a professional. When asked about monitoring ethical

behavior of teacher education candidates, representatives from a plethora of teacher preparation institutions referred to disposition forms as their means for documenting such behavior. Therefore a review of the literature as well as a focus on conference sessions pertaining to the topic of dispositions became the next phase of this investigative process.

Literature Review

The literature on dispositions is grounded in philosophy and psychology. Much has been written on the topic, or similarly the topic of "habits" (Dewey, 1922; Arnstine, 1967; Katz and Rath,1985; Covey,1989; and Ritchart, 2002). There is definitely lack of consensus as to whether the two terms are synonymous; but a review of disposition definitions throughout the literature strongly suggests a relationship between the two constructs.

"Educators are just beginning to grapple with the definitional and philosophical aspects of the construct (dispositions)" (Dottin, 2010, p. xiii). While many have attempted to define the term, there is ambiguity and inconsistency in its definition (Katz, 1993).While others such as Arnstine (1967) may have discussed the concept of dispositions as it relates to the field of education, Katz and Raths (1985) are credited with suggesting that the concept of dispositions be a goal in teacher education (Freeman, 2007). Prior to the mid-1980s many other terms were utilized instead of dispositions. In addition to knowledge and skills, for example, one often heard reference, to attitudes and values as essential elements for teachers. While knowledge and skills still remain a central issue to teacher quality, a central element to educational professional standards is dispositions (Thornton, 2006).

"Behavior in reacting to certain circumstances" seems to be a theme running through many contemporary definitions of dispositions. Damon (2007), for example, surmises that "a disposition is a trait or characteristic that is imbedded in temperament and disposes a person toward certain choices and experiences that can shape his or her future" (p. 367). Similarly Villegas (2007) refers to "tendencies for individuals to act in a particular manner under particular circumstances, based on their beliefs" (p. 374). Ritchart (2001) refers specifically to habits when defining dispositions as "habits of minds including both cognitive and affective attributes that filter ones knowledge, skills and beliefs and impact the actions one takes in classroom or professional settings…"(p. 144). While Rinehart (2002) suggests a distinction between the two terms when he discusses a disposition as a range of similar reactions or responses when approaching like situations whereas a habit is more of a "mindless and automatic response that is not readily controllable" (p. 20).

With the use of such terms as choice and tendencies in the above definitions, one might conclude that individuals have some control over dispositional factors. And if dispositions are choice responses to situations then the question remains can acceptable dispositions be taught? That may be the hope of many teacher preparation institutions that comes across candidates who have displayed poor dispositional choices. The general consensus is yes. Indeed, Oser (1994) argues that dispositions are not inborn and can be malleable. Dewey (1922) proposed such a belief when he emphasized the importance of acquisition and development of dispositions. He referred

to learning from experience as "the power to retain from one experience something which is of avail in coping with the difficulties of a later situation. This means power to develop dispositions. Without it, the acquisition of habits is impossible" (1944, p. 45).

Recent popularity in the concept of dispositions can be attributed to standards and accreditation. The National Board for the Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) was created in 1987 and shortly thereafter issued its first policy statement: What Teachers Know and Should be Able to Do. This policy contained five core propositions that formed the foundation and framework for the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and beliefs that characterize a National Board Certified Teacher (nbpts.org). In 1992, under the leadership of Linda Darling Hammond, the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) standards were approved. These standards addressed indicators of knowledge, dispositions and performance pertaining to 10 principles of effective teaching. At the turn of the century the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Educators (NCATE) added the assessment of dispositions to the standards for teacher education programs. In its glossary of term, NCATE defines dispositions as

> the values, commitments, and professional ethics that influence behaviors toward students, families, colleagues, and communities and affect student learning, motivation and development as well as the educator's own professional growth. Dispositions are guided by beliefs and attitudes related to values such as caring, fairness, honesty, responsibility and social justice. For example, they might include a belief that all students can learn, a vision of high and challenging standards, or a commitment to a safe and supportive learning environment (2001, p. 30).

The recent popularity of dispositions seems to validate the importance of the construct, but ambiguities still prevail. The NCATE definition of dispositions provides examples of characteristics that teacher should possess such as caring, honesty, fairness and respect; but it does little to define what elements comprise target dispositions (Johnston). Likewise, there is little or no guidance with how to measure such dispositions and what actions to take when target dispositions are not obtained.

These same questions baffle many teacher education preparation programs and have been the subject of much debate in the past decade following the requirement of dispositional assessment in the NCATE standards. Just as a review of the literature on dispositions proved to be ambiguous, so too did what was being presented at conference sessions. Granted, there were plenty to choose from, but the sessions varied greatly in content and context. Granted, the context as well as the number of sessions were somewhat dependent one the conference theme; however, as the chart below suggests, dispositions has been a topic of interest at the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) Annual Conference for the past nine years.

Table 1: Summary of Disposition Related Sessions Presented at the ATE Annual Winter Conferences

Year	# of Session with "Dispositions" in the title
2005	4
2006	6
2007	12
2008	13
2009	7
2010	10
2011	29
2012	7
2013	5

One particular session of interest to this researcher, was one presented at the 2010 ATE conference by Rinaldo, et. al. from Niagra University. They were an NCATE institution that had to answer to accreditation issues around disposition. Likewise, they also recognized that there was an occasional disconnect between a student's strong academic success and his/her ability to transfer that knowledge to practice in the classroom setting. With a focus on reliability and validity, as well as legal issues surrounding assessing the intangibles, they designed an assessment tool that was representative of the total learning process as opposed to just the cognitive processes. Their process involved a high degree of accountability at many levels beginning with the student. Upon acceptance into the program all students had to sign two copies of the "Statement of Commitment to Dispositions" which exposed them to the behavioral expectations of good teaching. All instructors were provided with rating forms and kept a record of student behavior that deviated from acceptable behavior of someone wishing to enter the teaching profession. At the end of each semester, the department chair aggregated the data using a definitive scoring process. Students who received two or more scores below an acceptable level were flagged. If it was their first offense, they received a letter from the department chair which required them to engage in written reflection including a plan of action. If it was there second offence, they had to meet with an adhoc committee to determine next steps which could include continuing on with the program or being counseled out of the program.

Assessment of Dispositions

A proven instrument and process seemed like a good fit for what was missing, in the existing process. In response to the recent concerns about dispositions, a committee had been formed to look at the current process. September of 2009 was the inaugural meeting of this adhoc committee. Some of the discussion centered around a need to look at past data to inform any decisions as well as reviewing NCATE's definition and position on dispositions. Still other discussion centered around the need to develop a new instrument to replace the existing one – an instrument that was valid and reliable and where the data could be used for more than just to satisfy an accreditation requirement. In May of 2010, the Rinaldo work was shared with the committee and there was agreement that it contained important items missing from our current

Teaching Critical Skills: The Influence of 3D Virtual World Simulation

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Abstract

Educational methods are changing based on learning needs of the 21st century student. Educators are challenged to develop methods that address critical skills. Traditionally, students perform simulation in a laboratory setting. However, because of technological advances, simulations can be conducted in settings called virtual worlds. Many disciplines use virtual reality as an effective method to simulate critical skills. Nursing has yet to establish the effectiveness of virtual reality as an educational approach**.** The purpose of this study was to investigate if a 3D virtual world was an effective method for simulating critical skills. This study explored satisfaction, self-confidence, and how important simulation design factors were with virtual world simulation. This was a descriptive, quasi-experimental single group nonrandomized design with subjects as their own controls. Data were collected from a convenience sample of 59 nursing students between the ages of 20 to 61. Results indicated students were more satisfied with traditional simulation but satisfaction scores for virtual simulation were strong and not affected by age, gender, or ethnicity. Students with computer gaming experience were more satisfied with virtual simulation than students without gaming experience. Self-confidence and importance of simulation design were not different between the two methods. In conclusion, virtual simulation may be an appropriate educational platform for simulation. The use of technology will increase as platforms become more accessible and sophisticated. Expanse of distance learning will require alternative methods to practice and simulate skills. Educators must look at emerging platforms to identify the most effective methods.

Keywords: virtual world, simulation, critical skills, nursing

With advances in technology, teaching and learning environments look very different from the traditional classrooms of yesterday. Many methods and platforms exist to deliver

educational content. Selecting the best method and platform to deliver educational content is important if students are going to learn, retain, and apply educational concepts. Brown and Alder (as cited in Skiba, Connors, & Jeffries, 2008) believe the educational scene is a "perfect storm" (p. 226) with opportunities for new philosophies and teaching approaches. These new approaches must be investigated for efficacy prior to initiation across a curriculum.

Once considered science fiction, virtual reality is now a platform that can be used in higher education. This platform is an interesting way to measure cognitive, psychomotor performance, and decision-making abilities (Davis, 2009). A variety of virtual reality platforms exist, this article presents one of those platforms, computer-based, three-dimensional (3-D) environments known as virtual worlds (VWs). These VWs are free, Internet-based, social networks that allow users to communicate, collaborate, and manipulate objects within a virtual environment. These VWs are an emerging platform in higher education with opportunities for teaching, learning, and simulation training (Chodos, Naeimi, & Stroulia, 2009).

Simulation training consists of activities that imitate a real-life environment that allows demonstration of procedures and decision-making (Jeffries, 2005). Nursing uses simulation to teach critical course concepts (Fountain & Alfred, 2009), to promote critical thinking, and clinical judgment (Bambini, Washburn, & Perkins, 2009) as well as to augment required clinical hours (Jeffries, 2009; Schmidt and Stewart, 2010). Traditionally, students perform simulation activities in a face-to-face laboratory or classroom setting. Simulation methods include the use of human patient simulators, standardized patients, integrated models, and computer-based virtual patients (Li, 2007). However, because of technological advances, these same simulations can now be conducted in virtual worlds.

Other disciplines have used high-fidelity (HF) human patient simulators as well as virtual reality as an effective method to simulate critical skills (Creutzfeldt, Hedman, Medin, Heinrichs, & Fellander-Tsai, 2010; Taylor et al., 2011; Youngblood, et al., 2008). Davis (2009) reports virtual simulations do exist in many areas of science but only a few empirical studies exist using computerized virtual simulation in health care settings. A review of the literature finds multiple disciplines and professions using VWs for varied educational purposes, examples include: Language Arts, Law, Marketing, Social Sciences, Health Sciences, Aviation, Military, and Medicine. However, the use of virtual reality in nursing is "largely unexplored" (Kilmon, Brown, Ghosh, Mikitiuk, 2010, p. 2).

Nursing is challenged with developing methods that address critical skills to achieve competence in nursing. However, the challenge is how to utilize simulation in a variety of integrated methods throughout the entire curriculum (Schiavenato, 2009). If the method of instruction is meaningful and effective, nursing will graduate competent nurses who provide safe patient care. Nursing is unable to justify the effectiveness of virtual reality as an educational approach to simulate critical skills because there is a lack of research within the discipline. Therefore, the door is open to explore innovative ways to deliver simulation training.

The purpose of this study was to determine if 3D VW simulation was an effective learning method for simulating critical nursing skills. This study emphasized two research components: (a) exploration of nursing student satisfaction, self-confidence, and how important the simulation design features are with high fidelity and virtual reality simulation methods in a mock code scenario and (b) identification of relationships between select demographic variables and nursing student satisfaction with virtual simulation.

Theoretical Framework

Nursing education necessitates learning in a practice environment heavily supported by experiential learning frameworks (Paige & Daley, 2009). However, Paige and Daley (2009) describe experiential learning as an *umbrella* term that does not provide direction when educators need to structure teaching and learning approaches. The foundation of experiential learning involves a correlation between an individual, the learning, and the experience; whereas, situated cognition, a form of experiential learning, offers a more concise approach to guide high fidelity simulation (HFS) (Paige & Daley, 2009).

Teaching and learning in 3D virtual environments is relatively new to nursing; therefore, specific frameworks to support virtual simulation within the discipline of nursing do not exist. However, Situated Cognition as a Learning Framework, by Paige and Daley (2009), includes key attributes that not only support HFS but can also support learning in a 3D virtual world.

This learning theory is appropriate for application in a variety of settings in which students interact, collaborate, and learn with others. Key elements of this framework include: knowledge is situated, learners generate their own knowledge through socialization with other learners, and learning is not transferable, but must be transformed when applied to new contexts (Paige & Daley, 2009). Virtual worlds allow learners to interact, collaborate, and construct knowledge with other learners, manipulate virtual objects and images through the use of technology, and perform functions tied to an activity such as a simulation. Therefore, the Situated Cognition Learning Framework by Paige and Daley (2009) is an appropriate framework to support virtual world nursing simulations. The model below depicts the four principles and three interacting components that make up Situated Cognition Framework (Figure 1.1).

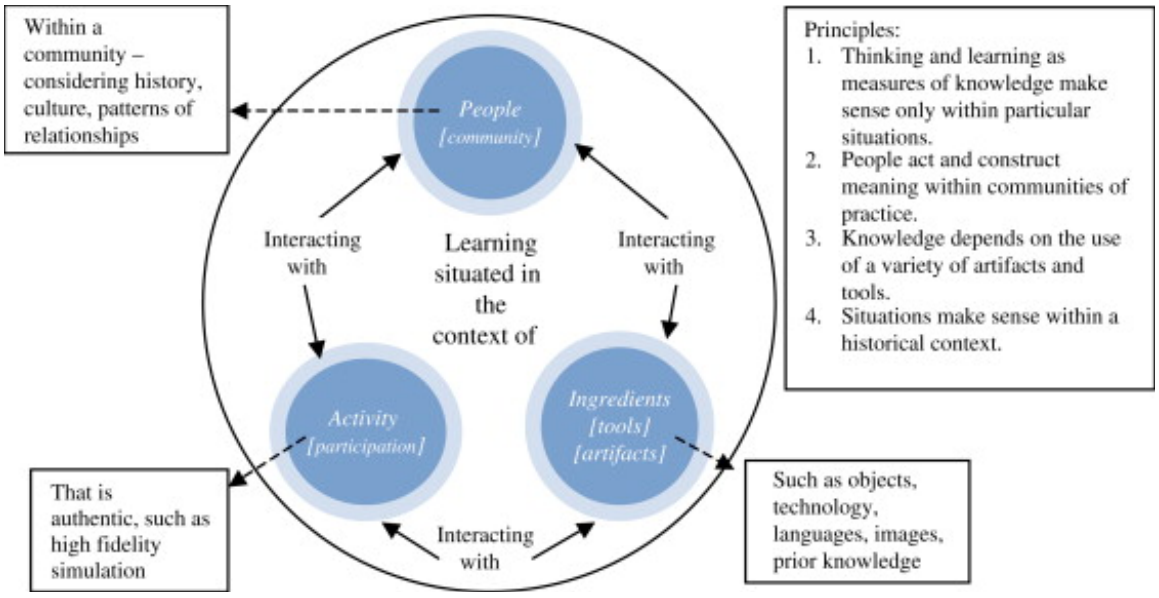

Figure 1.1 Situated Cognition Framework by Paige and Daley (2009)

Review of the Literature

Critical skills for nursing include basic life support (BLS), advanced cardiovascular life support (ACLS), and simulating mock codes. Previous studies indicate simulation is useful for BLS training (Ackermann, 2009; Krahn, 2011; Lateef, 2010), useful for ACLS training (Lateef, 2010) and useful for mock code training for nursing students (Bruce et al., 2009; Kardong-Edgren & Adamson, 2009; Leighton & Scholl, 2009). High fidelity simulation is one of the most common platforms in nursing to teach critical skills and foster clinical reasoning.

When HFS is used to teach the critical skills of BLS and ACLS, an initial increase in knowledge and skills was found (Ackermann, 2009; Bruce et al., 2009; Hoadley, 2009). However, when participants were retested at four to six weeks (Bruce et al., 2009) and at three months (Ackermann, 2009) a significant decrease in knowledge and skills occurred. Therefore, retention of BLS skills declined over time. Hoadley (2009) also found that skill performance was not significantly higher when HFS was used when compared to low fidelity simulation. The results of these studies indicate a need for repetitive exposure to these critical skills to increase retention.

Regardless of the extent of knowledge and skills retained with HFS learning, students report satisfaction with HFS as a learning method, a greater level of self-confidence in skills, and satisfaction with the design features of HFS (NLN & Laerdal Medical, 2006; Dobbs et al., 2006; Kuznar, 2007; Smith and Roehrs 2009; Levett-Jones 2011). *Objectives and problem*-solving were important predictors of satisfaction and self-confidence (National League of Nursing & Laerdal Medical, 2006). When HFS is compared to low or medium fidelity simulation, students reported satisfaction and self-confidence regardless of the fidelity of the simulation (National League of Nursing & Laerdal Medical, 2006; Levett-Jones et al., 2011). Research studies, using HFS to teach critical skills, are limited and additional research is needed to determine if HFS is more effective in teaching and retention of critical skills than other simulation methods.

Researchers at the University of Texas (UT) believe nursing students can improve their cognitive and behavioral skills in critical situations through virtual gaming simulations (University of Texas at Dallas, 2011). These virtual gaming simulations can be conducted in 3D computer-based virtual worlds. The VW's allow users to interact with others in real-time through animated avatars and the use of voice or text chat (Tilley & Kaihoi, 2011). Because virtual simulations are computer-based, students can practice critical skills and processes independently or collaboratively in groups in a safe environment, regardless of location or time. This feature permits repetitive exposure, which may lead to an increase in retention of critical knowledge and skills for nursing. As a bonus, virtual simulations may work well for distance learning programs.

Virtual simulation may be an effective method for learning (Youngblood et al., 2008; Schmidt and Stewart 2009, 2010; Creutzfeldt et al., 2010; Wiecha, Heyden, Sternthal, & Merialdi, 2010). Youngblood et al., (2008) and Creutzfeldt et al., (2010) both reported positive results when using a VW to simulate critical skills. Youngblood et al., (2008) found VW simulation to be as effective as HFS when team leadership skills were used to manage a virtual emergency department (ED) trauma case. Creutzfeldt et al., (2010) found knowledge, self-efficacy, and concentration increased after a VW simulation but when subjects were retested six-months later, retention of cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) knowledge and self-efficacy declined. However, when the virtual simulation was repeated, knowledge, self-efficacy, and concentration levels increased again. Both authors (Youngblood et al., 2008 & Creutzfeldt et al.,

2010) stated repeated practice and exposure to critical skills is needed to increase knowledge retention.

A variety of user experiences were evaluated with virtual simulation (Youngblood et al., 2008; Schmidt and Stewart 2009, 2010; Creutzfeldt et al., 2010, and Wiecha et al., 2010). Results indicate subjects believed the 3D VW was an effective method for learning (Youngblood et al., 2008; Schmidt & Stewart 2009, 2010; Creutzfeldt et al, 2010; Wiecha et al., 2010), and when multiple virtual activities were provided, users rated the virtual simulations as the most useful for learning (Schmidt & Stewart, 2010; Wiecha et al., 2010). Self-confidence scores also increased after virtual simulation activities (Youngblood et al., 2008; Wiecha et al., 2010).

Virtual simulation design features were evaluated; results revealed VW development is time-consuming to build, can be costly, requires specific hardware and software, and takes time to orient users to the program (Wiecha et al., 2010; Schmidt and Stewart 2009, 2010). The use of VW's was superior to other online methods of education but not superior to face-to-face methods (Wiecha et al., 2010). Virtual world simulations are realistic and useful for learning (Youngblood et al., 2008; Creutzfeldt et al., 2010).

The results from these studies are promising, indicating 3D VWs may be an effective method for teaching critical skills. Research on virtual simulation is limited, and existing studies have small sample sizes and use specialized clinical simulation activities. Therefore, this study was designed to address the gap in literature and investigate if 3D VW simulation is an effective method to teach critical nursing skills.

Methodology

A descriptive, quasi-experimental, single group, nonrandomized design with subjects as their own controls was chosen. Each subject was exposed to both HFS and virtual simulation; therefore, the design is a within subjects model design. A convenience sample was used.

Sample

Subjects were recruited from an Associate Degree Nursing (ADN) program at Indian River State College, a public state college in southeast Florida. Students enrolled for the first time in their last medical-surgical course were eligible for inclusion in the study. Using G* Power 3.1 Analysis ($\alpha = .05$, $1\text{-}\beta = 0.8$, $d = 0.5$) a minimum sample size of 34 was required. The investigator for this study did not have any direct teaching or supervisory contact with the subjects involved in this study for their current course, or for any future courses. Approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) from the college was received prior to the study.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. Satisfaction for nursing students who are instructed using virtual simulation will be significantly different than satisfaction for nursing students who will be instructed using high-fidelity simulation.

Hypothesis 2. Self-confidence for nursing students who are instructed using virtual simulation will be significantly different than self-confidence for nursing students who will be instructed using high-fidelity simulation.

Hypothesis 3. The importance of simulation design factors for nursing students who are instructed using virtual simulation will be significantly different than the importance of simulation design factors for nursing students who will be instructed using high-fidelity

An Intuitive Approach for Teaching the Central Limit Theorem

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Abstract

Studies have shown that students do not understand the Central Limit Theorem (CLT) regardless of how it is taught. True understanding of the CLT means that the student has not only acquired the "little picture" or monkey-see-monkey-do ability to do calculations, but also the "big picture" intuitive understanding of what he/she is actually doing. For example, a student who truly "gets" the CLT should have the intuition and graphical insight needed to draw a sketch which roughly predicts the shape and mean of a sampling distribution before any calculations are done.

This research proposes a new instructional method which is intended to impart that "big picture" graphical/intuitive understanding of the CLT. The approach incorporates three population distributions which have been chosen for their widely varying shapes and their simplicity (their "knowability"). Students use physical objects (cards and dice) to conduct hands-on experiments with each population to produce its corresponding sampling distribution. The distinction between the population and sampling distributions is emphasized at every opportunity while the arcane terminology and technical details of the CLT are scrupulously avoided (at least initially).

This new method has been tried in several sections of introductory statistics, operations management undergraduate, and MBA classes over three terms from the fall of 2012 to present. Preliminary results suggest that the method is effective.

Key words: Central Limit Theorem, Pedagogy, Statistics Exercises, Active Learning, Hands-On Activities

Introduction

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) can be paraphrased as follows: one may assume sample averages taken from an infinite population are normally distributed, even if the samples come from non-normally distributed populations, provided that the:

1. sample size is the same for all samples,
2. samples are independent of one another,
3. the population distribution has a finite mean and standard deviation, and

4. the sample size is large enough.

Studies have shown that students do not understand the CLT regardless of how it is taught. Pfaff & Weinberg (2009) found, for example, that hands-on activities did not lead to improved student understanding of the theorem. Roberts & Pierce (1999) explored three modes of instruction: chalk and talk, hands-on activities, and computer-based simulations; and found no significant difference in student comprehension among the modes. Worse still, they found that even the best mode of the three modes they examined was not particularly effective for teaching the CLT.

Students have difficulty learning the CLT, in part, because it flies in the face of human intuition. Tversky & Kahneman (1974) found, for example, that the fact that standard error decreases with sample size is not merely hard to understand but actually counterintuitive. Given the counterintuitive nature of the CLT it is especially important for instructors to precede slowly in their lectures since students, grasping to understand, will tend to build mental models of the CLT that are not only incorrect but nearly impossible to dislodge.

Intuition is the heart of the problem. The literature shows that even students who can correctly calculate the mean and standard error of the sampling distribution etc. may nevertheless have almost no idea about what they are actually doing. Their mental models are completely off base and, as just mentioned, will remain solidly intact despite the instructor's vain attempt to change them. The literature points to the need for an approach to making the CLT more intuitive.

The intuitive approach suggested and evaluated here attempts to deal with mistakes in the current pedagogical approach to the CLT which tends to either impart no intuition or the wrong intuition in students. These mistakes include, but are not limited to, the inadequate emphasis of the distinction between the population and its corresponding sampling distribution, the attempt to teach too much at once, the failure to have the students make predictions (of the sampling distribution's shape and parameters), the use of population distributions that students may not thoroughly understand or that do not represent a wide enough range of population distribution possibilities, and the possible use of pre-packaged or computer-generated data or distributions which the students may suspect have been trumped up to prove the instructor's point.

The next section reviews the literature on teaching the CLT. Following that, the intuitive approach to teaching the CLT is described in detail. The paper ends with a discussion of our experimental design and results (at least as far as possible given that the method is still in the process of being evaluated).

Support for the New Approach for Teaching the CLT

Ryan (2006) states (somewhat surprisingly) that it is common for statistics students to fail to even realize that the population- and sampling- distributions are two different things. That is, they fail to see what they must absolutely minimally see to have even the least understanding of the theorem. To correct this problem, he suggests two ways to emphasize the distinction between the distributions. First, he recommends that the instructor avoids trying to teach all the technical details of the CLT at once. When students are simultaneously dealing with new terminology, the characteristics of the sampling distribution, mathematical tools, etc., it is easy

for them to miss essential facts…such as the fact that the sampling distribution is different from the process distribution. This failure to see that the sampling distribution is something new, leads to other problems including as Ryan notes: "the misconception that the standard error measures the variability of individual scores rather than the variability of the sample means." Worse still, Ryan cites research showing that once the student has constructed the wrong mental model, it is nearly impossible to get him/her to see the truth since he/she will actually disregard correct information if it contradicts his/her misconceived mental model.

Ryan's second suggestion for getting students to see that they are dealing with two different distributions is to have them (manually) generate the sampling distribution data themselves. He cites research that shows that self-generated data is especially beneficial for the difficult task of destroying misconceptions. That is, self-generated data is much harder for the student to disregard.

The approach to teaching the CLT recommended here incorporates both of Ryan's suggestions and then takes an additional step by having the students generate not only the sampling distribution, but the original population distribution as well. Three easy-to-understand and widely-varying population distribution shapes are used. The distributions concern everyday physical objects: cards and dice, and should be easy for students to generate. The term "knowable" is used to describe these distributions since they should be easy for students to "know" (to thoroughly understand).

The pedagogical effectiveness of using population distributions dealing with physical objects also has support. Dyck et al. (1998), and Johnson (1986) both suggest that the use of physical objects is preferred to theoretical distributions from textbooks or computer simulations. Johnson, for example, notes that students have a hard time understanding purely abstract theoretical distributions, and often express the need for concrete demonstrations.

Although computer simulations could be used instead of physical objects to derive the population and sampling distributions (and therefore reduce the class time needed to do these tasks), the computer's inner processes are a black box as far as the student is concerned; the use of computer simulations makes it too easy for the students to fail to see even obvious facts (such as the fact that the sampling distribution of the mean will be normal despite the shape of the population distributions). The student's mind can drift since the computer is doing the work. Rossman et al. (2000) argues in favor of physical simulations noting that students fail to connect computer output (either graphical or numeric) with the process being simulated. Lunsford et al. (2006) bluntly concludes that computer simulations are simply not enough, that students need to have a "directed hands-on experience." Likewise, delMas (the surname is spelled with a lower case d) et al. (1999) found that after using what they considered to be "excellent software" (for computer simulation) students still demonstrated a lack of understanding and "troubling misconceptions" regarding sampling distributions. They even cite research showing that students have developed incorrect assumptions regarding sampling distributions ***as a result of*** their experience with computer simulations; that is, the students were actually worse off for having performed the computer simulations. Finally, Velleman et al. (1996) commented that students demonstrate greater "ownership" of data if they generate it themselves. That is, students have no doubt that the data they are seeing has not been trumped up if they produced it themselves.

In addition to being "knowable", the three population distributions used in this study have another desirable characteristic: they have widely-varying shapes, so students may be especially surprised to see that all three nevertheless yield sampling distributions with the same normal shape. Also, the fact that three populations are used means that sampling distributions are generated three times which should further enhance the students' chances of seeing the distinction between the population and sampling distributions.

Another feature of the approach advocated here is that students are asked to predict the sampling distributions' shapes and parameters both verbally and graphically, and to explain the differences between these predictions and their subsequently observations. The benefits from having the students make predictions and explain the difference between their predictions and observations is discussed next. The value of requiring graphical as well as verbal predictions will be discussed after that.

Chi et al. (1994) found that students who explain (to themselves) what they are observing, develop better problem solving skills and understand the material better. They also found that self-explanation is just as effective if it is forced by an instructor as it is when done on the student's own initiative. DelMas et al. (1999) discovered, as noted earlier, that it is nearly impossible to get students to change their misconceptions regarding the CLT. In order to understand this problem they looked beyond research on statistics education to research on conceptual change and found that students suffering from a misconception will only reject that misconception if they confronted with…forced to deal with…the ramifications of that misconception. Thus, students must predict the parameters of the sampling distributions and then explain the differences between those (probably incorrect) predictions and the actual sampling distributions observed.

The "intuitive" understanding of the CLT recommended here is the same as the graphical understanding emphasized by delMas et al. (1999). If student can accurately predict a sampling distribution (by drawing a bell curve with the same mean as the population distribution and a width of about 6 times the standard error) then it is clear that he/she "gets" it. Furthermore, if the student is asked to show what happens when, for example, the sample size is quadrupled and then draws a bell-shaped curve half as wide, then he/she ***really*** gets it. The old saying, "a picture is worth a 1,000 words", is on point. Students may be able to mathematically predict the mean and standard error of a sampling distribution via "monkey-see, monkey-do" and still not have the intuition/graphical understanding needed to sketch what they expect to see. Indeed, Lunsford et al. (2006) found that mathematical ability was actually a hindrance when it came to understanding the theory; it was their more-mathematically-inclined students who "did not seem to be able to extend their knowledge to a more graphical realm." Although these students could calculate better than their less talented contemporaries, they were no better at really understanding what they were doing.

It is, therefore, no surprise that a number of other authors have found that students will learn the CLT (or any other aspect of statistical inference) better if attention is giving to building their graphical intuition. Rossman et al. (2000) promotes the importance of what they call visualization (one of their top 3 recommendations is to use visual displays of data throughout statistics classes and at all stages of statistical problem solving). They even emphasize the importance of visual displays *before* carrying out inference procedures (since initial graphical

analysis may reveal more than could a significance test or confidence interval…including whether or not the use of a particular test is even appropriate).

Garfield (n.d.) offers a practical tool for assessing graphical intuition in the form of graphically-based pre- and post- tests. Questions from those tests were used in this study (with some modification). Graphics like those used in the tests are also recommended here to be used in teaching the concept of the CLT.

Finally, students have trouble learning the CLT because instructors try to do too much at once. This error is almost unavoidable since the instructor, familiar with every detail of the CLT, speaks reflexively in the language of the CLT. He/she will refer to a particular "parameter" of the "sampling distribution", such as its "standard deviation", as the "standard error" and not even be aware that 2 foreign terms ("standard deviation" and "standard error") have just been used to describe a foreign aspect (a "parameter") of a foreign distribution ("sampling distribution"). The instructor may as well be lecturing in Greek. This foreign language is perhaps the primary reason that students develop the incorrect mental models that are so resistant to change.

To prevent the foreign language problem, part of the approach recommended here is to avoid trying to teach too much at once. In the early stages of CLT instruction the instructor is to avoid technical terms and qualifications while focusing exclusively on a building a graphical intuition. This necessarily means that the instructor must be willing to sound a bit ignorant. The population distribution and sampling distribution are to be referred to as the "input distribution" and "output distribution" respectively. The standard deviations of both distributions are to be referred to as just that: "standard deviations." This use of street parlance rather than arcane terminology of statistics may be uncomfortable for the instructor, but it greatly reduces the number of facts/concepts the student must try to absorb while simultaneously attempting to grasp the essential ramifications of the CLT.

The qualifications (just mentioned) which are to be avoided involve the entire litany including the fact that the CLT requires infinite populations, independent samples, finite means and standard deviations, and adequately large samples. The student cannot simultaneously absorb such minutia while he/she is struggling to get the big picture. Either he/she will learn one or the other. Certainly it is necessary for the students to learn these details, but they will never really learn them if they fail to internalize the essential nature of the CLT.

The Proposed Teaching Method

It was, of course, necessary to develop a test to assess the effectiveness of the intuitive approach for teaching the CLT. The test ("Test Version 1" found in Appendix A) was used to assess the students' knowledge of the CLT after the CLT was taught in both the experimental and control groups in the statistics classes. The test was used both before and after the CLT was re-taught in classes which had statistics as a prerequisite.

By the start of the spring semester of 2013, we had devised a better test ("Test Version 2" also found in Appendix A). This second version of the test has so far only been used in the MBA class taught in the spring 2013 semester.

The tests evaluate both the student's quantitative and qualitative knowledge of the CLT

Tl

May I have a cyber latte, please?: Using social identity theory to construct and deliver student support services to nontraditional adult graduate students through a web based cyber café

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Abstract

As working adult enrollment rates in graduate programs steadily increases, a deeper understanding of this complex student population is critical. Adult learners face numerous academic, professional, and personal challenges that may impact degree pursuit and completion. Academic organizations must remain mindful of student challenges while ensuring retention and quality curricular offerings. The current project's goal is to use Social Identity Theory to design a technologically based, non-evaluative platform – the Cyber Café – for nontraditional graduate students to: (1) facilitate student/faculty engagement; (2) promote course material and/or research discourse; (3) develop critical thinking skills; and (4) foster a sense of community. Social Identity Theory suggests individuals have a fundamental drive for group membership. This membership impacts individuals at both intra- and interpersonal levels across cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions. Previous research demonstrates SITs validity as a sustainable and measurable approach to project design. We anticipate SIT will provide a robust

framework for creating a sustainable platform for graduate student support service provision which may continue to evolve in conjunction with student population expansion.

KEYWORDS: adult learners; social identity theory; nontraditional students; social media; integrated marketing communication

Academic organizations face dual – and often conflicting – goals of existing and functioning as a business (e.g., the associated profit driven goals implied therein; organizational branding and image) while maintaining commitment to higher level rhetorical constructions of higher education (e.g., pedagogical goals, learning objectives, discipline specific theories, principles, and practice). This dilemma is situated in the context of the present moment in time – a "learning revolution" driven by and facilitated through technological advancement (Kidd & Keengwe, 2010, p. xvi).

Goal duality may present challenges for organizational leaders' consistent and equitable management of both sides. Careful consideration to ensure adequate accounting of the larger rhetorical context in which the organization (and its various stakeholders is situated) is paramount. Prospective and current students also face challenges within the technological revolution. As technological advancements transform the shape and delivery of education, students must navigate a morphing educational infrastructure (Angelaina & Jmoyiannis, 2012). For adult learners, this navigation presents unique challenges and opportunities for both learners and academic institutions to optimize the learning experience (Brown, 2001).

Higher Education Dual Goal Attainment

While an academic institution's mission (and/or strategic plan) provides a guiding vision, a significant volume of decisions across an organization's hierarchy cumulatively impact goal

attainment. Clear articulation of individual organizational members' role in successful accomplishment of goals identified (associated with the mission; in the strategic plan) is critical.

On the surface, this task appears daunting at best. However, a framework of sensemaking in which all organizational members may find common ground and shared meaning facilitates both successful goal attainment and synergy across organizational units. Utilizing an integrated marketing communication (IMC) approach provides institutions infrastructure which optimizes individuals, departments, and units – providing individuality (e.g., tailored approaches to market share acquisition; program operations appropriate to the community of practice) while actualizing cumulative benefits afforded through united strategic action toward common goals. Essentially, this approach simultaneously optimizes individual strengths, celebrates innovative approaches within the organization, and facilitates coordinated organizational movement. Shimp and Andrews (2013) note five key aspects of this approach: (1) identification and/or focus on the customer or prospect at the onset; (2) utilize any (an all) available points of contact and/or influence; (3) speak with a consistent, unified voice; (4) develop, nurture, and build stakeholder relationships; and (5) identify an action based behavioral response (Shimp & Andrews, 2013, p. 12).

Continuous focus on these aspects at a macro-level informs academic institutions' approach to effectively bridge the organizational mission (and/or strategic plan) with micro-level action steps. Faculty, staff, and administrators each singularly and collectively take steps which impact (positively and negatively) niche identification, marketshare, and retention (Cooper & Stevens, 2006). Ultimately, academic institutions common goal is student recruitment and retention.

The Adult Learner and Nontraditional Graduate Student Niche

Successful student recruiting and retention presents an equitable challenge in a competitive higher education marketplace (Müeller, 2008). As student enrollment rates steadily increase and diversify, a deeper understanding of the complexities of various student populations (e.g., traditional undergraduate students; adult graduate students; adult degree completion) across higher education institutions is paramount (Park & Choi, 2009). Concurrently, available higher education options (e.g., institutions; degree programs; instructional delivery methods) continue to expand, and academic institutions must diligently identify programmatic and/or student niches to ensure sustainability (Schatzel, Callahan, Scott, & Davis, 2011).

Within this process, organizations create a niche within the marketplace. In higher education, technology is expanding opportunities for equitable co-existence of multiple higher education institutions serving varying niches (Zur & Zur, 2011). Adult learners represent a growing student population in this marketplace, and effective technology integration may enable institutions to efficiently reach and retain them (Brown, 2011; Cain, Marrara, Pitre, & Armour, 2003; Müeller, 2008). An institutions' awareness of variables characterizing and moderating adult learners' desire and capacity to pursue and/or complete an advanced degree (i.e., degree completion motivation; academic professional, personal factors; prior educational experiences) is vital (Blair, Cline, & Wallis, 2010; Schatzel, Callahan, Scott, & Davis, 20011; Song & Hill, 2009). And while commonality across these factors may exist for adult learners as a group, each individual student may perceive his or her choice, and by extension circumstances, unique and silo-like (Carrier, 2010; Rovai & Ponton, 2005).

Further, mode of instruction (e.g., seated class; online class; hybrid), connection with the institution, and perceptions of his- or herself as a graduate student may individually exacerbate student's silo-like experience (Rovai & Ponton, 2005). Students may perceive a minimal sense of community with fellow graduate students, specifically, and the academic institution, generally (Kidd & Keengewe, 2010b; Müeller, 2008). Prior research suggests communication may mediate student experiences and provide an overarching frame to unify a fragmented student population (Carrier, 2010; Melrose & Bergeron, 2006).

Role of the Levels of Communication. The social scientific exploration of [speech] communication contends four levels of communication exist: (1) intrapersonal; (2) interpersonal; (3) small group; and (4) organizational. These levels provide a framework of understanding and interpreting a variety of social pheonomenon. Conceptualizing each level provides a common frame of interpretation and subsequent application for organizations and stakeholders.

Intrapersonal communication involves all communicative behavior that exists within each individual. Often referred to as self-talk, the ongoing conversations, sensemaking, goal identification, and identity construction germinate within each individual. Multiple variables inform these conversations including previous experience (e.g., with an individual, various personal and professional contexts; Brown, 2011), education (e.g., level, need for cognition), context (e.g., personal, professional), identity (e.g., social identity; role identity), and goals (e.g., short-term, long-term goals). Interpersonal communication encompasses two individuals interacting. Small group communication refers to three to 15 individuals who collectively engage toward a common goal (e.g., a project team; academic class). Finally, organizational communication encompasses the overarching, higher level infrastructure which provides the

Exploring the Relationship between Media Choices and Teaching Experience in Online Courses

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Abstract

The popularity of online education has brought attention to course content and delivery methods. While the online professor may not always develop curriculum, they may have the ability to add digital and social media links within courses they teach. Experienced professors may have learned through trial and error what types of media is effective in online learning. In order to evaluate media choices based on teaching experience, a survey was placed in a Linkedin group of online professors. The survey was created using the Polldaddy survey site. A link to this survey was placed in the Linkedin group's forum, with a note that that asked group members to take a quick anonymous survey regarding their choices of media in class. Data was analyzed for gender, experience, age, and preference for addition of media links in online courses. This study may give some insight as to how instructors' experience affects the type of media chosen for online instruction. This information may be useful to curriculum developers and newer online professors who may not be familiar with types of media available for course instruction. In order to remain accredited, it may be important for schools to continue to develop and improve their course offerings. One way to do that would be through improving their understanding of the type of media that experienced professors believe to be useful in online courses. The results of this

study indicated that online professors with more experience tend to include links to news sites more often than to popular social media sites like Facebook, Twitter, or Youtube.

Keywords: *Education, Media, Online, Teaching*

Introduction

Online education has experienced a recent increase in popularity in the U.S. (Seok, Kinsell, DaCosta, & Tung, 2010). Major universities now offer online courses as part of their curriculum. Even Ivy League schools have embraced a new way of reaching the modern-day student. Many reputable universities have joined together to offer Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs). This may have helped increase acceptance of online education for traditional and online schools. The demand for online courses has made online courses a reasonable alternative for college and university students (Brown, 2012). Thirty two percent of students currently take online courses (Sloan-C.org, 2012). The limits placed on traditional classrooms have been lifted by the ability to reach more students in more formats. MOOCs have made it possible to reach thousands of online students in a free, asynchronous, and flexible way with learning activities that include blogs, social media, video and video lectures. (Skiba, 2012). While MOOCs may grab headlines, online courses are also offered for a fee by traditional and private universities. For the purpose of this study, MOOCs were not included. The current research focused on the traditional and private schools where students pay for their education.

Online courses may be taught by full-time or part-time instructors. The instructors who teach these courses on a part-time basis are referred to as adjuncts. Adjuncts and full-time online instructors teach courses delivered through a software package that may be also referred to as a platform. The software platform may offer various ways for instructors and students to interact.

Visual delivery has improved with the ability to add media to provide a new dimension for learning in an interactive way (Vijay & Chachra, 2012). Some of the software packages used by online colleges include Blackboard, e-College, Moodle, OLS, Loud Cloud, and Angel. Some schools create their own proprietary software, while others utilize software developed by outside sources. While there may be different ways in which schools delivers their curriculum, there may be room for additional input by instructors within the software platform. Online instructors may not have developed the courses they teach. However, they may have the ability to input some of their own information within discussions and feedback provided to students. Some instructors may find that social networking sites are one way in which they may reach out to college students. Social sites have become a common way of communicating in the university setting (Morris, Reese, Beck & Mattis, 2010). It may be important for instructors to find ways to reach students in the manner in which they prefer to communicate. One avenue might be through the use of social media sites. While the term social media is used frequently in modern society, it may be helpful to simply explain to define it. Kaplan and Haenlein (2012) define social media has been defined as "a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content" (p. 101).

With the increase in popularity of online learning, instructors have a variety of materials they might add to the online classroom. Social media is one option that has yet to become a standard addition to the online classroom. While social media sites remain popular, few instructors use them in online classes (Chen & Bryer, 2012). As popularity in online education increases, there may be a need to further understand the choices that online instructors make

within their classrooms. Multi-media choices abound as an option to facilitate online learning. Social media software may engage learners by increasing interaction (LeNoue, Hall, & Eighmy, 2010). Institutions may be interested in incorporating social media to, not only engage, but also to retain students. Tucker and Courts (2007) explained that higher education institutions have access to many different types of technologies that may demonstrate a return on investment.

If professors are able to add content to their courses, it may be important to determine the type of content they choose. According to NCAHLC.org, (2013), in order for schools to remain accredited, they must meet certain guidelines set by the Higher Learning Commission (HLC). One of the core components of the HLC according NCAHLC.org (2013) is to ensure that institutions provide effective strategies, based on reliable evidence, that lead to improvement in student outcomes. Universities may be interested in determining the type of information that is added to online classrooms in order to provide evidence that they strive for continuous improvement. If professors are given the opportunity to provide additional information to the core curriculum, it may behoove educators to learn what type of information they choose and if any other factors that affect those choices.

In order to determine how online professors choose media for course offerings, a survey was placed in a Linkedin group of online professors. The use of a social media site was chosen due to its popularity. "The use of social media has surged globally in recent years. Based on individual companies' statistics in July 2011, Facebook passed 750 million users (2011); Linkedin had over 100 million members (2011); Twitter hit over 177 million tweets per day (2011); Youtube reached three billion views every day (2011)" (Chen & Bryer, 2012, pg. 87). With this popularity of social media sites, it may be valuable to understand the value of how they

may be incorporated into the online classroom. Linkedin was chosen for the current study as a means of reaching online professors who had joined a group dedicated to discussing online education. After reviewing Facebook, Twitter and other social networks, Linkedin was specifically chosen due to the ability to easily target a population of adjunct online instructors. Linkedin provided a large enough population that it was possible to obtain data from 110 respondents.

A four-question survey was created using PollyDaddy software. A link to the survey was provided within the Linkedin group of online professors with a note requesting that they fill out a quick anonymous survey to determine online professors' use of social media in class. The group chosen for this study had over 2000 prescribed users. Based on conversations that occurred within the group at the time of the survey, less than 200 members were active any particular time within discussions. The resulting data provided 110 responses. A question was included in the Linkedin forum that addressed which type of social media or media links were most often used by the instructor. Additional demographic information was requested including gender and age. The respondents were also asked about years of online teaching experience. The final results indicated that more online professors chose traditional news website links to add to online discussions as compared to adding links to social media sites like Youtube, Facebook, or Twitter.

Popularity of online education

The popularity of online education now provides various choices of software delivery systems that did not previously exist for learners (Hyman, 2012). These systems may be referred to as software platforms. Some of them offer the ability for professors to add links to social media sites and other web-based content to course materials. Each school has a unique way of

Learning Styles of Students Enrolled in Colleges of Business, Education, and Engineering at a Northwest University

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify the predominant learning styles of senior students enrolled in three academic program areas at a University in the Northwest. This paper also aimed to determine if there was a relationship between gender and learning style areas. Understanding learning style may provide assistance to educators to modify a learning environment so that is congruent with the students' processing of material. Instructors of three different colleges at a Northwest University were enlisted to present the measure of learning style. Students voluntarily agreed to participate in the research and completed the instrument. The Gregorc Style Delineator was used to identify the predominant learning style area from a sample of 66 students. Results indicated that concrete sequential was the dominant learning style area for students enrolled in the Colleges of Business and Engineering, and concrete random was the dominant learning style area for student enrolled in the College of Education. No significant differences between gender and learning style areas were found. Based on the results, recommendations were made to accommodate students in each learning style areas.

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For the complete paper, please contact the author.

Web-based Instructional Design as an Alternative Strategy in Enhancing English Learning Motivation

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Abstract

An environment can strongly affect the motivation (Keller, 1999); therefore, an English Language lesson plan in the web-based setting empowers classroom activities to get students motivated in the classroom. More precisely, students' motivation and learning are positively associated with the active involvement in the web-based instructional design (Njenga, 2005).

21st century learners tend to be digitally literate, addicted to new technologies, good at reading visual images, and equipped with strong visual-spatial skills. Instead of being a traditional teacher, therefore, we, as 21st century teachers, can design a more innovative and interactive teaching strategy through web-based technology in that "cyberspace interaction can surely help achieve reformation, improvement and extension of quality education" (Amir, Iqbal, and Yasin, 1999).

In addition, a learner's motivation is confirmed in a cyber-learning environment (Keller, 1999), which not only catches students' attention in the classroom and their interest for learning, also reduces the senses of low-motivation and low-achievement caused by the affective factors, such as "feelings, motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states" according to Krashen's (1988) affective filter hypothesis (as cited in Lightbrown & Spada, 2006, p. 37).

Simply put, this research aims to showcase how to design web-based instruction for stimulating English language learners' (ELLs) motivation and enhancing their literacy abilities. Overall, this research appropriately encourages teachers to navigate the endless network in an effort to integrate web-based technology into the curriculum for guiding ELLs to have fun in the language learning process.

This research showcases how to design web-based instruction for stimulating English language learners' motivation and enhancing their literacy abilities in Language Arts. Overall, this research encourages teachers to navigate the network for guiding those students to have fun in the language learning process.

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THE PRODUCTION OF FINAL /s/ IN ENGLISH WORDS BY THAI SPEAKERS WITH DIFFERENT ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES AT AN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE

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This research paper aims at studying the production of final /s/ in English words in English context by Thai speakers at with different English-language experiences an international college. The subjects are 40 participants at Burapha University International College (BUUIC) that will be selected from 400 Thai speakers. The selected group will be divided into 2 groups. Half of the subjects are the speakers with high English-experience and the rest are subjects with low English-language experience. The subjects will read 30 test items appearing in an English passage of connected speech.

The hypothesis of this research is that the subjects with low English-language experience will have more L1 transfer effect than those with high English-language experience. Their pronunciation of the variables will be closer to the Thai pronunciation. The subjects with high English-language experience will have less L1 transfer effect. Their pronunciation will be closer to the English pronunciation.

The analysis will show the different variants of the final /s/. The findings will also reveal a relationship between the variation of the linguistic variables and the social variables.

The result will help English teachers predict the variants of the Thai speakers' final /s/ production and help them correct the pronunciation. The relevant research findings will contribute to the empirical knowledge and problem solving techniques for better understanding in the field of English education.

Key Words: final cluster, sound production, English-language experiences, pronunciation, interlanguage

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Curriculum Framework for Equity

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Lonni Anne Gill is an Assistant Clinical Professor of Social Studies and Teacher Education at IUPUI in Indianapolis, IN. She has teaching for over 25 years and began her teaching career as an elementary school grade teacher outside of Chicago, which spanned 14 years. Wishing to expand her horizons, she moved to Indianapolis, began and completed her doctoral work in Curriculum and Instruction and teaching in higher education for the last 11 years. Her expertise and areas of interest are creating, teaching and facilitating social studies and social justice methods for all learners with teacher interns in an urban setting.

Abstract: Educators struggle to prepare new teachers for the diverse classrooms we currently see today in America, especially in urban areas. Most new teachers are Caucasian, and our student population is becoming more predominantly children of color. I wanted to see how I could impact new teachers by redesigning my course for Social Studies Methods. Social justice has always been an integral component of my class, and interns were taught to design a hybrid backward design year-long curriculum. Lacking was an explicit way for the new teachers to create strong learning activities that connected with all children. Thus, working within a colleague's grant, entitled "High Quality Evidence-Based Differentiation," allowed me the opportunity to expand my thinking and redesign my course. I designed the Curriculum Framework for Equity, which incorporates important aspects of learning for diverse populations, adapted from Rodriquez's Praxis of Recognition, which include the following activities; relationship building, prior knowledge, cultural responsiveness, people society has marginalized, relevance, empowerment, primary sources, and critical literacy. As a pre-assessment, interns wrote six words that described Social Studies, and did this again as a post-assessment. Initially, interns cited, " history, dates, boring and wars." After learning how to design their own Curriculum Framework for Equity, interns' most stated term for Social Studies was "social justice." The implications from this research, I believe will change how we prepare teachers to work with diverse populations and create vibrant, engaging classrooms where all children are learning.

Keywords: education, Social Studies, social justice, equity

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Practice What You Teach: Pre-Service Educators' Writing Apprehension

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Abstract

This study looked at the writing apprehension levels of junior and senior pre-service elementary education teachers preparing to embark upon the profession amidst the heightened requirements for reading and writing as outlined by the Common Core Standards. Because these pre-service teachers will be expected to teach writing to their students, it is imperative that these future teachers feel comfortable about their own writing. Hall and Grisham-Brown (2011) suggest that teacher educators help their teacher candidates become better writers before sending them into classrooms bereft of appropriate writing skills. Benevides and Stagg-Peterson (2010) also suggest including activities in teacher education courses that will foster positive attitudes towards writing. The purpose of the current study was to help pre-service teachers better prepare themselves for the writing that will be required as professional educators. The goal of this study was to reduce pre-service teachers' writing apprehension (determined by the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test) by giving them a plethora of relevant and positive writing assignments that they could share with each other and the instructor. Martinez, Kock, and Cass (2011) suggest that the more positive writing experiences a student has, the more likely the student will be inclined to enjoy writing. Results showed a significant difference in the apprehension scores, which suggests that offering pre-service educators experiences in the types of writing required for the profession and creating a safe writing environment can help to alleviate writing apprehension.

Key Words: writing, apprehension, pre-service, teacher

Introduction

"I can't write," Sally says.
"But, you have to," John replies. "Aren't you going to be a teacher?"

Writing is an important tool without which a person's academic and professional growth is limited (National Institute for Literacy, 2007), and attempting to envision a job that does not require writing is a difficult task (Daly & Miller, 1975). Across the United States, teachers are preparing their students for more rigorous study in reading and writing. With the Common Core State Standards, teachers are required to teach a higher level of reading and writing (Rothman, 2012). What many have failed to realize, however, is that many teachers – especially those who are not teachers of English – are often apprehensive about their own abilities in these areas. To meet this challenge, teachers must prepare themselves, and "teacher preparation institutions must embrace the standards to ensure that those entering the profession are ready to teach what students are expected to learn" (Rothman, 2012, p. 14).

It is a given that if a teacher can teach, then he or she can also read. However, writing is another matter. Although some may not feel adequate in teaching writing, pre-service educators should evaluate their own perceptions about writing before attempting to teach others (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011). Not only must they teach the writing, but they must then assess that writing, which often lends itself to more subjective assessment (Penner-Williams, Smith, & Gartin, 2009). So, how do we address this in teacher-preparation courses? In Thoonen et al.'s (2011) study of teacher motivational factors that determine their practice, the researchers discussed teachers' professional development activities as a determinant of teaching practice. They learned that "teachers who are more engaged in professional learning activities to improve their practice will have better teaching practices in terms of the quality of instruction" (p. 517). The researchers found that teachers who are confident in their abilities are those who often seek professional development opportunities as they are the ones who want to stay abreast of best practices.

The Writing Teacher

With the Common Core State Standards in effect in 46 states, most teachers by now know that writing is a key factor in all subject areas. With this in mind, it is imperative that each teacher develop good writing habits and allow students opportunities to write. There are, however, teachers who are less confident about their writing than others. In Claypool's (1980) study of 192 secondary school teachers' writing apprehension, the researcher learned that teachers who were most apprehensive were those who assigned the least amount of writing in their classes. Writing apprehension is no excuse today as the standards mandate that writing be a focus across the disciplines (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2012).

Writing activities help to alleviate writing anxiety (Karakaya & Ulper, 2011). Therefore, to help combat teacher fears about writing, Daisey (2009) surveyed secondary pre-service teachers to determine whether they had high writing enjoyment (HWE) or low writing enjoyment (LWE). Over the course of one semester in a content literacy course, participants wrote journals, poems, and other genres and were encouraged throughout the semester to "expand, rethink, experience, value, and ultimately model writing in their subject area" (p. 160). At the end of the term, those who had LWE as well as those who had HWE said they want to be positive writing models for their future students.

Teacher Attitudes Toward Writing

Much of what pre-service teachers believe about writing is based on their prior experiences as students (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011). In their focus group study, Hall and Grisham-Brown (2011) learned that many pre-service elementary educators planned to spend little time specifically on writing in their own classrooms. The participants also noted their weaknesses in mechanics, teaching strategies, and feedback. The researchers suggest that teacher educators provide more opportunities for pre-service educators to write creatively and focus more on the writing process by using writer-workshop strategies. Benevides and Stagg-Peterson (2010) discuss the association between teachers who have a love for reading and their instruction of reading with elementary school children. They note that teachers who do not enjoy reading are those who may have difficulty modeling an appreciation for reading. Why would writing instruction be any different? Teachers' attitudes about writing are also passed on to their students (Daisey, 2009).

The current study sought to determine the levels of apprehension pre-service elementary educators may possess and how those apprehensions may be lessened through a course specifically targeted toward writing for educators.

Research Questions

1. To what extent are pre-service elementary education teachers apprehensive about their writing ability?
2. To what extent will pre-service elementary education teachers' apprehensions lessen after taking a writing course targeted for educators?

Methods

Participants

The participants consisted of a convenient sample of 14 pre-service elementary teachers (79% Caucasian; 21% African American) enrolled in the researcher's Professional Writing for Educators course at a university in southeastern United States. There were 13 female and 1 male teacher candidates. The class met twice per week for 1.5 hours each day. Each student was an elementary education major in his or her junior or senior year, and the course was required for all elementary education majors as part of the university's Writing Across the Curriculum program.

Procedures

To determine participants' writing apprehension levels, the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (Daly & Miller, 1975), which has been widely used to measure writing anxiety (Karakaya & Ulper, 2011), was administered at the beginning of the semester. This 26-item Likert-type survey produces scores ranging from 26 (most apprehensive) to 130 (least apprehensive). The range of scores fall into four levels: Level I (Scores 97-130) – writers are least apprehensive at this level. However, the author warns that scores too high in this level may indicate a writer who is overly confident, one who may not be interested in working on his or her writing (Stoner); Level II (Scores 60-96) – writers at this level do not experience a significant amount of apprehension. However, the author notes that scores at the extremities of this range could indicate apprehension at the next range. Level III – the researcher included this level to indicate writers at the lower extremity of Level II. These writers are those that Stoner reports

may experience apprehension at the next range of scores. Level IV (Scores 26-59) – writers are most apprehensive at this level. They are generally nervous about writing and fear evaluation of their writing.

During the course of the semester, the researcher who was also the instructor for the course, encouraged participants to write daily in their journals, to share their work, and to participate in in-class writing workshops. Williams (1996) suggests that working in peer groups provides students with a "discourse community" as well as "meaningful environments for teacher intervention and feedback during the composing process" (p. 199). Each participant was paired with a classmate who served as peer reviewer and co-author on several writing assignments. Along with the daily journals, the writing assignments also consisted of types of writing educators will encounter, such as letters to parents, letters to community members, memos to colleagues, newsletters, informal reports, grant proposals, and resumes.

At the end of the semester, the researcher administered the survey again to determine whether participants' apprehension levels changed.

Data Analysis

A one-sample t-test was performed to answer the first research question, which addressed the extent to which pre-service elementary teachers were apprehensive about their writing ability. The following null hypothesis was tested to respond to this research question: There is no statistically significant difference in the level of apprehension of pre-service teachers' writing ability score and the test score. The median value of the test score is 78, which was established by the test developers (Daly & Miller, 1975).

A paired-samples t-test was performed to address the second research question. The second research question addressed the extent to which a change in scores on apprehension about writing was observed after participants completed a writing course targeted for educators. The following null hypothesis was tested to respond to the second research question: There is no statistically significant difference between pre-and post-test scores on the Daly Miller Writing Apprehension test.

Results

Results of the first null hypothesis test revealed that the observed mean score (85.57, N =14) is 7.57 points higher than the test value (78). This difference was not significantly different at the .05 level. However, it is noteworthy to report that this difference was significant at the .10 level ($t_{(13)} = 1.79$, $p = .09$). The test developers suggest that scores closer to the test value indicate that respondents do not experience an unusual level of apprehension. Observed scores higher than the test value suggest that respondents were still within the range of apprehension, but not overly confident. The standard deviation for observed scores was 15.85.

Results of the paired-samples t-test revealed a statistically significant difference between pre-and post-test scores ($t_{(13)} = 2.30$, $p = .04$). The mean score and standard deviation for the pre- and post-test scores were (85.57, 15.85) and (93.36, 12.97) respectively. Based on the t-value and the probability level (.04), one must reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the writing course lessened participants' apprehension about writing.

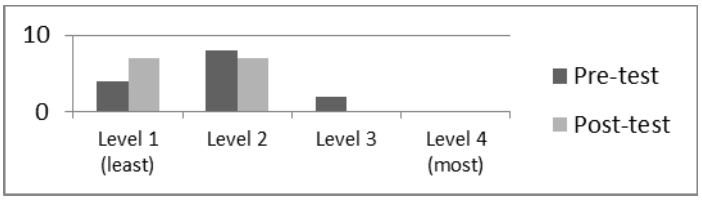

Figure 1. Pre- and post-test levels of apprehension

Discussion

Participants' scores on the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test increased significantly after completion of the Professional Writing for Educators course. There were 2 participants with scores at Level III (at the lower extremity of Level II) on the pre-test who both moved closer to the median score (78) in Level II on the post-test. This change shows a lessening of writing apprehension. No participants scored a Level IV apprehension level on the pre-test nor on the post-test, which shows that none had severe writing anxiety. Three participants at Level II on the pre-test moved into Level I on the post-test.

Along with the apprehension survey, participants wrote daily in their journals. Most of the participants not only spoke highly of the course itself, but they also wrote in their journals about their increasing levels of writing confidence. One participant wrote, "I feel that I am more prepared to teach writing because I have had a review over the course of this semester." Another participant's first journal entry discussed the dislike she had for writing because of an experience in 5th grade. In her last entry, however, she wrote, "…I feel like I am able to write letters and memos. Before I wasn't sure on how to do either…I am more prepared."

Limitations

The number of participants (N=14) is an extenuating factor in this study. Having more participants would add more power to the analysis. The limitation of participant sample makes it difficult to generalize the results to larger populations. However, the results are consistent with other studies that show success using similar methods (Fox, 1980; Smith, 1984; Tighe, 1987)

The use of only elementary education majors could be another limitation of this study. Teachers at all levels are required to teach writing, and it would be beneficial to look at secondary and post-secondary teachers' levels of writing apprehension as well.

Conclusions and Implications

Writing is a skill that is becoming increasingly more important in today's society. From colleges to the work force, professors and employers alike are looking for students and workers who have the skills necessary to complete whatever writing task awaits them. According to Phenix (1990), teachers learn most of their techniques via "on-the-job training" (p. 10). However, it is important now more than ever to prepare future teachers before they get to the classroom.

The results of the current study support the need for more focus on writing while teachers are in the pre-service stage. Allowing teachers to enter the profession bereft of appropriate skills and apprehensive about the skills they do possess is neglect on the part of the teacher educator ar

Problems which Face Primary School Principals In the UAE

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Abstract

The study problem is represented by the abundant problems the school faces through its administrators and teachers. The study also looks after the reasons why many administrators and teachers overlook their duties to in respect of the problems they face which hinder their activities and stand as obstacles to achieve their goals. However, such a phenomenon leads to the fact that many of them resign particularly the female administrators and teachers. More than 15 female Principals and teachers resigned during a short period of time. (Gulf Newspaper 2000).

Some Officials in the field of education believe that a large number of schools suffer from the lack of teachers and technical personnel , and thus the Education Zone tries to compensate the shortage by appointing teachers on the base of daily wages , this is not to mention that the Zone has a lot of financial burdens (Bin Rakad 2003) . This fact made it necessary to carry out the current study so as to recognize and underline the problems that stand in the way of Principals to achieve their plans and the goals they are ambitious to obtain . The studies aims at :

1. Preparing an instrument- scale – to recognize the problems which Primary Public school principals face in the UAE as perceived by principals while they are in their schools?
2. Determining the problems of priority which face member of the sample and the variations of gender , age , years of experience and qualification.

3. Analyzing the principals` expectations about the problems they see through their dealing with their community or through their jobs.
4. Reviewing previous studies to recognize their conformity with the problems expected by primary school principals.
5. Providing solutions and proposals that my help in solving the problems faced by members of the sample.

Method of the Study :

The researchers used the descriptive analytical method because it is appropriate for this study . The researchers were provided with detailed information about this study , and after collecting the material , it was analyzed so that the researchers could extract the problems faced by the sample members of the two sexes. The data was collected and proper statistical methods were followed so as to reach and discuss conclusions

The study results indicate that principals are qualified scientifically and educationally. They are armed with experience to run their schools. Further, they are in an age distinguished for its maturity in addition to the long experience in the filed of administration. There are no differences between the problems faced by male and female principals where results have matched in nature and ranking. The study is concluded by maintaining that there are no differences in age years of experience and qualification among members of the sample regarding the problems they face.

The study stressed the clear omission of the Ministry of Education Regarding the schools and the taking care of them in addition to the non-Cooperation with principals of the two sexes and limit their powers , this is not to mention the issue of centralization in decision making and the Delay in responding to the demands of these administrators, if any. Parents constitute an additional burden on school for their non-Cooperation and their limited interest in their children since they are competently forgotten or they are put on the shelf.

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Impact of Cyberlearning Technologies and Curriculum on Female Adult Learners' English Proficiency Development in South Texas

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ABSTRACT

In adult ESL field, there are two ways of teaching with technologies: the automating and information or cyberlearning perspectives (Collin & Halverson, 2009; Ekiaka & Feng, 2011; November, 2010) Teaching from the automating approach means that the work, locus, time, relationship, place, processes and challenges remain the same regardless of the type technologies.

This paper discusses findings from a pilot mixed methods study on the impact of systematic & intensive cyberlearning technologies on female adult ESL learners' English proficiency development in South Texas. Results suggest that implementation of a transformative cyber English program has the potential to increase female adult ESL learners' overall reading, writing, listening and oral fluency development skills in a short period of time.

PROPOSAL

Purpose

The objectives of this concurrent triangulation mixed methods research were: a) exploring the impact of student-centered cyberlearning digital game-based and curriculums and 3D virtual learning environments such as second life on female adult ESL learners' English proficiency (reading, writing, speaking and listening) development ; and b) determining the optimal fidelity conditions for application of the cyber English Program frame for female adult ESL learners in an ESL context through examination of the following working hypothesis: from the information learning (cyberlearning) approach of teaching English with technologies, systematic and intensive cyberlearning workstations input affect female adult ESL overall English proficiency over a reasonable period of time. (Null: cyberlearning workstations instruction is as good as other technologies used in CALL laboratory under automating approach).

Theoretical Framework

For adult non-native English speakers, becoming proficient in English means learning to read, write, listen and speak as a native-like. Second language scholars such as Brown (2006) and Cummins (1986 & 1996) have suggested that, in a traditional K-12 or college classroom-based English as Second Language (ESL) setting, it will take students up to 4 – 7 years to gain adequate proficiency to be functional in an ESL context.

For an informed reader of adult ESL education literature, there is a broad consensus among scholars that very limited scientifically- based research has been conducted to identify how adult non-native English speakers who have access to internet and cyberlearning technologies, learn English in a subtractive bilingualism setting. Moreover, traditional audio-lingual or CALL (computer assisted language learning) strategies of teaching English through technologies continue to be consistently implemented. (Pugsley, 1998).

Recent findings Centre for Canadian Language Benchmarks, 2000; Collin & Halverson, 2009; November, 2010; Schaetzel et al., 2008) have suggested that cost-effectiveness and the effective use of state of art technology are two crucial requirements for implementation of successful adult English as second language programs. Unfortunately, the use of digital technologies in the field of adult ESL education has not been optimal. Many self-paced CALL lab initiatives have been underutilized since they have been operating from the automating approach (

In fact, In adult ESL field, there are two ways of teaching with technologies: the automating and information or cyberlearning perspectives (Collin & Halverson, 2009; Ekiaka & Feng, 2011; November, 2010) Teaching from the automating approach means that the work, locus, time, relationship, place, processes and challenges remain the same regardless of the type of technologies

This research project is ingrained in, Ekiaka & Feng's (2011) experimental cyberlearning workstations pedagogical frame which is back grounded on Campbell's (1991) learning center's theory; Gonzalez, Moll & Amanti (2005) notion of funds of knowledge, the digital videogame and information learning theoretical tenets (Collin & Halverson, 2009; November, 2010; Prensky, 2001, 2001, 2005 & 2010) and recent research findings from the positive relationship

between fitness (physical activities) and academic performance postulates (Dwyer, Sallis, Blizzard, Lazarus, & Dean, 2001; Dwyer et al. (1983); Grissom, 2005; Linder 1999; Linder 2002; Shephard, 1997; Tremblay et al.,2000).

The main characteristics of Ekiaka & Feng's (2011) frame consists of the systematic and intensive use of learning-oriented electronic/digital technologies/devices – namely the use of laptops + Internet, Smart buddy devices, Nintendo DS, Nintendo Wii, and XBOX 360 Kinect-(widely used for home entertainment), 3D virtual world environments and digital videogame curriculums to deliver content-area. Each cyberlearning instruction session will last 80 to 120 minutes depending on each teacher's lesson plan. Under optimal fidelity conditions, students are divided into 4 to 6 teams of 2 to 4 students per team. There will be 4 to 6 workstations in each cyberlearning classroom. Students will spend a minimum of 15 to 20 minutes in each cyberlearning workstation scheduled learning activities. A cyberlearning workstation's instruction is team teaching. There will be one Lead - teacher and 3 - 6 associate instructors or team leaders (supervising in each workstation) previously trained by the lead - instructor. Associate instructors or team leaders will be in charge of monitoring and supervising learning activities under the supervision of the Lead – instructor. A brief group introduction and conclusion meeting at the beginning and at the end of each session is mandatory.

Further analysis of Ekiaka & Feng's (2011) research design plan suggested the distinction between conventional and transformative cyberlearning workstations instructional strategies. In conventional cyberlearning workstation settings, instructions are delivered exclusively in a formal learning setting while in transformative cyberlearning classrooms, students will receive instructions in formal setting (Classrooms-based), but they will be granted access to some digital videogame curriculums for additional practices in informal settings.

Moreover, the proposed pedagogical model is also grounded in the supplementary framework described below. Environmental stimulation actually changes and affects the way people think and learn. Enriched environments stimulate thinking and mental schemata changes to create deep learning processes compared to impoverished ones after as little as two weeks when involved in systematic and intensive learning (Scientific Learning Corporation, 2001). Participants will be systematically and consciously engaged in deep learning activities for a minimum of 500 minutes per week in formal & informal learning settings to create desired mental schemata and cognitive changes (Bavelier, Green, Dye, 2010; Scientific Learning Corporation, Baynes, quoted in Prensky, 2001).

Methods

A concurrent triangulation mixed methods design was used to explore this topic of inquiry. Quantitative (QUANT) data was collected through a quasi - experimental process. Participants (n = 10) were selected by the research team. The quasi-experimental group was enrolled at three virtual courses: reading, writing & grammar, listening and speaking. Courses were delivered using the following distant LMS (Learning management system): blackboard and centra (for writing and grammar), second life (for reading, listening and speaking). Each course met 2 hours per week at night (9:00 – 10:40 pm Monday – Friday). In addition, participants attend an virtual free reading program (500 minutes per week) and a virtual conversation club (for 2 hours per week). The adopted digital curriculum for the cyber English program was the Interactions/Mosaic series silver edition published by McGraw-Hill.

QUANT data analysis were performed using descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and statistical treatment of missing data. QUAL data was collected using the grounded theory techniques (virtual, digital memos, interviews, and virtual focus groups). Qualitative data analysis involved coding the data, dividing the text into small unit and labeling. Qualitative data analysis technique followed the systematic narrative approach using the Bell model. In addition, specific mixed method software, called Maxqda 10, was used for mixed data analysis. The software enabled the researchers to block and label segments with codes, establish data clusters so that data could be easily retrieved; organized into a visual, making it possible to diagram and show the theoretical correlation among findings.

Data Sources

Data were collected using the concurrent triangulation mixed methods strategy. A convenient sample of 10 adult-female ESL learners was asked to take part in this study. Participants were identified and selected by the research team using the following criteria: a) must be from Mexican or Mexican-American descent currently residing in South Texas (South of Houston & Austin to the Mexican border); b) must hold at least a high school diploma; c) must be computer-literate with access to reliable broadband internet at home (if applied must be committed to overcome the digital immigrant accent); and d) must agree to attend the adult cyber English program during the academic years 2011- 2012 (spring & fall semesters) and/or 2012-2013 (spring & fall semesters pending availability of funds). Participants attended 08 hours of instruction in a supervised cyber learning setting (led by assigned instructors or project leaders) per week, four times week (Monday – Thursday at night). Participants took computer/internet-based pre and post tests in the area of reading, writing, listening and oral fluency (speaking) at beginning and at the end of each academic semester.

It is worth to underline findings were comparing to learning outcomes of a similar group attending an adult ESL program at a local community college for the same amount of time per week. To protect the welfare of participants, each participant was assigned a "number" from the beginning of the project for data collection and analysis purposes. Trustworthiness of the research findings was addressed through: peers with strong background in statistics and the faculty advisor reviews during the data analysis and interpretation processes. In addition, the emerging conceptualizations after the statistical analysis of variance (within the group) were shared with two faculty experts in statistical analysis.

Conclusions

Data analysis, suggested an F value 8.032, which is larger than the critical value 4.30 allowed the researcher to reject null hypothesis. This analysis highlighted statistical significance between pre and post tests within the groups and between the quasi-experimental and the outcome of a similar adult ESL program offered by a local community college. The above fact also pointed out that the researchers made correct research hypothesis and decision in rejecting null hypothesis since the F value is more extreme than the critical value. In other words, the results proved the research hypothesis was correct and the QUANT research strategy, regardless of its limitations was well selected.

Overall, QUAL data analysis suggested that teaching English to female adult learners through cyber English program was pivotal in increasing participants reading motivation and learning engagement. Thus, they are not only considered as tools that participants were familiar with, but also enhanced participants learning engagement within a stress-free and anxiety-free learning setting.

Regardless of circumstances (being digital immigrants or not), teaching reading, writing, speaking and listening to adult ESL learners through systematic and intensive application of cyberlearning technologies, in a stress and anxiety-free learning settings where they are engaged in interactive and connected lessons, digital games, 3D virtual environments and home-based other digital technologies means ensuring meaningful second language learning and retention rates at the highest level.

Scholarly significance of this project

The significance of the findings was determined using Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2004)'s notion of enhancing the interpretation of "significant" findings in mixed methods research. In fact, findings from this research might have practical significance since it encompasses with the National Educational Technology Plan – NETP- postulates (US Department of Education, 2010). The plan calls for applying the advanced technologies used in people's daily personal and professional lives to the entire US educational system to improve students' learning, accelerate and scale up the adoption of effective practices, and use data and information for continuous improvement (US Department of Education, 2010).

Furthermore, the National Education Technology Plan is an invitation to systematically conduct educational technology research that explore how embedded assessment technologies, such as simulations, collaboration environments, virtual worlds, digital games, and cognitive tutors, can be used to engage and motivate learners while teaching and assessing complex skills. To move toward a revolutionary or third order (radical) approach of transforming adult ESL teaching, digital learning, educational video games, virtual learning environments and simulators etc. must be used as core medium of instruction aimed at fostering adult ESL learners' learning motivation, engagement and learning retention rates at highest level. Adoption of cyberlearning technologies as core medium in adult ESL education has practical impact on ESL teacher education programs too: the need for training ESL teacher who will develop professional competencies to design cyber and digital game-based curriculums is imperative.

Moreover, findings might also have some economic significance. Results suggested that teaching adult ESL through cyber English Program is highly cost-effective and responsive to the digital environments of many middle-class households. Certainly, in a field where very little is known, findings from this research provide opportunities to access quality adult ESL education. This is very important to America's individual and collective growth and prosperity (NETP, 2010).

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For the complete paper, please contact the author.

The Impact of Student Teaching on Teacher Self-Efficacy

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Abstract

The teacher education program and the student teaching experience form the foundation upon which a teaching career is built and can influence teaching effectiveness for years. Research is limited, however, about how the foundational student teaching experience and corresponding teacher self-efficacy differs among different types of traditional teacher preparation programs. This study examined the impact of student teaching upon student teacher self-efficacy and compared the teacher self-efficacy of graduate and undergraduate student teachers. In addition, this study looked at the relationship between important demographic variables (age, gender, undergraduate grade point average, location of placement) and teacher self-efficacy. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES-short form) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and a demographic survey designed by the author were administered to 271 student teachers from 11 Minnesota colleges before student teaching and to 269 student teachers at the conclusion of student teaching. The results indicated that teaching self-efficacy scores increased significantly as a result of student teaching but no significant difference was found between the scores of undergraduate versus graduate student teachers. Elementary student teachers had significantly higher scores than secondary level student teachers after student teaching and there appeared to be a curvilinear relationship between age and self-efficacy with the highest scores found in the 35-44 year-old age group. The research both reinforced and contradicted current assumptions about the self-efficacy of graduate and undergraduate student teachers and the results should be noted by all teacher education programs and those that hire the products of those programs.

Key terms: student teachers, teacher self-efficacy, grade point average, age

INTRODUCTION

As K-12 public education faces increasing scrutiny and criticism for failure to close the achievement gap, the call for accountability has begun to move in the direction of teacher preparation programs. Critics contend that traditional teacher education programs are failing to produce the kind of teachers needed in today's schools. Central to that discussion is a key question: Do the current traditional programs do an effective job of preparing our next generation

of teachers? Unfortunately, very little is known about how effectively various programs prepare teachers.

One common approach to measuring the impact of teachers is to look at teacher self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy has been studied for over 30 years and has provided mounting evidence that teacher beliefs about their competencies have a significant impact on teaching effectiveness. There is a strong research base on teacher self-efficacy (Ross, 1994) and its impact on teacher effectiveness. Among the many positive correlates of high teaching self-efficacy, students of teachers with high teaching self-efficacy have demonstrated higher student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986) and motivation (Midgley, Feldlaufer & Eccles, 1989).

The student teaching experience, in combination with the teacher education program, plays a pivotal role in the formation of teacher self-efficacy. Darling -Hammond, Chung and Frelow (2002) identified sense of preparedness as the strongest predictor of teaching self-efficacy. The student teaching experience is the capstone of the traditional teacher education program and is considered by teacher candidates and teacher educators to be the most influential component of teacher preparation (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001).

It appears that teacher self-efficacy is most malleable during the first few years of teaching (Bandura, 1986) so the student teaching experience can have a long-term impact on teaching success or lack thereof. Since research on self-efficacy has shown that student teaching and the first few years of teaching have a significant impact on teacher efficacy (Hoy & Spero, 2005; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990), and teacher self-efficacy apparently becomes resistant to change with experience (Henson, 2002), it would seem that teacher education programs and teacher induction programs should promote and assess teacher self-efficacy. Research is limited, however, about how the foundational student teaching experience and corresponding teacher self-efficacy differs among different types of traditional teacher preparation programs.

One way to assess the preparation of teacher candidates is to assess their personal teaching efficacy. No Child Left Behind has placed an increased emphasis on highly qualified teachers. Highly qualified usually refers to the academic preparation in the content areas that teachers are expected to teach. A positive relationship between grades and teaching efficacy is implied in the criticism that schools of education, on average, accept students with lower GPA's than other professional programs. Some support for that assumption comes from an Israeli study by Wertheim and Leyser (2002) that found secondary pre-service teachers had higher self-efficacy than elementary pre-service teachers and that correlated with secondary teachers having higher high school grades and admissions test scores (Kfir, Ariav, Feigin & Libman, 1998). If college grades are a rough measure of the mastery of content by students and greater mastery leads to higher self-efficacy in teaching, then college grades might also predict teaching efficacy. That begets the question: Do college grades predict teaching efficacy?

Bandura (1977) noted that efficacy is context specific and Labone (2004) has bemoaned the fact that much efficacy research lacks a consideration of context. That leads to questions related to teacher self-efficacy within different educational contexts. Does teaching efficacy in a suburban setting translate to teaching efficacy in an urban setting? Does success teaching high-achieving students lead to success teaching low-achieving students? Some perceive the challenges of teaching at the secondary level to be different than the challenges of teaching at the elementary level. Are there differences in teaching efficacy between elementary and secondary

teachers? Those are questions about the context of teaching. Student teachers are placed in a variety of educational contexts and both the efficacy beliefs of the student teachers and their subsequent comfort in those contexts may rest on their student teaching experience.

The expansion of graduate programs and alternative paths to licensure has led to the introduction of teaching candidates who span across the age spectrum. Older teacher candidates bring varied life experiences and maturity into the classroom. Do those experiences and maturity give them a higher level of self-efficacy as they enter the classroom?

Very few studies have examined the relationship between age and self-efficacy among novice teachers. Teaching is a profession that demographically is dominated by women (Feitzritzer, 2011) and the trend lines would suggest the profession will remain that way or become even more female. While there is a push, especially at the elementary level, to increase the number of male teachers, the underlying question is: Does gender matter?

It is evident that the research on student teaching self-efficacy and the factors that impact it has generated more questions than answers. There is a strong need for more data surrounding the kinds of teacher education programs and candidates we need to increase student achievement. Even among programs offered in traditional colleges of education, there is much variety and surprisingly little data that indicates what makes a difference in teacher preparation. The current study explored the impact of student teaching upon student teacher self-efficacy. It also examined the relationship between the type of program (undergraduate, graduate) and teaching self-efficacy. Additionally, it examined the relationship of several demographic variables to teaching efficacy, including age, gender, undergraduate grade point average and setting of the student teaching placement (urban, suburban, rural) (elementary, secondary).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Origins of Self Efficacy

In 1976, researchers from the RAND organization (Armor, Conroy-Osegura, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman, 1976) added two statements to a lengthy questionnaire that they distributed to teachers in Los Angeles schools that had made gains in reading. The two statements were based on the work of Julian Rotter and were tied to his article "Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement" (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control reflects the individual's belief as to whether control of reinforcement resides within the individual or in the environment. Teachers with a high level of internal locus of control believe that they can strongly influence student achievement.

The two statements added were: 1) "When it comes right down to it, a teacher can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends upon his or her home environment"; 2) If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students. The first statement has subsequently been labeled *general teaching efficacy (GTE) (*Ashton, Olejnik, Crocker &McAuliffe, 1982) and the second statement has become associated with the term *personal teaching efficacy (*PTE). Teachers who disagreed with the first statement and agreed with the second statement were found to be far more likely to succeed in teaching minority students. The sum of those scores was called *teacher efficacy* by the RAND researchers and thus research on teaching efficacy was launched.

At about the same time, a self efficacy theory with its origins in social cognitive theory had been developed by Bandura (1977). Bandura (1997) differentiated self-efficacy from locus of control in that self-efficacy reflects one's beliefs that one can execute a set of actions whereas locus of control reflects the belief that those actions will lead to specific results. Self efficacy is task-specific and a learned system of beliefs whereas locus of control is a generalized expectancy. Bandura saw efficacy expectations and outcomes expectations as separate concepts but useful in combination. According to Bandura (1997), efficacy expectations are far better predictors of behavior than outcome expectations.

Almost all of the research on teacher self-efficacy for the past three decades has evolved out of the theories of Rotter and Bandura. While Bandura's work has taken on increasing importance, the bulk of original research grew out of the RAND study and Rotter's conceptual model of locus of control. Researchers, however, were concerned about the reliability of a two-item scale so additional efficacy measures were created that were built upon the Rotter model of locus of control Additional studies reinforced earlier correlations between efficacy and achievement (Ashton, 1985; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Herman, Meece, & McCombs, 2000; Ross, 1992), willingness to use innovations (Gaith & Yaghi, 1997; Guskey, 1984; Smylie, 1988) and tendency to stay in teaching (Glickman & Tamishiro, 1982).

In the 1980's, efficacy scales were beginning to be developed that more closely aligned with Bandura's theory of self-efficacy. Gibson and Dembo (1984) developed the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) and Ashton (Ashton & Webb, 1986) created vignettes that measured teacher self-efficacy beliefs. The TES measured both personal teaching efficacy (self-efficacy expectation) and general teaching efficacy (outcome expectations).

More recent research on self-efficacy continues to add more clarity to the relationship between teacher beliefs and student achievement. Ross (1994) also reported initial findings (Dembo & Gibson, 1985) on general teaching efficacy and experience that indicated that general teaching efficacy decreased over time. In that study, preservice teachers had a stronger belief in the ability of the school to overcome the disadvantaged background of students than their more experienced inservice teachers. That finding has since been reinforced on numerous occasions (Gaith and Yaghi, 1997; Hoy and Woofolk, 1993; Taylor and Tahakkori, 1995). Gaith and Yaghi (1997) have theorized that the decline in general teaching efficacy comes with the increased realization among veteran teachers of the impact of factors outside of school over which they have no control.

The research reported on the relationship of experience to personal teaching self-efficacy has been somewhat inconclusive. Several research studies across the globe have found a positive correlation between personal teaching efficacy and years of experience (Campbell, 1996; de la Torre Cruz & Arias, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woofolk Hoy, 2007; Yeo, et al., 2008) but others have shown no correlation (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Guskey, 1987).

The research on the impact of experience on personal teaching efficacy versus outcome expectancy is worth noting because it appears that outcome expectancy is stable or decreases with age whereas teaching-efficacy increases. Dembo and Gibson (1985) found that while outcome expectancy is higher for pre-service teachers than experienced teachers, those scores

decline with experience for all groups. Two international studies add to that finding. Canadian student teachers showed an increase in personal teaching efficacy but a slight decrease in outcomes expectancy (Housego, 1992) and Korean pre-service teachers significantly increased in personal teaching efficacy but showed no corresponding increase in outcomes expectancy (Gorrell & Hwang, 1995). Within the context of elementary science teaching efficacy, Plourde (2002) found a slight but statistically insignificant increase in science teaching efficacy and a significant decrease in science outcomes expectancy after student teaching. It seems that student teaching and teaching experience over time both tend to increase the teachers beliefs about their abilities to successfully perform teaching tasks but it decreases the belief that those behaviors will always lead to successful results for students. Over time, teachers seem to come to the conclusion that student learning is impacted by many factors beyond the teacher's skill and knowledge (Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997). It may be that is tied to Guskey's (1987) observation that teachers feel more capable of producing positive outcomes (personal efficacy) than preventing negative ones (outcomes efficacy).

Teacher Self-Efficacy Measures

The measurement of the construct of self-efficacy has evolved over time. The initial construct was named and defined by the RAND Corporation (Armor, et al. 1976). At about the same time, Gibson and Dembo (1984) created a 30-item scale (Teacher Efficacy Scale) that attempted to measure teacher self-efficacy using Social Cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) as its foundation. Gibson and Dembo (1984) labeled the two factors *personal teaching efficacy* and *teaching efficacy.* The latter was eventually described as *general teaching efficacy* (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). Interestingly, research on GTE and PTE has shown only a very modest correlation between the two factors using both the RAND and Gibson and Dembo scales. Dissatisfaction with the theoretical and statistical limitations of the RAND scale and concerns about the construct validity (Tschannen-Moran et.al., 1998) and reliability (Henson, 2002) of the GTE subscale on the TES has led to additional efforts to create a more accurate and useful scale for teacher self-efficacy.

Bandura (1997) created his own 30-item instrument (Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale) that reflected a multi-faceted view of teacher efficacy beliefs. The research base using that scale has been quite limited. Bandura's approach, however, was extended when Tschannen-Moran and Woofolk Hoy (2001) created the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale, later renamed the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). That scale was created by combining some of Bandura's statements with additional areas deemed important by a group of teachers who assisted in the development of items. As expected, the TSES reflects teacher self-efficacy beliefs and the many dimensions of teacher responsibilities. The TSES has been used in a growing body of teacher self-efficacy studies. As a result of the strength of its research base and its demonstration of construct validity related to self-efficacy theory, as reported earlier in this literature review, the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale was selected for use in this study.

Student Teaching

INSTRUCTIONAL IMPACT ON ACHIEVEMENT OF ECONOMICALLY AND LEARNING DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS AT TWO OHIO MIDDLE SCHOOLS

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Abstract

Reading and math achievement gaps exist between disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students. This quantitative cross-sectional survey examined the effect of using a teacher-centered approach and a student-centered approach on the reading and math Ohio Achievement Test scores of disadvantaged students in two similar middle schools. Sixth through eighth grade reading and/or math teachers completed the Principles of Adult Learning Scale survey. Results indicated that a student-centered approach was more effective in the reading classroom for all students identified as economically disadvantaged, learning disabled, or both. In addition, a student-centered approach was more effective for students identified as only economically disadvantaged as well as students identified as only learning disabled in the reading classroom. A significant difference was not found between the instructional approaches in the math classroom. Results suggest that a student-centered approach may minimize the achievement gap that exists in the reading scores of disadvantaged students. By examining the factor scores attributed to the student-centered teachers, three classroom practices were found to be effective in improving student learning and achievement: personalizing instruction, relating to experience, and assessing student needs. To close the achievement gap that exists between disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students, teachers and administrators can use findings from this study. In addition to closing the achievement gap, disadvantaged students will be closer to achieving a proficiency rating; thus, helping schools meet accountability requirements.

Keywords: instructional approach; achievement; disadvantaged student

INTRODUCTION

According to Singham (2003), “Effective teachers produce as much as six times the learning gains produced by less effective teachers, it should not be surprising that good teachers can have such a differentially positive effect on minority students” (pp. 589-590). Along this same line of thought, Tucker et al. (2005) emphasized that “teachers exert a potent influence over the

achievement of all students, low-income culturally diverse students in particular" (p. 29). Tucker and fellow authors also explained that high-efficacy teachers tend to maintain higher levels of student engagement and generally perceive themselves as capable of working with a diverse student population. Therefore, whether looking at the achievement gap from an educational-reform stance, like Singham (2003), or from a more socio-cultural perspective (Tucker, et al., 2003), teachers are a valuable resource.

Background of the Problem

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), passed in 1965, was part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's *War on Poverty*. The important factor of this issue was improving educational opportunities for minority families of preschool- and elementary-aged children. In addition, the ESEA advocated for early educational intervention to compensate for the inequality present among disadvantaged families. Federal funding from the ESEA-Title 1 program provided Head Start with remedial math and reading programs for the educationally deprived child (deMarrais & LeCompte, 1999). The ESEA has since been reauthorized after 40 years to incorporate provisions established by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB).

Concern for the education of American children became an issue of concern in light of the advancement of technology and increased global competition in the areas of mathematics and science specifically. January 8, 2002 marked the date in which the NCLB Act of 2001 (2002b) became law. Four principles that address the achievement gap in schools include: (a) educational accountability for student achievement results; (b) provisions for parents to make a choice of when and how children can receive alternative educational opportunities; (c) explanations of how school districts could obtain more local control; and (d) justification for making curricular and instructional decisions that are based on scientific research. Additionally, the act focused on closing the achievement gap in education nationwide. Under NCLB, testing will increase in grades 3-8 with the aim to get all students to a proficient level by 2014 (2002a). Under this legislation, schools are held accountable for making adequate yearly progress (AYP) which is measured yearly with a state criterion-referenced test. The test holds schools accountable for the learning that a student exhibits while attending the school. In the opinion of Simpson, LaCava, and Graner (2004), "by mandating that all students demonstrate annual yearly progress, *NCLB* serves as the most rigorous and exacting of standards-based strategies yet enacted for reforming schools" (p. 68). The ramifications of not meeting the AYP requirements for two consecutive years can result in sanctions or possible takeover by the state in an attempt to encourage schools and school districts to improve ("NCLB Executive Summary," 2002).

Numerous studies focusing on the achievement gaps among diverse students reveal achievement gaps at all levels. Bali and Alvarez (2004) compared second grade Stanford 9 test scores of Blacks and Hispanics to those of Caucasian students in California. Findings indicated that only 23% of Blacks and 17% of Hispanics were proficient in reading compared to 50% of Caucasian students. Mathematic scores reflected a 29% proficiency rate for Blacks and a 30% rate for Hispanics compared to 61% for Caucasian students (Bali & Alvarez, 2004).

The U. S. Department of Education (2005), as part of the participation process with NAEP, analyzed student characteristics specific to Ohio. The number of students identified as economically disadvantaged accounted for 31.3% of the total enrollment. Data from the 2005 NAEP study indicated a gap in the average scaled scores for economically disadvantaged students compared to non-disadvantaged students in Ohio (U. S. Department of Education, 2005). On the fourth grade math assessment, the average scaled score for economically disadvantaged students was 227 while a 252 was the average for non-disadvantaged students. The difference in average scaled scores on the fourth grade reading assessment are similar with economically disadvantaged students averaging a score of 206 and non-disadvantaged students scoring a 233 on average. The eighth grade assessments in math and reading in Ohio also demonstrate a gap between disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students (U. S. Department of Education, 2005). The average math scaled score for eighth grade economically disadvantaged students was 265 while a scaled score of 290 was the average for non-disadvantaged students. Reading scores at the eighth grade level demonstrated similar findings. Economically disadvantaged students averaged a scaled score of 251 in comparison to the average scaled score of 274 for non-disadvantaged students.

The number of students identified as learning disabled accounted for 14.2% of the total enrollment. Data from the 2005 NAEP study indicated a gap in the average scaled scores for students with disabilities compared to non-disabled students in Ohio (U. S. Department of Education, 2005). The average fourth grade math scaled score for students with disabilities was 223 compared to the 244 score of non-disabled students. Scaled scores from the fourth grade reading assessment also demonstrated a gap with students with disabilities averaging 201 while non-disabled students scored an average of 224. The average scaled scores on the eighth grade math and reading assessment demonstrated a gap between students with disabilities and non-disabled students according to the NAEP data (U. S. Department of Education, 2005). The average eighth grade math scaled score for students with disabilities was 251 while non-disabled students received a 286 on average. The reading averages at the eighth grade level also illustrated the gap between disabled and non-disabled students. Students with disabilities averaged a scale score of 231 while the non-disabled students at the eighth grade level scored a 270 on average.

The teaching strategies employed by educators affect student performance (Milgram, Dunn, & Price, 1993; Odden, Borman, & Fermanich, 2004). Wright, Horn, and Sanders (1997) stated:

> Effective teachers appear to be effective with students of all achievement levels, regardless of the level of heterogeneity in their classrooms. If the teacher is ineffective, students under that teacher's tutelage will achieve inadequate progress academically, regardless of how similar or different they are regarding their academic achievement. (p. 23)

Experiences that students encounter "can promote or inhibit retention, interest, satisfaction, and internalization of a given problem" (VanTassel-Baska, 1998, p. 30). The method of delivery is crucial for student learning. Instructional techniques such as inquiry-based lessons, group problem-solving settings, independent investigations, and group discussions should be utilized to accomplish the objectives and the goals of the curriculum (Renzulli, 1977). Not only does attention have to be paid to the instructional techniques, but also to the organization of delivery. According to Phenix (as cited in VanTassel-Baska, 1988), educational institutions must

acknowledge the relationship among concepts and ideas in order to organize instruction vertically and horizontally.

Statement of the Problem

Low academic achievement in reading and mathematics by economically disadvantaged and learning disabled students is resulting in an achievement gap in schools (Bali & Alvarez, 2004).Achievement gaps exist between students of poverty when compared to non-poverty student test scores and "for many high-poverty students, the middle grades are a period in which achievement gaps in mathematics become achievement chasms" (Balfanz & Byrnes, 2006, p. 143). Achievement gaps also exist in the state of Ohio. Achievement scores for economically disadvantaged (ED) and learning disabled (LD) students are lower according to the Ohio Department of Education (ODE) when compared to non-economically disadvantaged and non-learning disabled students taking the Ohio Achievement Test (ODE , 2008).

There is a lack of knowledge about which instructional approaches are most effective in closing the achievement gap for each group of students. This quantitative cross-sectional survey research study investigated the relationship between achievement scores of students and the implementation of instructional approaches in two similar Ohio middle schools.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative cross-sectional survey study was to determine if instructional approaches affect achievement scores of economically disadvantaged and/or learning disabled students at two similar middle schools in Ohio in order to gain knowledge that could be used by teachers to minimize the achievement gap. The instructional approach used by teachers in the classroom represented the independent variable while the dependent variable was the reading and math achievement test scores of the students instructed by the participating teachers. Instructional approach, teacher-centered or student-centered, was determined by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) instrument (Conti, 1982) that was completed by teachers participating in the study who taught grades 6 through 8 reading or math in the two selected middle schools located in southwest and central Ohio. Achievement data routinely collected and distributed by the Ohio Department of Education concerning the reading and math scores of students completing the Ohio Achievement Test at grades 6 through 8 was also examined in order to link the participating teachers with students identified as economically disadvantaged, learning disabled, or both.

Significance of the Problem

The significance of the study was the acquisition of general and leadership knowledge to the educational discipline. With the passing of NCLB, schools and ultimately teachers are being held accountable for the achievement levels of specific subgroups (No Child Left Behind, 2002a). In

light of these demands, the consequences, and lack of funding, schools and current teachers are seeking methods to enable them to attain the accountability measures. The study provided educators with instructional approaches that are effective with diverse learners in order to close the achievement gap as well as provide an understanding of appropriate strategies to create an environment conducive to learning. In addition, the study provided an understanding of the impact of instructional approach on student achievement. By helping teachers recognize the problem and understand the approaches that aid underachieving students, students can gain the support and instruction necessary to improve academic achievement and close the gap between their performances and that of non-disabled or non-economically disadvantaged students. The study also provided important knowledge that will benefit individuals in a leadership position. Leaders need to know what instructional practices promote higher achievement scores among economically disadvantaged and learning disabled students in order to support teachers in the implementation of these strategies.

Nature of the Study

The quantitative research study examined the impact of teacher-centered and student-centered approaches (independent variables) on the reading and math achievement scores (dependent variables) of disadvantaged students in two similar Ohio middle schools. In order to answer the research questions in the study, achievement scores of economically and/or learning disadvantaged students as well as the instructional approach used by the teachers needed to be collected. Student achievement scores on the reading and math portions of the Ohio Achievement Test are routinely collected and distributed to every school in Ohio using a secure website. Login information was obtained from each participating school in order to access the student file, which provided the link between student and teacher of record.

The study contained research questions that were specific and narrow in focus. To ascertain the impact of instructional approaches on the achievement scores of economically disadvantaged students and students with learning disabilities, instruments to measure these variables were used, thus producing numeric results. To examine practices and attitudes at one point in time, a cross-sectional design was selected (Creswell, 2002). In order to obtain the type of instructional approach used (teacher or student-centered), the PALS instrument (Conti, 1982) was given to participating teachers through an online survey.

In order to analyze if instructional approaches impact student achievement of disadvantaged students in the middle school, a *t*-test was used to compare the mean reading and math scores for each group of disadvantaged students (economically disadvantaged, learning disabled, and

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The Group Assessment Procedure: Predicting Student Teaching Performance

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Abstract

Many educational reformers presume that teacher quality will improve if teacher preparation programs simply raise standards of academic selection criteria. However, these traditional criteria are poor predictors of student teaching performance. Instead, teacher preparation programs are in need of admission criteria that will identify candidates who are most likely to succeed in student teaching. The Group Assessment Procedure, which measures soft skills, may fulfill that need. An alternative to the individual interview and a derivative of the assessment center method for selecting managers in the field of business, the Group Assessment Procedure is 90-minute interview of numerous candidates simultaneously. Evidence of the validity of the Group Assessment Procedure as a selection tool was limited to those teacher candidates attending large public institutions of higher education in both Israel and Utah. The purpose of this study was to validate the Group Assessment Procedure as a viable teacher candidate selection tool at a small, private university in the Midwest. This non-experimental, predictive validity study examined the relationship between student teachers' performance scores earned in the Group Assessment Procedure with their performance scores in student teaching that same semester, as well as their grade point averages at the time of admission. Findings of this study suggest that Group Assessment Procedure scores are better predictors of student teaching performance scores than grade point average at the time of admission. If implemented, these findings will empower teacher education programs to efficiently select teacher education candidates who are most likely to succeed in student teaching.

Keywords: teacher candidate selection criteria, student teaching, group assessment procedure, group interview

In an effort to select the most qualified teacher education candidates while satisfying increasing demands from governmental and accrediting agencies, teacher preparation programs commonly use quantitative indices for admission selection criteria. Recent surveys of teacher preparation programs nationwide denote the widespread usage of standardized tests as admission criteria (Ginsberg & Whaley, 2003; Petersen & Speaker, 1996), while a minimum grade point average (GPA) remains the most common admission criteria required by teacher preparation programs nationwide (Fisher & Feldman, 1985; Ginsberg & Whaley, 2003; Laman & Reeves, 1983; Petersen & Speaker, 1996). Despite the widespread usage of standardized tests and minimum GPA as admission criteria, research suggests that traditional academic indicators, such as GPA and standardized test scores, are poor predictors of student teaching performance (Mikitovics & Crehan, 2002).

Therefore, teacher preparation programs are in need of admission criteria that will identify candidates who are most likely to succeed in student teaching. The Group Assessment Procedure, a structured group interview, appears to fulfill that need. By placing approximately eight candidates in a room together at the same time to interact with one another while responding to a range of interview questions, trained faculty raters discretely observe and assess candidates' soft skills and character traits within the domains of human interaction, oral communication, and leadership.

Repeated studies of the Group Assessment Procedure at large, public universities in Israel and Utah suggest that Group Assessment Procedure scores appear to be better predictors of student teaching performance than are traditional academic indicators (Byrnes et al., 2003; Shechtman, 1983; Shechtman & Godfried, 1993). However, the demographic identifiers of the teacher candidates in these studies have been reflective of their respective locales: a large, public university in Utah, and a large, public university in Haifa, Israel. Additionally, two recent studies of the Group Assessment Procedure (Farnsworth et al., 2003; Faulk, 2008) raised questions regarding the validity and reliability of the instrument. Therefore, this study of the predictive power of the Group Assessment Procedure with a teacher candidate population in a small, private university in the Midwest was conducted to provide helpful information to teacher preparation programs seeking to redesign admissions procedures and policies so as to optimize student and program outcomes. The primary research question addressed in this study is as follows:

What is the relationship between a teacher candidate's performance in the Group Assessment Procedure at a small, private university in the Midwest and a teacher candidate's performance in student teaching?

Additional questions addressed in this study follow:

1. Is there a relationship between the overall rating score a teacher candidate receives from a cooperating teacher during student teaching and a teacher candidate's overall rating score on the Group Assessment Procedure at a small, private university in the Midwest?
2. Is there a relationship between the overall rating score a teacher candidate receives from a cooperating teacher during student teaching and a teacher candidate's GPA at the time of admission to the teacher preparation program at a small, private university in the Midwest?

3. For teacher candidates who score 3 or lower in the Group Assessment Procedure at a small, private university in the Midwest, is there a relationship between the overall rating score a teacher candidate receives from a cooperating teacher during student teaching and the candidate's GPA at the time of admission to the teacher preparation program?

Theoretical and Empirical Issues Related to Teacher Candidate Admission Criteria

Standardized Testing

Though initiated by education reform reports and touted by legislators (Guest, 1993), standardized teacher tests have frequently been charged with failure to demonstrate content and predictive validity (Berliner, 2005; Burke, 2005; D'Agostino & Powers, 2009; Melnick & Pullin, 2000). Several studies have concluded that standardized tests as admission criteria are not predictive of student teaching performance (Byrnes, Kiger & Schechtman, 2003; D'Agostino & Powers, 2009; Dobry et al., 1985; Dybdahl et al., 1997; Hicken, 1992; Mikitovics & Crehan, 2002; Olstad, 1987; Olstad, 1988; Quirk et al., 1973). Dybdahl et al. observed, "After more than a decade of teacher testing, research has failed to demonstrate any significant relationship between basic competency tests and . . . measures of program success, including success in teaching" (p. 252).

An additional significant concern regarding the impact of widespread usage of standardized tests upon teacher candidates asserted by Mitchell, Plakes, and Knowles (2001) was that standardized testing has narrowed the pool of teacher candidates. George et al. (1985) contended that "poor teachers are not identified by multiple choice tests, and numerous good ones are increasingly being prevented access to the profession by their scores" (p. 56). More specifically, several educators and researchers have reported that standardized tests have significantly reduced the pool of racially diverse candidates (Flippo, 2003; Hicken, 1992; Hilliard, 1986; Memory, Coleman, & Watkins, 2003; Mercer, 1984; Mitchell et al., 2001). Studies such as these add yet another dimension to the validity challenges that have been raised regarding standardized teacher testing.

GPA

Studies of the predictive validity of GPA calculated at the time of admission have also concluded that this traditional admission criterion is a poor predictor of student teaching performance (Byrnes et al., 2003; Oldenkamp, 2003; Olstad, 1987). Additionally, most studies examining teacher candidates' cumulative GPA have concluded that it, too, is a poor predictor of subsequent performance in student teaching (Dobry et al., 1985) and of scores on standardized tests (Brown et al., 2008; Michiels Hernandez et al., 2006).

Findings such as these should not be interpreted as calls to abolish the use of such traditional academic admission criteria. Denner et al. (2001) observed, "traditional academic indicators themselves and the criteria applied, such as minimum scores, may have a certain degree of validity for predicting general academic success in teacher education programs" (p. 166). In fact, a case could be made for the usage of GPA and standardized tests as one measure of a candidate's content knowledge in any given content area (Petersen & Speaker, 1996). However, it would be a faulty assumption to presume that content area knowledge is predictive of teaching success (Zimpher & Howey, 1992). Several researchers have concluded that more valid and reliable assessments of teacher education candidates are needed (Flippo, 2003; Mercer, 1984; Petersen & Speaker, 1996).

Group Assessment Procedure

A lesser known teacher candidate selection tool, the Group Assessment Procedure, has demonstrated reliability and predictive validity in some locales. The Group Assessment Procedure is a four-stage interview that requires approximately eight prospective teacher education candidates to participate together in a series of discussions and one problem-solving activity over the course of 90 minutes. It was first reported by Shechtman (1983) as an admission criterion used by the School of Education of Haifa University in Israel. The Group Assessment Procedure has since been validated numerous times in the same region. The Group Assessment score is the Overall Rating prospective teacher education candidates earn while they participate in the Group Assessment Procedure. Scores range from 6 (exceptional level of competence) to 1 (poor level of competence.) Other sub-scores are also generated by the Group Assessment Procedure: Verbal Communication, Human Interaction, and Leadership.

Repeated studies of the Group Assessment Procedure at large, public universities in Israel and Utah suggest that Group Assessment scores are better predictors of student teaching performance than are traditional academic indicators (Byrnes et al., 2003; Shechtman, 1983; Shechtman & Godfried, 1993). However, no studies of the Group Assessment Procedure had yet been conducted at independent, non-profit institutions of higher education (that prepare teachers) with enrollments of 4,999 students or less (Feistritzer, 1999). This was problematic because the majority of teacher preparation programs in the United States fit this demographic. Additionally, no studies of the Group Assessment Procedure in the United States had included the student teaching performance scores of students scoring below 3 in the Group Assessment Procedure because those students are generally denied admission to teacher preparation programs (Faulk, 2008). Furthermore, two recent studies of the Group Assessment Procedure (Faulk, 2008; Farnsworth, Benson, & Peterson, et al., 2003) challenged its validity as a predictor of student teaching performance. Therefore, this study was conducted to examine the predictive validity of this teacher candidate admission tool with a different target population to address these issues.

Structure of the Group Assessment Procedure

Unlike time-consuming individual interviews or 2- to 3-day assessment center evaluations, the Group Assessment Procedure requires an allocation of only 90 minutes (Shechtman, 1992a). Within the 90-minute timeframe, two trained raters observe eight students interacting with one another during a four-stage interview: impromptu oral introductions; discussion of controversial topics (one social issue and one educational issue); a "leaderless group discussion" (Shechtman, 1992b, p. 33) that requires candidates to reach consensus to solve a problem; and a feedback stage during which candidates are directed to give feedback to one another, self-assessments regarding their own performances in the Group Assessment Procedure, and reflections on the Group Assessment Procedure itself (Shechtman, 1992b).

Scoring of the Group Assessment Procedure

At the conclusion of the Group Assessment Procedure, each rater finalizes subtotals for each interviewee regarding the three previously identified dimensions (Shechtman & Godfried, 1993). Ratings for each of these dimensions are assigned to one of six levels of proficiency, ranging from a high level of competency (score of 6) to a low level of competency (score of 1). After raters finalize sub-scores for each candidate, they collaborate to determine a fourth score, the Overall Rating (Shechtman & Godfried, 1993). This score represents a candidate's general fitness for the teaching profession (Shechtman, 1992a).

Method

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to validate a previously used instrument in an existing setting. It yielded numerical data that was analyzed to examine the relationship among three variables: teacher education candidates' Group Assessment Procedure scores, teacher candidates' student teaching performance scores, and teacher candidates' GPA at the time of admission to the program based upon a selection of required general education courses. The data analysis provided answers to research questions that are predictive by nature. Therefore, this study employed quantitative research methods. More specifically, a non-experimental prediction study within the correlational design was used.

Sample

The study sample included 31 teacher candidates at a small, private university in the Midwest who qualified for the study, consented to participate, and completed their student teaching experiences during the 2009-2010 academic calendar. Though the size of the sample was small, it exceeded the 30 participant minimum deemed "desirable" for correlational research studies (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 176).

In many ways, the demographic composition of the sample closely mirrored the demographic composition of the entire university. Within this sample, 24 participants were seeking elementary certification, and 7 were seeking secondary certification. The teacher candidate participants ranged in age from 21 to 44 years. The only significant divergence from the university's demographic composition was that the research sample included greater racial diversity: 83.8% White, non-Hispanic, 6.5 % Black, 6.5 % Hispanic, and 3.2% Bi-racial.

Study Variables

According to Gall et al. (2003), "the likelihood of obtaining an important research finding is greater if the researcher uses theory and the results of previous research to select variables to be correlated with one another" (p. 323). Therefore, the variables analyzed in this study were based upon those identified by Faulk (2008) and Byrnes et al. (2003). The criterion variable examined was the student teaching performance rating as measured by cooperating teachers using the Group Assessment Procedure Rating Scale. The predictor variables were the participants' GPA calculated from select general education courses that were required for admission to the School of Education, and the Group Assessment score (overall rating) participants earned in the Group Assessment Procedure.

Both the concurrent and construct validity of the Group Assessment Procedure and Rating Scale were established in a study by Shechtman and Godfried (1993). Additionally, two trained raters were used to assess participants during the Group Assessment Procedure and two tra
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Model-based Teaching to Facilitate Geometry Learning of Students Who Struggle in Mathematics

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Abstract

In the current educational climate of Individuals with Disabilities Education Act 2004 and No Child Left Behind, teachers are required to find methods to give all students (including students with disabilities) access to higher-level mathematical concepts. Little research in special education has focused on the higher-level mathematical concept of geometry. The purpose of this single-subject-design study was to explore the potential effect of an instructional program that teaches basic geometry concepts through building on fundamental mathematical idea of multiplicative reasoning. Results indicated that all four participants improved their performance on solving geometry problems including finding area of irregularly shaped polygons and volume

of a rectangular prism. An emphasis was given to the connection between mathematical ideas for promoting conceptual understanding.

The *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (United States Department of Education, 1997, 2004) required schools to give students with disabilities access to the general education curriculum. *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB, 2002) mandated that all students, including subgroups such as students with disabilities, be proficient on state assessments by the school year 2013-2014. It is imperative that researchers find methods for teaching mathematics that will be effective in the classrooms in this era of inclusion which often contain students with diverse needs.

While recent National Assessment of Educational Progress data show positive gains in mathematics for 9-year-olds overall from 2004-2008, the lowest-performing 10% did not show significant improvement (Rampey, Dion, & Donahue, 2008). NCLB (2002) requires schools to close the gap and raise the performance levels of the lowest-performing 10% of students. While struggling students need to develop basic skills to close this gap, these students also need deep conceptual understanding to gain access to higher level mathematics (e.g., algebra and geometry) for success in middle school and high school (National Math Advisory Panel Report, 2008).

Few studies have been done on teaching the higher level mathematical concept of geometry to students with learning disabilities (LD), mild intellectual disabilities, or other disabilities, or students without disabilities who struggle with mathematics (Cass, Cates, Smith, & Jackson, 2003). There has been an overall lack of studies in special education mathematics research geared toward students with LD learning geometry (Woodward & Montague, 2002). More importantly, there is an absence of studies that attend to the connection between geometrical concepts and fundamental mathematical ideas. Connections, as one of the five

Process Standards stipulated by the National Council of Teachers in Mathematics (NCTM, 2000), emphasize students' ability to understand the connections among mathematical ideas.

In fact, the only study found by the researchers that addressed geometry learning for students with LD was conducted by Cass, Cates, Smith, and Jackson (2003). Specifically, Cass et al. applied manipulatives to the teaching of geometry problems including perimeter and area of rectangles to junior high and high school students with LD and found positive results. For calculating perimeter and area, the teacher demonstrated on the geoboard by counting the distance from one nail to another (that is one unit) to figure out the perimeter of shapes, and counting the number of square units to find out the area of a rectangle.

While the study by Cass et al. is important to the field of special education due to laying a foundation for teaching geometry to students with LD, the study did not go above and beyond the use of manipulatives (geoboard) to solve perimeter and area problems. For instance, to solve problems presented on paper (e.g., figures of tables with measurements presented in inches and/or feet), students were taught to "represent the figures in the book on the geoboard" (p. 116) and then "compared the figure on the board to the figure in the book" (p. 116) to make sure it is the same. Then students would count the number of squares on the geoboard to determine the number of square units of the figure. As such, it was not clear how the students were transitioned to solve, via paper and pencil, problems involving large numbers *without* relying on the geoboard. It seems that the students in this study were only taught to use the concrete modeling (i.e., geoboard) to solve perimeter or area problems; the *connection* between the concrete modeling and the abstract modeling that may involve applying a formula to solve area problems was not addressed.

It is common to believe that teaching for understanding involves only concrete object manipulations or representations that are "away from symbolic formalisms" (Sherin, 2001, p. 524). In fact, the transition from concrete to abstract models is a weak link in current educational practice, especially in elementary mathematics instruction and with students with LD in particular. To promote advanced conceptual understanding and generalizable problem-solving skills, it is critical that students develop abstract levels of operation through establishing the *connection* between concrete modeling and symbolic expression of mathematical relations.

The purpose of this study was to explore the potential effect of an instructional program that teaches basic geometry concepts pertinent to area/volume problem solving through building on the big idea of multiplicative reasoning (MR). MR is the reasoning about multiplicative relationship; it involves the concept of equal groups or quantities and the relationships among them (Simon & Blume, 1994). MR involves an understanding of the concept of composite unit [CU] and an ability to operate on the CU. For instance, in a situation of "4 groups of 3 marbles in each," "3 marbles in each" represents a CU of 3 (or in other words, it is a UNIT rate). An ability to operate on this CU as "ONE" rather than "three" signifies a certain level of MR.

MR is fundamental to all advanced mathematical thinking (Mulligan, 2002). By connecting geometry and MR, the researchers set the goal to not only improve students' ability to solve geometry problems, but also to promote deeper conceptual understanding of high level math through building on elementary mathematical ideas. Below, we provide a review of the instructional component involved in the intervention of this study: Conceptual Model-based Problem Solving (COMPS).

Conceptual Model-Based Problem Solving

Conceptual model represents underlying mathematical relations in the problem rather than superficial story contexts. In teaching multiplicative problem solving, Yan Ping Xin has developed Conceptual Model-Based Problem Solving (COMPS) and conducted a series of studies (e.g., Xin, 2008; Xin, Wiles, & Lin, 2008; Xin & Zhang, 2009; Xin et al., 2011) to facilitate elementary mathematics problem solving with students with LD in particular. These studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of model-based problem solving in helping students make the transition from a real world problem's situational model to a mathematical model. Specifically, with the assistance of concrete modeling and *word problem story grammar* (Xin et al., 2008), students unpacked the meaning of conceptual models (e.g., "factor x factor = project" or "unit rate x number of units = product" for the equal-group problems) and applied the models to solve multiplicative problems.

Connection between Geometry and Multiplicative Reasoning (MR)

As MR encompasses arithmetic and geometry learning, the multiplicative conceptual model (i.e., unit rate x number of units = product, Xin, 2012) can serve as an overarching big idea that connects geometry with arithmetic learning. For instance, Simon and Blume (1994) related the concept of dimensions to MR while explaining how *area of a rectangle* problem can be used as a tool for reinforcing MR. Specifically, Simon and Blume demonstrated how the area of a rectangular region can be evaluated "as a multiplicative relationship between the lengths of the sides" (p. 472). Geometry serves as an ideal context for the extension of students' MR from when it is first introduced in learning the concepts of multiplication and division to more advanced mathematical concepts.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Closing the Achievement Gap: Strategies to Improve Mathematics Achievement of Academically Deficient Students in an Urban School

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Abstract

The primary focus for this study was to describe a method of improving mathematics achievement of academically deficient students in an urban school. The researchers wanted to understand how teachers engaged in teaching, managed the classroom environment, and viewed students' attitudes toward teaching and learning in the mathematics classroom.

Students in R^3 participated with their class in taking Benchmark Assessment I in September. Participants were later assessed using Benchmark assessments III and IV

The outcome of this research shows that textbook-based re-teaching was effective for improving standardized test scores and study habits for the participants. Simultaneously, the setting was helpful in correcting students' classroom behavior.

Related Literature

Since more minorities have exposed to education after the World War II, the achievement gap between whites and non-whites has been decreased. (Harris & Herrington, 2006). However, Ysseldyke et al. (2003) stressed that more than two-thirds of American students in urban schools are deficient in basic mathematics skills. Balfanz, Ruby, and Mac Iver (2002) described that urban students normally place two or more years below grade level on standardized placement tests. Without extra help, they become "at-risk" for failure at school. Predmore (2004) also

identified that low student achievement is one of several problems that today's urban schools are facing. The National Assessment of Educational Progress data (NAEP, 2008) also indicated that the gap between White and Black students among age 9, age 13, and age 17 has not significantly changed from 1990 and 2005. Even though, compared to 1973, scores for 9-year-olds in 2008 were 25 points higher for White students, 34 points higher for Black students, and 32 points higher for Hispanic students. The NAEP data indicated that there is still a noteworthy gap between White and Black students.

Method

To explore the impact of a R^3 Math Group (R^3) for mathematics achievement, a mixed methods approach was used. The R^3 Math curriculum was specially designed to improve learning and teaching in the urban classroom through re-teaching, re-enforcing, and re-building fundamental mathematical concepts. The researcher also wanted to understand how teachers engaged in teaching, classroom environment, and students' attitude toward teaching and learning in the mathematics classroom.

Setting and Participants

The sample group for the study was 85 students enrolled in seventh grade mathematics courses. Three mathematics teachers from three different schools in the same district also participated in the study. The criteria for teachers' participation included a willingness to support this study, allowing classroom observation, and providing test scores. All student participants were between ages 13 and 15. There were 48 male and 37 female students.

Data Collection

Instruments

The district-wide Benchmark Test scores were used to measure student achievement in mathematics. Students took the first assessment at the end of September, 2005. The pre-test established a baseline mathematics placement level for each student. They took the second assessment at the end of December after ten weeks with the R^3. The scores of Benchmark Test IV in February were collected to evaluate students' progress as the final outcome and post test after four-and-a-half months of working with the R^3.

Data Analysis

Data was collected and analyzed using qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative data collection included classroom observation and informal, unstructured interviews with teachers and students. Descriptive statistics and Multivariate Analysis of Variance with repeated measures were also used to evaluate the effects of the R^3 on the students' mathematics achievement.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The R^3 included six students, compared to 79 in the comparison group. Table 1. displays the mean test scores for each test for both the Focus and comparison group. Mean test scores of the R^3 improved from 32.67 % correct answers to 44.67% on the middle test, and to 49.00% on the post-test. Meanwhile, the mean score of comparison changed very little from 40.36% to 40.50%. The mean score of the comparison Group B had a large drop of 6.89% from the pre-test to post-test. The mean score of the comparison Group C was .44% lower from the pre-test, too.

Meanwhile, the mean score for the district dropped from 38% on the pre-test to 34% on the post test.

Table 1.

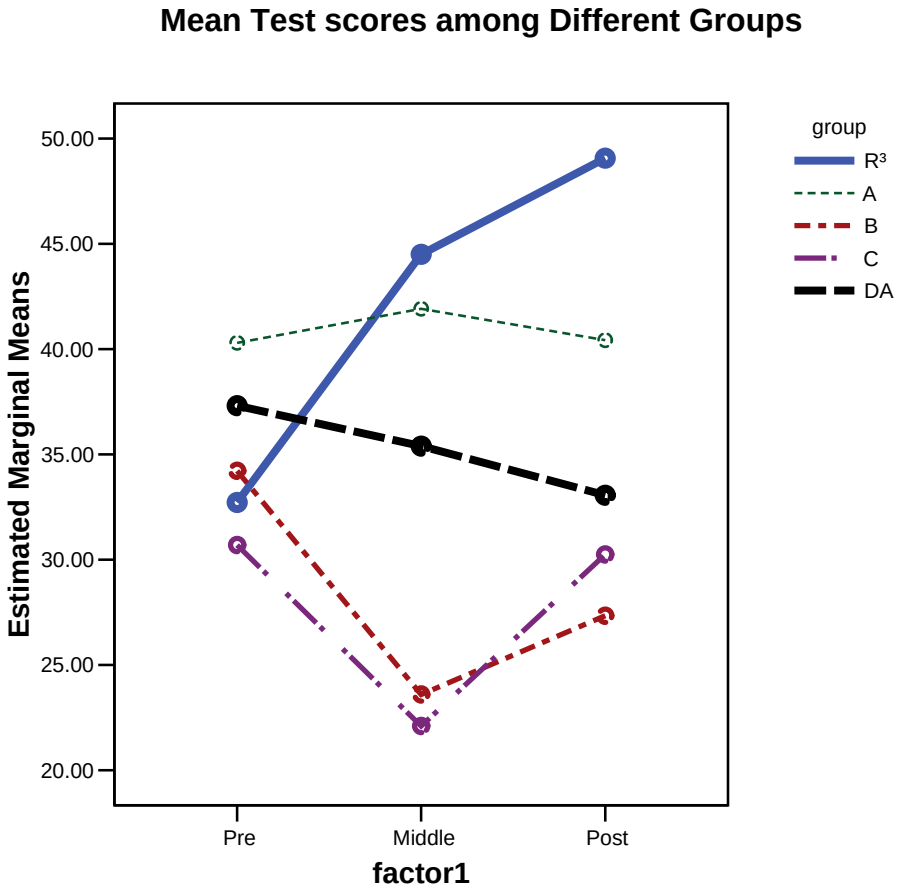
Descriptive Statistics

	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation (*SD*)	Total (*N*)
Pretest	R^3	32.67	4.68	6
	A	40.36	10.07	14
	B	34.19	9.47	27
	C	30.68	10.29	38
	DA	38		
Middle	R^3	44.67	10.73	6
	A	41.71	10.87	14
	B	23.70	8.30	27
	C	22.13	9.82	38
	DA	33		
Posttest	R^3	49.00	10.66	6
	A	40.50	10.06	14
	B	27.30	7.30	27
	C	30.24	11.35	38
	DA	34		

Where R^3: R^3 Math Group, A: school 'A' average math score, B: school 'B' average math score, C: school 'C' average math score, DA: District average math score.

Figure 1 shows mean test scores among groups during the study. As shown in Figure 1, only students of school A had mean scores above the district average at the beginning. The mean score of school A remained above the district average at the post-test. The mean scores of two other schools B and C were lower than district average at the beginning, and were not improved much from the post-test. Only the mean score of the R^3 improved from below the district average on the pre-test to above the district average on the post-test.

Figure 1.



Discussion

The essential feature of the R3 was to determine why students have problems understanding certain concepts by attempting to view the concepts through their academic lens. Instead of traditional lecture-style teaching, textbook-based teaching was chosen for the R^3, which was designed to improve students' understanding of basic math concepts and simultaneously enhancing students' reading skills. A textbook-based teaching combined with individual study in a small group setting was expected to give students a chance to understand the

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Improving Preschool Family/Student Motivation and Achievement through Multicultural Teaching and Learning

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Abstract

During a one-week research project at a university early childhood center, located in the southeast United States, the researcher collaborated with several stakeholders—parents and educators to explore the inclusion of 10 multicultural educational experiences to familiarize twenty, three to five-year olds about the diversity and family practices of the Chinese, Korean, African-American, Hispanic, and Native American cultures. Findings for this qualitative study drew perspectives collected during observations of classroom instruction, interviews with parents, children, and student teachers, intern reflections, and videotaping of children's spontaneous interaction. One aim of this exploratory study was to forge trusting partnerships between parents (of five distinct countries) and educators at the early childhood center in an effort to meaningfully incorporate each child's household and cultural knowledge with classroom instruction. A second aim of this study was to enrich the children's regular classroom learning with developmentally appropriate activities that instilled in them a greater appreciation

of people around the world. This study illustrates the intrinsic value of classroom teachers integrating multiculturalism with daily classroom routines from the beginning of a child's school learning with the goal of nurturing respect for and acceptance of others.

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PLUGGING THE HOLES: ISSUES THAT IMPACT A SUCCESSFUL AFTER SCHOOL TUTORIAL PROGRAM

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In urban areas, students come from impoverished communities with many social ills such as drugs, gangs, and drinking. The lack of after school programs in many urban schools leaves students with no opportunities for enrichment, empowerment or academic support, thereby encouraging them to participate in self-destructive activities. Academic support at the end of the school day is vital for urban public schools because they struggle to learn content area material, such as math, science, English, and social studies. Many urban classrooms are over-crowded, have untrained or unqualified teachers, and lack the resources to provide students with additional academic support outside of school. Urban secondary schools need assistance to establish academic support through after-school tutorial programs.

Researchers have found varied models for success in these programs (Dance, 2002; Katz, 1999; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Valenzuela, 1999). Bondy and Davis (2000) found that students

responded favorably when tutors showed a genuine 'care' for them in addition to them being students while Hock et.al. (2001) pointed out that students can increase their test scores through tutoring. For example, some research shows that students' grades improve when they participate in a well structured, organized program featuring small group collaboration on similar subjects. The face-to-face social interaction helps in improving the learning process (Vygotsky, 1978).

Some studies have examined the importance of relationship building within academic after school tutoring programs (Beyth-Marom, et.al., 2001; Bondy and Davis, 2000; Caserta-Henry, 1996; Hock, et.al., 2001). The most important aspect of the tutoring programs are the adults caring about the whole student. Dance (2002) talks about caring in terms of being "down". "Down teachers are not just teachers, they are also mentors and friends. Most important, "down" teachers take time to get to know and understand their students."

Other tutorial programs take small groups of students, such as athletes and artists, and provide them with additional support before and/or after school because of the demands placed on them by rigid practice, game, and/or performance schedules that prevent them from seeking academic help at more traditional programs such as Kaplan, Sylvan, and SCORE! Ladson-Billings declares " coaches also believe their students are capable of excellence, but they are comfortable sharing responsibility to help them achieve it with parents, community members, and the students themselves…"(p.24). In any event, most of the research shows that tutoring after-school has a positive effect on the academic success of most students.

In this article, we use an evaluation of one after-school tutorial program that we co-founded 10 years ago to provide the reader with background information about it, share program evaluation excerpts from the past three years about the strengths and weaknesses of the program,

and to explain some challenges and implications for successful urban after-school tutorial programs.

PROGRAM HISTORY AND OVERVIEW

Academics For Success (AFS) based in Oakland, CA is committed to building the academic, social, and personal development of children, adolescents, and adults. Since 2000, AFS has been dedicated to providing students with the knowledge, skills, and character traits needed to succeed in top-quality high schools, universities, and in the competitive world and beyond. In meeting this programmatic objective, AFS utilizes a student-centered approach to academic development that prioritizes the following: academic assessment, proactive parental support and involvement, student empowerment test preparatory workshops, college planning workshops, after-school program development to schools, students, and parents. Through tutoring services, workshops such as SAT, college readiness, literacy, after high school, AFS has served approximately 800 students annually at two high schools. For the last ten years, AFS has worked with many different community-based organizations and schools throughout the Bay Area.

The program has two distinct areas of concentration: 1) small group homework assistance, and 2) academic enrichment workshops. The homework assistance program is divided into two sections—athletic study table and drop in tutoring. The athletic study table is for athletes or groups of performers who need specific tutoring hours due to rigid practice, game, and/or performance schedules. While AFS ensures that teams come to tutoring on a regular basis, it also encourages student athletes to schedule individual tutoring sessions. An AFS Coordinator checks in with athletic coaches at the beginning of the month and works with them to make sure that the students in need of homework assistance or tutoring commit to the program. The drop-in

tutoring is for anyone in the school to get tutoring services. After school, two tutors in the portable help with any subject. Traditionally, drop-in students are getting A's and B's in their classes, but they are trying to maintain a high grade point average in subjects like Advance Placement English and Calculus classes.

The staff created different programs and workshops, particularly about college. One program for English language learners allowed students to leave class to participate to build their overall literacy skills and a Literacy Fair that consisted of literacy games, videos, and showcases where the theme was 'Literacy as Liberation'. The workshops grew out of the needs to immerse students in information about college. During workshops, students focus on a range of topics, including how to conduct research, completing junior and senior projects, and review of basic math skills. Ongoing outreach and recruitment, are essential to the achievement of program goals, so AFS markets the program through school registrations, classroom presentations, flyers, collaboration with other organizations, faculty meetings, phone banking, back-to-school nights, and student incentives, like extra credit.

Staffing considerations are vital to the success of the program. Each site has a Site Coordinator responsible for visibility during the school day, program development, and interaction with faculty and staff. The Coordinator oversees program marketing, staff supervision, program scheduling, grant objectives, and attends academic trainings and conferences. The tutors are positive role models who are experts in various subject matters. They develop meaningful and positive relationships with youth and their families by assisting students with daily homework tasks, engaging students in educational and skill-building activities, and mentoring students in their post secondary education options. Our staff is trained to develop professional relationships with students by calling home to parents and students about their

participation, stopping students in the hallways to discuss grades, homework, attendance and other academic issues, and working in small groups within the classroom to better understand lectures and assignments.

Moreover, AFS prides itself on being a multicultural organization that increases the students' accessibility to academic success. The diverse staff (50% African American, 11% Latino, 11% Asian, 22% White, 6% other), reflects the communities it serves, and because of this, the program has the unique ability to provide children with quality education in their primary languages. All AFS staff must pass fingerprinting and background checks and a TB test, In addition, upon hiring staff must submit transcripts, attend an orientation to complete new hire paperwork, review AFS policy and procedures handbook, sign confidentiality of services and preservation of proprietary information agreements, and attend all monthly trainings.

PROGRAM CRITIQUE

Strengths

The administrative team, Jamal Cooks and Charemon Cooks, received rave reviews about their administrative style and support of tutors. The staff, students, and school agreed that AFS really cares about kids; they try to recruit multicultural dedicated, knowledgeable, skilled staff, and have a good reputation in the local community because they are nice and positive role models. One parent said, "This program is fantastic! Since being in this program, my son has stayed out of trouble; this is a great learning environment. This is my son's first year and already I see him becoming more organized and more task- orientated. I'd be devastated if this program ended…I am a single parent, I can't do it all [myself]."

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THE CHILDREN'S COGNITIVE ENHANCEMENT PROGRAM: A PILOT STUDY

There is substantial evidence endorsing the importance of early cognitive skills on future success in both the academic (mathematics and language) and social arenas. These early skills, referred to as executive function or cognitive skills, include scanning, attention, memory and problem-solving. Another line of research provides positive evidence for the direct intervention in the development of these skills. This evidence has been reported in both behavioral and neurological literature with follow-up studies implicating academic success several years after the intervention.

The purpose of this presentation is to present preliminary findings on The Children's Cognitive Enhancement Program (CCEP). .This program, for students between the ages of 5 to 9 years of age, is designed to impact development of cognitive skills, including scanning, attention, memory and problem-solving. Unlike some computerized programs, the CCEP provides a multi-modal approach by utilizing a kinesthetic medium. This approach not only addresses cognitive skills but also visuo-spatial and fine motor skills are required and further developed. The pilot study for this program is on-going in elementary schools serving students with differing needs Results of an on-going pilot study and discussion of future development/standardization will cap this presentation.

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Leading Special Education Programs Collaboratively: Good news, bad news

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Abstract

This study featured survey research designed to compare the magnitude of concern between Virginia public school division superintendents and directors of special education regarding timely issues in special education. Survey questions addressed current issues in special education identified in educational policy briefs along with the literature examining the intersection of educational leadership, special education, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA), and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). Significant differences in magnitude of concern and factors affecting concern were noted for alternate assessment, graduation rates for students with disabilities, special education teacher turnover, the over identification of students with disabilities, and professional development for special education teachers. Implications for practice include the role of perception of concern in educational decision-making and factors identified as likely to increase collaboration between superintendents and directors of special education.
Keywords: special education, collaborative leadership

Introduction

The United States public school system enrolled 49.5 million students in public schools in the fall of 2010 (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). The U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), (2010) reported that 6,552,766 students were served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) in the fall of 2010. These figures indicate that 13% of the fall 2010 student population were classified as students with disabilities (SWD) and were eligible for the specialized instruction and related services needed to ensure a free appropriate public education (FAPE). The cost of providing this specialized instruction is about 2.28 times the average regular education expenditure with 40

percent of the expenditure coming from the local school district (Berman, Davis, Koufman-Frederick, & Urion, 2001).

Educational practices for SWD are currently governed by IDEIA 2004 while the education for students both with and without disabilities is governed by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, (NCLB), which reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Although reauthorized in 2004, the main goal of IDEIA remains the same, ensuring the provision of FAPE to SWD. The reauthorization of IDEIA lead to major changes including adding NCLB language related to highly qualified special educators, changing the eligibility process requirements for students with learning disabilities, deleting short term objectives on IEPs, and modifying discipline requirements (Smith, 2005). The goal of NCLB encourages educational improvement for all students yet it presents several issues that are of concern when educating SWD including assessment requirements for all students, accountability including the adequate yearly progress (AYP) of all students, and teacher quality (NEA, 2004). School systems tasked with providing quality educational opportunities for all students must work carefully within these two educational acts, balancing the provisions of both. Demonstrating the difficulty of implementing these acts with SWD, the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights (OCR) (2012) reported receiving over 11,700 disability-related complaints during the fiscal years 2009-2011. This figure represents more than 55% of the total complaints OCR received during the same period.

Nationally, school divisions are usually led by a superintendent along with several subordinate administrative officers with the goal of meeting the needs of the students in that division. Many of the administrative officers have well defined, specialized areas of responsibilities such as human resources, transportation, curriculum and instruction, and special education (Jefferson County Public Schools, 2011). When considering the facts and figures regarding special education and the two major governing acts, it is impossible to imagine the superintendent and the district administrative officers trying to educate their students without engaging in deliberate and optimal collaboration.

Leading special education programs collaboratively, while "adopting inclusionary practices and shifting resources to improve instructional quality and reduce staff turnover," can improve outcomes for students with disabilities without spending more (Frank & Miles, 2012, pp. 24-25). One superintendent said, "I speak for all superintendents that we want to serve these students, but we need to balance that desire with the services we can provide all our students" (Riley, 2012). And if we are speaking of just where to obtain the money to pay for services, then superintendents have a real dilemma because localities are now tasked with funding upwards of 40% of special education expenditures (Berman, et.al., 2001). As overall school funding grows tighter, this has created at times uncomfortable tension between needed special services and other school priorities (Riley, 2012). For many superintendents, special education is a concern, whether it is funding, facilities, training, staffing or services (Amprey, 2005). For many directors of special education, concerns stem from the juggling of so many roles that are necessary for special education administrative work. Thompson and O' Brian (2007) reported that some directors of special education feel that they are pulled in many directions as they work to satisfy the political forces of different stakeholders including boards of education and superintendents. Thompson and O'Brian also noted that some directors of special education expressed challenges related to professional interactions with administrators and teachers who were not familiar with special education rules and regulations (Thompson & O'Brian, 2007). We set about to investigate why such perceptions exist and if they do, are the two parties far apart in

their concerns and their reasons for concern or are they closely aligned. If there is a discrepancy in perceptions, perhaps helping the leaders to become more collaborative in their leadership approaches can ultimately result in better services being provided to students

Background

The study of special education students is widely documented. Unruh, Bullis, Todis, Waintrup, and Atkins (2007) acknowledged that there are hundreds of studies and projects that have been conducted to determine ways to help students with disabilities succeed in learning environments with their non-disabled peers. However, often overlooked are the leadership practices of district administrators in providing resources and services to meet the needs of the special education population. Much of educational research has been focused on leadership. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) have written about how difficult the task is at the school level. School principals in general struggle with the complexities of special education: "Special education presents one of the major challenges facing school leaders in the era of school reform. Today, schools must provide students with disabilities appropriate access to the general curriculum and effective instructional support. Student progress must be monitored closely and demonstrated through participation in assessment efforts" (p. 5). Research suggests that the principal's role is pivotal in the special education process; however, few school leaders are well prepared for this responsibility and that is also true at the district level. For the contemporary school administrator, not just the school principal, but also all central office key personnel, including the superintendent, special education is not an isolated but rather "integrated system of academic and social supports designed to help students with disabilities succeed within the least restrictive environments" (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003, p. 5).

Leading collaboratively is difficult, especially when those in shared leadership roles perceive the tasks, the priorities and the importance of the task, and the available resources differently. Research directs us to get on the same page when leading organizations effectively. As Agnew, 2012, pointed out, "Collaboration requires transparency. People can't work together if they're not on the same page" (p. 1). In addition, the importance of similar values and beliefs is essential to smooth running operations. Research on values in the social sciences is primarily concerned with relating the value priorities of individuals or groups to their antecedents in socially structured experience and cultural background with their general attitudes and patterns of behavior (Schwartz, 1992). What Schwartz suggests is important in our study because superintendents and directors of special education programs may have similar antecedents to their choices and priorities. Yet, the two parties may not be coming from the same place, either in what brought them to their specific job or what their view of the education world is now. Their backgrounds, values, and beliefs may be different. For example, maybe superintendents aren't really paying attention to what is best for the special education students because they are trying to do the best for all students. Maybe superintendents are just trying to keep their jobs in a highly charged political environment. The average tenure these days for a superintendent is around three years (Pascopella, 2011). The same may hold true for directors of special education. Maybe the focus of the job gets in the way of seeing the true picture for the district as a whole—the need to educate all students. Even though the theory of values influence depends on background and current motivation, for our purposes we are assuming that the values held in our educational communities are similar enough to not stand as the significant barrier in terms of setting priorities or initiating action. In fact, prioritizing needs and initiating action in terms of urgency are more a factor of beliefs about the significance of the issue at hand as perceived by

superintendents and about the perception by superintendents that, given all that needs attending to, resources are allocated based on availability and need. However, it is likely, according to the theory of values influence, that actions are also dictated by background and current motivations (Schwartz, 1992).

Leading Collaboratively

"The concept of collaborative leadership provides a useful perspective in exploring the balance of leadership responsibilities for special education across principals, assistant principals, and teachers within schools, and administrators and supervisors across school districts" (Crockett, 2007, p. 140). Leading collaboratively is about leadership that works together to share resources to provide a useful perspective in exploring the balance of leadership responsibilities. Collaborative leadership includes prioritizing services and resources for special education students across programs and staffs. Collaboration is more than cooperating, more than sharing information. Collaborating is more than a partnership, more than saying if you do this, then I will do that. Or if you give me this, I will give you that. Collaboration is about putting all of the resources available on the table and saying let's let the priorities (our values and principles) and in the case of special education students, their needs, drive the allocation and delivery of programs and services (Thomas, 2007).

Leading collaboratively in special education programs is particularly critical because of the high incidence of special education students and the high impact of meeting their needs, coupled with the high costs for providing for those needs and services. A collaborative leader sees their role as a facilitator and coach. It is not one of control or dictatorship, but one of guidance and empowerment (Liontos, 1992). Collaboration requires transparency. Collaboration requires having a similar vision. People can't work together effectively if they're not on the same page (Agnew, 2012). Collaborative leadership, which focuses on the importance of teamwork and comprehensive school improvement, as an alternative to other modes of leadership, may assist district leaders in working more effectively. Collaborative schools have norms that encourage teachers and principals to cooperate for school improvement and adopting similar strategies in the central office could also prove to be productive in improving the overall work environment (Scott &Smith, 1987). So, one question is do we have leaders leading collaboratively and do we have leaders leading our special education programs in a collaborative manner? Do our leaders see district program issues and services similarly?

Factors Influencing Collaborative Leading

As mentioned earlier, two laws govern the provision of educational services for both SWD and students without disabilities, IDEIA and NCLB. Both laws were reauthorized in recent years, presenting new challenges for administrators as they work within the frameworks of the laws. When examining the intersection of the two laws and the impact on both superintendents and directors of special education, several key issues float to the top including assessment, accountability, AYP, and highly qualified teachers (National Education Association, 2004). When considering the reauthorization of IDEIA, other issues emerge that may be challenging for school districts including new provisions for the identification of students with learning disabilities, modified requirements for discipline of SWD, and the provision of professional development for special educators (IDEIA, 2004). Also, OSEP developed a list of 20 indicators for the collection of baseline data for measurable and rigorous targets that help states demonstrate the appropriate implementation of IDEIA. Included in those indicators are items that

address dropout rates and graduation rates for SWD, discipline, least restrictive environment (LRE), and the over identification of minorities as SWD (U.S. Department of Education, OSEP, 2012). These issues may be challenging for the administrators, preventing optimal collaboration when working to provide FAPE. Thomas (2007) reports that special education administrators are often asked to "balance the interests of the individual with interests of the group" (p. 45). Similarly, we can propose, that superintendents are tasked with balancing the interests of the group with the interests of the individual. Thomas goes on to state that when administrators are provided the right opportunity to collaborate and work across or outside of their individual roles, all students may benefit from a strong, cohesive educational environment that works to meet both the needs of all students and the regulations put forth by the laws. Research involving superintendents and their perceptions of what could encourage increased collaboration between general and special education included the following recommendations: Articulating clear and consistent goals, providing ongoing professional development, focusing on the needs of all students, organizing personnel and structuring offices to support and sustain collaboration (Project Forum, 2009).

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this exploratory, descriptive study was to determine if the perceptions of concern of superintendents and special education directors were similar or different for issues related to special education programming and did they rate the concerns with the same level of intensity. Also explored were the reasons given for concerns including resources, professional development, and time. Were both groups concerned similarly or did the degree of their concerns differ significantly? How deeply concerned were each of the two groups about the major issues confronting special education programs and the services being provided. In other words, do the two groups see the same issues as similar as one would hope if they intended to offer effective programming? As Frank and Miles (2012) say, "at a time when policymakers and educators are pushing to revamp general education programs nationwide for both cost-efficiency and quality reasons, district leaders often treat special education programs as the mythical Pandora's box, best left unopened and unexamined" (pp. 24-25).

Method

This study featured survey research designed to compare the magnitude of concern between Virginia public school division superintendents and directors of special education regarding timely issues in special education. Survey questions addressed current issues in special education identified in policy briefs from the Center on Educational Policy (2006) and Project Forum (2009) along with literature examining the intersection of educational leadership, special education, IDEIA, and NCLB (Amprey, 2005; Wasta, 2006; Frick & Faircloth, 2007; Hodge & Krumm, 2009; Wagner & Katsiyannis, 2010).

Participants

Following a research protocol approved by the Institutional Review Board, participants for the study were identified from the Virginia Department of Education and the Virginia Association of School Superintendents. A listserv was created with the 2011-2012 Virginia public school division superintendents and directors of special education. The survey was delive
speci

Teacher Dismissal for Cause

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Abstract

This case presents a discussion of events that led to the dismissal of a teacher for cause. In this case, a first- year high school principal is confronted with a maverick teacher whose behavior in creating an unsupervised assignment put many students at risk in a dangerous situation. The decision process to determine the appropriate organizational response to this unfortunate incident involves a number of individuals and systems. The final administrative recommendation ignores research on decision-making, and the result is a negative outcome for the school district and the career of the new principal. Ultimately, the teacher escaped the consequences of putting his students in imminent danger. He appealed the imposed discipline to the Wisconsin Labor Relations Board. The board perceived bias against the teacher because of his union activities and overreaching in assessing the penalty of dismissal of a tenured teacher. The narrative explores the question of what constitutes the necessary factual and organizational elements to a successful dismissal of tenured teacher from the perspective of a principal.

Case Narrative

Bruce Ojos, the principal at a large suburban high school in Wisconsin, walked out of the dark blue Federal court house where a decision regarding the violation of the teachers civil rights had just been rendered. He took in a long breath of relief. This long ordeal of the past two years was finally over, or was it? Tucker Litchfield, the ever-present school district attorney with whom he had spent too many hours over these last years, gave him a warm congratulatory hug that left him feeling like he had just been intellectually violated.

The final chapter on a long star-crossed episode ended on a hot summer day in Wisconsin. Ojos had been engaged in the court hearing of the case that started as a police action nearly two years ago. Arriving back at the high school from the courthouse, he found only a skeleton crew of administrators and janitors on hand to hear the ruling on this strange case. He briefed them about the decision and the judge's terse comments to the plaintiff. Then, he took the afternoon off to pursue a long swim in a nearby lake.

Two years before, on a warm spring day just before school was over for the summer, when Ojos was in his first year as principal at the school, an Associate Principal, Earl Guenther, informed him that the police chief had called to report a near fatal event involving students. Every high school principal dreads those final school days not because it is the end of the term, but because giddy seniors, finished with school and ready to move on, often celebrate their impending graduation with high-risk behaviors. Ojos had vivid bad memories of horrific teenage car crashes, deadly overdoses, drunken parties, and a sordid collection of many lesser pains and injuries sparked by students living out their senior spring rage. As he listened to the facts, Ojos knew this near fatal event could have too easily escalated into a disaster. The details unfolded gradually but started with a jolt. That afternoon six police officers had responded to a frantic phone call that described a scene of men dressed in fatigues and armed with automatic rifles

stationed at the top of a hill. The police arrived at the site with their guns drawn and demanded that the men drop their weapons. The men just laughed. The officers pressed their demand, circled the hill and aimed at them. At that point, they dropped what turned out to be their toy AK47s, and hit the ground as instructed. The men were students. They were acting out and videotaping their storyboards, as a project for their English class. One student kept his video camera on and taped the entire event involving the police. The enraged officers arrested the students and took them to the police station for an explanation. The parents of the students and Principal Ojos arrived at the station soon after being contacted by the police chief. They were confronted by the angry officers and a chaotic situation. Ojos, who had not been notified of the assignment, attempted to understand what had gone on. Why were the students not in class? Why had he not been informed or asked for permission for the students to perform a project off of the school campus grounds? Who had approved the storyboards? Why was there was no oversight?

Ojos left the police station emotionally exhausted. He was actually relieved that the events of the day had not been far worse. The police had been out to quell a disturbance. However, in performing their duties, he knew that the students on that hill that hot spring day could have been seriously injured or killed. Ojos returned to the school and saw that Guenther was watching the 5:00 p.m. local news on the office television that included the student videotape of the incident. Reporters descended. They stood outside his office peering in the windows demanding an interview. TV cameras rolled. He obliged, briefly, and mumbled a few words about an investigation.

Ojos knew the next steps were critical. He knew everything would be replayed in a court of law, played out in the media, and at the kitchen tables of his students and the teachers. His decisions would be analyzed in detail. He recalled the words of one of his professors, a former high school principal, which had told him that drama can explode suddenly, without warning, in personnel matters. Ojos began to slow down by breathing deeply. He knew that he needed to be clear-headed to think rationally, but he also needed to understand his own emotions, for this emerging spectacle was also going to require analytic and intuitive intelligence. Resigned and a bit excited, Ojos began the process of deciphering what exactly had occurred on that hill and why. He would need information. He would also need to check the facts and then take time to absorb all of the information and to sleep on it (Bos & Cuddy, 2011). He began to design an investigation plan.

First, the investigation process must be crafted to find the truth. Then the decision process could begin. He knew that facts tend to vary with each observer and the observer's position on issues. The investigation could and most likely would have some degree of impact on the students, employees, community and him and his family. He knew that most of the students would defend the teacher; that the teacher would seek union support; and that the media would follow the drama. The police officers and parents would be influenced by their simmering anger over the incident. The school board would become involved. Ojos wrote down the questions his investigation needed to answer:

1. Why were the students out of class?
2. What was the project?
3. What instructions had the teacher given to the students?
4. What was the instructional purpose of the storyboards?
5. Did the teacher review and approve the storyboards?
6. What was the employment history of the teacher?

7. What information about the project was given to the parents, attendance office and Department Chair?
8. Did other teachers know of the events before they unfolded upon the hill in the park?
9. Did the police officers really intend to fire on the students?

Ojos called a meeting for 7:00 p.m. to include the associate principals, the superintendent, Mr. Thomas Noweki, the Department Chair and the district's legal representative, Tucker Litchfield. He assigned his associate principals to gather as much information as possible before the meeting. They interviewed the teacher, Mr. Dan Dukane, checked attendance records, and talked to parents and students from the class.

Ojos was able to report that the students involved in the incident were enrolled in a media course taught by Mr. Dukane. Dukane had not informed the administration, the attendance office or the students' parents of any special event, nor had he asked permission to have students participate in a project off of school grounds. Mr. Dukane was a 17-year veteran of the school and the vice president of the local teachers' union. He had a history of ignoring school operational procedures, but he had an empty personnel file, with no outstanding citations against him.

As the meeting began, Ojos was surprised by school board president Stan MacDonald's uninvited arrival. He informed the group that he was being bombarded with questions from the press and felt that he needed to attend the administrative meeting. Knowing that he had been endorsed and supported financially by the teachers' union at the last school board election, Ojos and Superintendent Noweki were concerned about the risk of breach of privacy for everyone in the work session. Despite concerns, the administrative meeting went ahead and it was determined that Ojos would continue the investigation. School board members were to be informed that an investigation was proceeding to alert them in the event that they would need to make an employment decision. The members were asked to maintain a neutral position until the full investigative results and the administrative recommendation were reported to them. The school administrative team, along with the district's attorney, Litchfield, constructed a survey to be given to the involved students designed to discover what the students were directed to do by their teacher.

After the meeting, at 9:00 p.m., Ojos called Mr. Dukane and informed him that he was suspended with pay pending the outcome of an investigation into his teaching conduct. Dukane vehemently objected. He said that this investigation was in retaliation for his anti war protests before the city council years ago completely unrelated to the current case. He reminded Ojos, that he was active in the union. Ojos knew to remain dispassionate when involved in emotional employment matters. He stayed focused and avoided any reaction (Bartlett, 2006). Controlling one's emotions seemed imperative to an objective investigation.

The next morning two associate principals administered the survey to the students in Dukane's class. The information was tabulated. The data indicated that Dukane approved each storyboard (the outline and intent of the project, videos in this case), and gave the students approval to be off of campus to film their stories, unsupervised. He instructed the students to call in sick for the entire day. Sixty percent of the students called the attendance office claiming to be too sick to attend school.

The associate principals confiscated four videos that were filmed on the previous day, along with the storyboards.

Ojos informed Superintendent Noweki that he had four videos and was going to view them. He invited Noweki to join him. Attorney Litchfield joined them. The videos included: one was the war scene on a hill with armed men in fatigues that had set off the police action; a second one had students jumping from a high cliff into a lake; the third one depicted a student being hit by a car; and the final video portrayed a sexual intercourse scene of a nude male student and a faux nude female made of paper mache at a party with apparent underage drinking. The three agreed that the activities in all of the videos could have resulted in serious injury or even death to the students. Litchfield knew of several cases where police officers had shot citizens who had toy guns, even knives, which appeared to be real. The situation took on an air of deep concern.

Ojos asked the police chief for permission to interview the deputies who were present on the hill. However, the chief did not want his officers involved further. Off the record, he told Ojos that the police union had encouraged its members to avoid a display of support for the school administration. Union organizations seemed inclined to support each other in personnel issues.

The final stage in the investigation was to question Dukane. Ojos and Litchfield contacted Dukane and directed him to attend a meeting with them the following day and advised him that he should consider having a union representative attend the meeting as well. They met with Dukane the next day at the district office. They informed him that the purpose of the meeting was to gather information about his teaching activities.

The meeting began with a series of questions, designed in advance, to gather information about the scope of the assignment, the attendance process, Dukane's activities on the videotaping day, what other students were doing on the field trip, and the instructional intent of the assignment. Dukane reported that the assignment was a project that would be created on a storyboard to be acted out by students and videotaped as part of his media course. It called for his approval of the storyboard. The stories called for acting outside of the school, so he told the students that they should not come to school; that they should just go out and film their stories and bring them to class the next day. He denied telling the students to call in sick. He also described the activities as having the tacit approval of past principals, who never questioned him. He also accused Associate Principal Guenther, who was witnessing the meeting, of having an affair with a student. Dukane acquainted this administrative behavior to "putting students in danger" as he said the police did on the hill. Ojos, although stunned by this accusation, kept focused on Dukane, reminding him that the meeting topic was about his class and conduct. Dukane was dismissed from the meeting and informed that he would receive a copy of the investigation in the next few days. Later Ojos learned that Guenther was, in fact, involved in a sexual relationship with a student. Ojos wondered what other complicating facts would emerge as this investigation continued. Investigations tend to uncover issues that were not part of the original intent, adding complications.

Attorney Litchfield invited Ojos and Noweki to lunch at his firm's dining room to form a disciplinary strategy. Litchfield believed the investigation provided enough evidence to warrant dismissal of Dukane for cause. Ojos had never heard of dismissal of a tenured teacher for cause, unless sexual misconduct was involved. While tenure is not a guarantee of lifetime employment, dismissal of a tenured teacher involves unions, school boards, state employment panels, plus the state and federal judicial system (Stephey, 2008). It is highly unusual to fire a tenured teacher except for the most egregious cases, often involving sexual abuse or illegal behavior (Song, 2009). Noweki believed dismissal was appropriate, yet he never asked about the legal cost of

dismissal, which average in the hundreds of thousands of dollars per case in addition to administration time. Noweki brought up other employment problems that Dukane had presented in the past, however none were documented. To Noweki's dismay, Ojos held judgment for now. He wanted more analysis to make a quality decision. He also wanted to put any decision into the context of his values as an educational leader. The outcome of this decision would clearly have an impact on his emerging career. Litchfield assured him that the labor relations board, the governmental agency that would hear an appeal if filed by Dukane and the union, would take a dim view of any teacher that endangered the lives of students. He believed a dismissal would be successful. Ojos thought to himself that Litchfield would emerge from this with a healthy record of billed hours and no negative impact upon his career. For now, Ojos just wanted time to analyze and reflect.

Ojos returned to the school to prepare a report for the superintendent before going home. Later that evening he watched 10:00 p.m. television news as Superintendent Noweki announced that Dukane would be recommended to the board for dismissal. He did not specify the exact reasons. Ojos was shocked to learn of this decision. Ojos felt that Noweki had rushed to judgment before the investigation was complete and the ramifications were understood. Ojos was caught between the decision by his superior and the teachers he supervised. Could he, in good faith, inform his teachers that his investigation supported the superintendent? Could he publically disagree with Noweki?

The next morning Ojos arrived to the angry stares of his teachers. They called a union meeting in the afternoon to express their support for Dukane. At this point, Ojos knew he had no choice but to support the announced decision of his superintendent. Decision-making on an issue of this magnitude requires thoughtful analysis. Was he to create the reasons for dismissal now that the dismissal recommendation was stated publicly? As Dukane's immediate supervisor, should he not have had a major voice in the decision?

Later, Superintendent Noweki directed Ojos to conduct a dismissal meeting with Dukane within the next three days. A report stating the reasons for and the rationale behind the decision was to be sent to the School Board. A special school board hearing would be scheduled to review the dismissal recommendation. Dukane was to receive only the reasons for dismissal.

Ojos knew that dismissals can be emotionally difficult and, if handled poorly, can permanently damage individual reputations, negatively affect an organization's reputation, and even lead to lawsuits. They may also destroy trust and moral throughout the organization (Bartlett, 2006). The stakes could not be higher for all involved. To justify a decision that was, unfortunately, already made, Ojos turned to a business analytics approach.

Decision-making can be, in part, a scientific process. Ojos started with the facts from the investigation. It was clear that Dukane had violated the school's attendance policy and that he did not supervise his class at the off-site filming. The many videos portrayed inappropriate scenes, but the focus needed to be on the one that created the greatest danger. On the sidelines, the alerted press seemed to hope for a battle over the faux sex scenes on one of the videos to set up a freedom of expression scuffle. While Ojos did not approve of the filming of nude students faking having sex with a paper mache partner, the more serious video was the one that had actually threatened lives during production. Ojos' analysis focused on the likelihood of success in a dismissal hearing that needed to prove that a long tenured teacher without any negative personnel record, who had engaged in a similar practice over a number of years was now told that he violated school policy. His office as a vice president of the union did not create a p e

Stepping to the B Side: Academic Experiences of African Americans in Doctoral Programs

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ABSTRACT
This study examines the doctoral experiences of African American students. Through a series of case studies, the researcher illustrates the trials and tribulations of these doctoral student that focus on race, class, and gender.

INTRODUCTION
In 2006, I was approached to teach in the doctoral program at San Francisco State University(SFSU). I wanted to work with the doctoral program for a number of reasons. First, I enjoy working with emerging scholars who are trying to create new thoughts, ideas, and theories to help change the current education system. Secondly, for a program boasting that social justice and equity was one of their major pillars to training future educational leaders, I wanted to be an important contributing professor to shape these leaders of tomorrow. Finally, and more importantly, I remember being a doctoral student of color who felt marginalized, alone, and questioned my existence in the program. I finished the program because I had mentors, people who supported my work, and folks that looked like me who I felt had a genuine interest in my success. A primary motivation to work in this doctoral program was to become that same person for other students of color, particularly African American students.

A major issue in the Ed.D. program at San Francisco State University is the recruitment and retention of African American students. In the first three cohorts, 10 African American students admitted, however; only 6 have completed their degrees within the allocated 3-year period. I am interested in doing an exploratory study posing the following research question: What programmatic issues impact the academic success of African American students in an Ed.D. doctoral program?

I believe this study is very important to the ultimate growth of the program. First, the Ed.D. program at San Francisco State believes in the development of a diverse group of administrators

for leadership and systematic reform positions will have a great impact on the educational system. With a growing number of students of color in the public school system, more programs must push to train administrators of color. Secondly, a core idea of the program is viewing administrators as instructional leaders. Therefore, it is imperative to reflect on how the program supports students, particularly African American students. Finally, the doctoral program challenges the social norms of education to decrease the achievement gap between students of color and white students. I am proposing to examine how this issue works within the program as a means to create a program that works for all students who want to become administrators to fight for issues of social justice and equity in pre K-12 schools as well as institutions of higher education.

This study is significant for a number of reasons for the San Francisco State University Doctoral Program because when students leave the program before degree completion it has a negative reflection on the reputation of the program (Green, 1997; Siwatu, 2003), personal and human resources (Lovitts, 2001) by working with the candidate on teaching, research, and advising (Pruitt-Logan & Gaff, 2004). If the program examines the experience of students in a systematic, qualitative manner, then we can improve the teaching and learning experience for all students. I believe that the results of this study will impact admission practices, financial aid packages, and encourage the recruitment of additional faculty of color to serve as advisors to students.

FRAMEWORK

The experiences of African American doctoral students are missing from the academic literature and must be heard in order to understand what effects student degree completion (Maher, Ford, and Thompson, 2004; Nettles & Millet, 2005) particularly for African Americans (Milner, 2004; Tiereney, Campbell, and Sanchez, 2004), improve the experiences of all students and increase completion rates. In general, only about half of the doctoral students complete their doctoral programs (Golde, 2000; Lovitts 2001, 2004) and the number for African American doctoral students is much lower. The number of African American graduate degree recipients are very small in all career fields (Milner, 2004; Tiereney, Campbell, and Sanchez, 2004). In 2005, only 5% of the doctorates were earned by African American students compared to 55% for their white counter parts (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). Although the number has slightly increased, the experiences of African American doctoral students is left out of the conversation as programs redesign to meet the needs of students (Tinto, 1993).

There are a number of characteristics, such as age, sex, and socioeconomic status (Perna, 2004; Ferrer de Valero, 2001, Cooke, et.al., 2000), and other situations that contribute to the successful completion of doctoral programs by African American students. Even though some of the reasons are part of life that can happen without being a doctoral candidates like financial (Kluever, 1997; Lovitts, 2001, 2004) and family obligations (Gregory, 1999; Nettles & Millit, 2006), there are many that are constructed within the program such as the socialization process into being a doctoral student (Anthony & Taylor, 2004; Nettles and Millit, 2006), feelings of isolation based on the intersection of race, culture and gender (Ellis, 2000; Johnson-Bailey, 2004; Crawford, Seagram, Gould, and Pike, 1998; Lovittis, 2001; Zamani, 2004), the racial and cultural composition of campuses (Bonner & Evans, 2004), and lack of diversity of faculty by race and gender (Ferrer de Valero, 2001; Magner, 1999; Golde, 2000, Waldeck, 1997; Gould & Pyke, 1998; King, & Chepyator- Thompson, 1996; Johnson-Bailey, 2004).

Although some researchers have discussed the experiences of African American students (Ellis, 2000; Williams, et.al., 2005; Patterson, Stewart, et.al., 1997), this study will focus on gathering an in-depth look at the lives of African American doctoral students participating in the Ed.D. program at San Francisco State University. As stated by the past relevant literature, there are many factors that contribute to the success of African American students and I believe it is important for the program leadership to understand how those issues are effecting a specific population of students.

METHODS

The participant pool for this study will be African-American students who spent at least one semester in the doctoral program and were members of the first three cohort of the program.

This study is a qualitative study, which will include in-depth interviews. Participants engage in a private, audio taped, one-hour (maximum) structured interviews. The exploratory interview questions have been pre-determined to preserve consistency across the interview. I asked follow-up questions for the purpose of clarifying a comment made by the participant. Prior to the interview, the participant will be given a code number so that his or her name is not referenced in the study data. The participant will complete a demographic form immediately prior to the interview. I coded code, categorized, and examined the transcripts for emerging themes.

I interviewed each participant, transcribed their interviews, and analyze the data based on varying themes that emerge from the data. Although this study will not be generalizable, it will provide the program with a "snap shot" of the doctoral experiences of African American students at San Francisco State University. The data will be presented as four case studies and paired based on education level and gender. The interviews will be compared and contrasted as a means to distinguish the shared experiences of each participant.

RESULTS/CONCLUSION

A number of important findings emerged form the data from this study. First, African American students want faculty members that are reflective of them. In other words, more faculty of color, particularly African American. Second, mentorship from faculty is vital to successful completion of the degree. Finally, a clear understanding of the difference between a research oriented Ph.D. program and a practice centered Ed.D. program.

The implications for this research are that institutions of higher learning must include support systems for all of their students; socially, emotionally, and politically. Every student that is admitted into a doctoral program deserves to have an institutional commitment to ensure that they successful complete the program.

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For the complete paper, please contact the author.

Building a Pathway to Optimal Academic Achievement and Educational Attainment for Our Children: Values and Expectations of Rural Minority Parents

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Abstract

Numerous studies have focused on parental involvement of minority children (Jacobs, 2010; Jeynes, 2003; Lee, & Bower, 2006); however, limited research has been conducted on rural minority parents' educational expectations and aspirations for their children (Semke & Shenden, 2011). According to the National Center for Education Statistics, during the 2009-2010 academic year, there were 98,817 public elementary and secondary schools, of which 57% were located in rural areas. The number of rural students increased by 11%, between 2004 and 2009, from 10.5 million to 11.7 million (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Due to this increase, the purpose of this quantitative study was to examine rural minority parents' values and expectations regarding their children's academic achievement and educational attainment. The sample consisted of 213 parents of third, fourth and fifth grade students attending rural public schools in the US southeast region. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to address the research questions. Findings indicated a majority of parents had high academic expectations for their children and envisioned their children attaining at least a college degree. Other findings showed while parents who received at most a high school diploma valued and expected their children to achieve similarly to those parents who attended college or received a college degree or an advanced degree. Parents have a tremendous influence on their children. The more research conducted on rural minority parents' values and expectations on their children's education, the better schools can implement parent involvement programs that are more likely to enhance student success.

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Curriculum Improves Achievement: Case Studies of 16 Districts

Conference Paper for Center for Scholastic Inquiry for the Scottsdale Conference, April, 2013.

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Heather Zavadsky
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John Keough
Mike Wasta
Eileen Howley
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Study's Purpose

The study's purpose is that district curriculum can improve student achievement. The curriculum must address four areas: Alignment, Curricular Structure and stability, Implementation and Infrastructure, and Assessment. We studied sixteen districts [three winners of the Booker Prize and three districts from Connecticut and the results of districts using the Balanced Curriculum process (10 districts)], all duccessfully used curriculum as a framework for improving test scores. From the descriptions, we can glean how the districts generated similar ways of working with the curriculum. We believe that other districts who apply a similar framework can see improvement too.

First Author's Background

I am the author of the Balanced Curriculum Process, a district improvement model that relies on developing and implementing curriculum as a way to improve student achievement. Over the last 15 years, all districts and schools that developed curriculum using this model and worked at implementiation, saw school or school district achievement rise dramatically after one year of implementation (Squires, 2013). I have written two books on this process: Aligning and Balancing the Standards-based Curriculum, (Squires, 2005) an explanation of the process used in

the Balanced Curriculum model, and, Currriculum Alignment: Research-Based Strategies for Increasing Student Achievement, (Squires, 2009) which discussed the research support for aligning the curriculum. I am currently working as a professor of Educational Leadership at Southern Connecticut State University, after seven years of high school teaching in Cleveland and Pittsburgh, 14 years as a curriculum supervision in a small district of New Jersey and a 9 year stint with the Comer School Development Program at Yale University.

The success we have had with Balanced Curriculum and the success that districts that used a curriculum approach to improve achievement have had, suggests that curriculum can be a powerful strategy in improving student achievement. We wish to point out that curriculum is one way to improve achievement but probably not the only way.

The Districts

I began looking for Districts from Connecticut that used curriculum to improve achievement, that weren't using the Balanced Curriculum. I found three, representing three levels of socio-economic status: high, average, and low. They are: high – Farmington Public Schools, Ct, average – Bristol Public Schools, CT and low – Norwalk Public Schools, CT . I was pleased that they represented a range of socio-economic status, as we had found that the Balanced Curriculum works in a wide variety of districts of differing levels of socio-economic status.

At the same time, I was reading a book, Bringing School Reform to Scale: Five Award-Winning Urban Districts, about urban districts, three of whom had used curriculum as the main driver of their district improvement. The districts are: Aldine, TX; Garden Grove, CA; and Norfolk, VA. I chose these three districts as "existence proofs" that it is possible to use curriculum as a vehicle to improve student achievement. The 10 districts which used the

Balanced Curriculum process over the last 15 years also showed that improvement through curriculum was possible as all districts that worked at implementation had student achievement improve.

So, I decided to write a book about how curriculum can provide a framework for district improvement and raise student achievement scores. This paper summarizes the books conclusions.

Organization of the Book and this Paper

I asked the Superintendents or Assistant Superintendents of the three Connecticut districts to tell their story in a chapter of two. I didn't want to influence the way the story was told, as I suspected that there would be commonalities among the stories and didn't want to introduce my bias. I asked Dr. Heather Zavadsky, the author of Bringing Reform to Scale: Five Award-Winning Urban Districts, to summarize her study of the three districts which used curriculum as a vehicle of improved achievement. Then, I wrote a chapter about these 6 districts and those that used the Balanced Curriculum as a way to improve achievement.

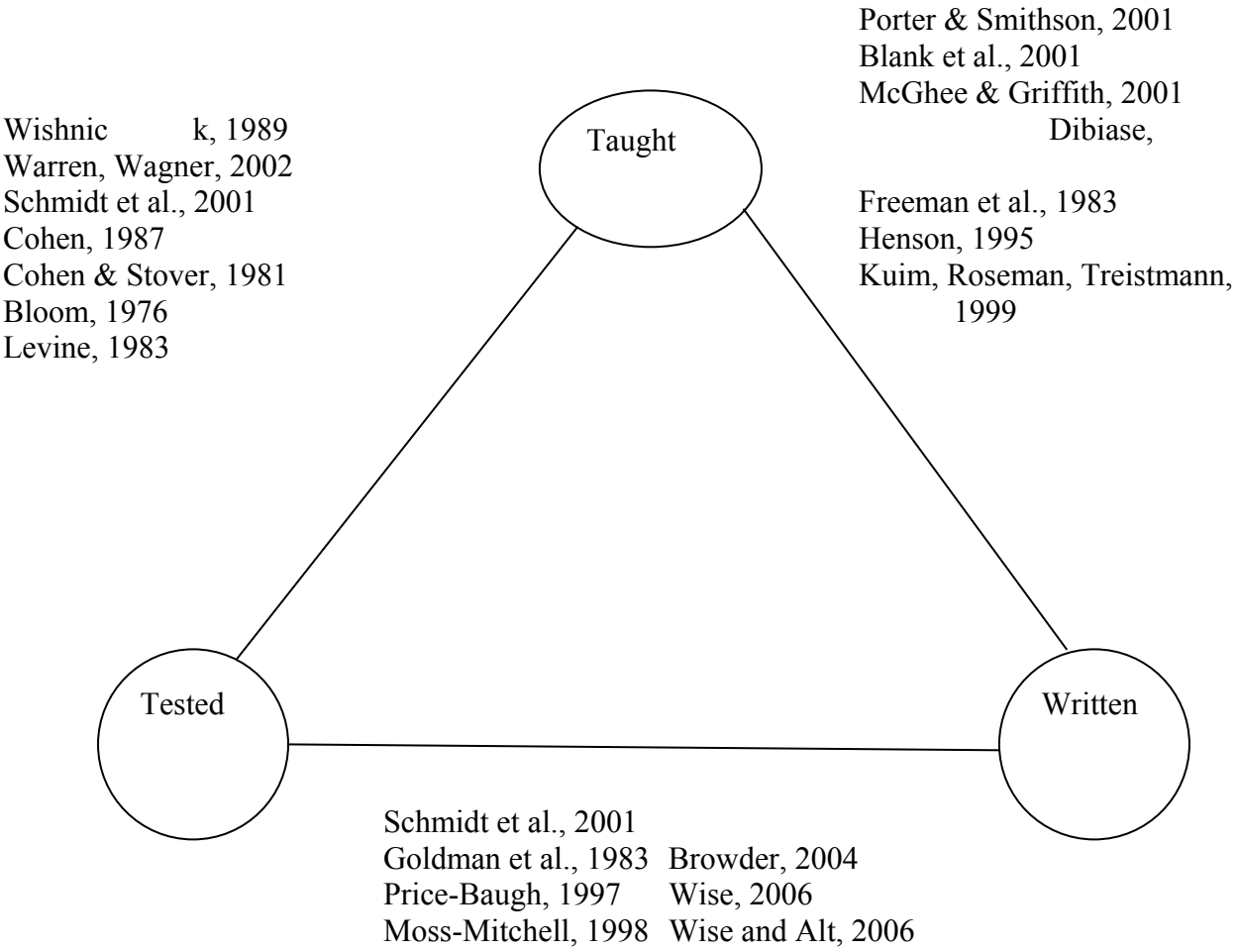
After getting these chapters written, I then set about finding commonalities among the 16 districts in my sample. The commonalities addressed four major areas summarized by the acronym, ASIA: alignment, structure of the curriculum and stability, implementation and infrastructure, and assessment. All districts had these four characteristics. Then I wrote chapters about the research supporting these four areas. Next, I examined the results from the districts more closely and found that each of the ASIA characteristics had various themes associated with them in most of the districts. This paper is about the four major areas summarized by the acronym ASIA, and the sub-themes for each of the ASIA categories. I believe a district that

addresses curriculum though addressing the categories and themes of ASIA can also use curriculum as a way to improve achievement.

In the book, I summarized the research around the four areas: Alignment, Structure of the curriculum, Implementation, and Assessment. I will briefly outline the major findings here. In terms of alignment, I summarized the research around alignment using the taught curriculum to the tested curriculum, the tested curriculum to the written curriculum, and the written curriculum to the taught curriculum (Squires, 2009, English, 1992). The research is given in the figure below and also explained in an article (Squires, 2012).

Research about Alignment

Figure 1.1 The Alignment Matrix



Webb, 1992 Quelmaltz et al., 2006

Research is summarized around alignment for the tested and taught curriculum, for the taught and written curriculum, and for the written and tested curriculum. For example, Wishnick, 1989, found that if the written curriculum was tested in ways that aligned with the standardized test, results did not correlate with socio-economic status, gender or which teacher the student had, unlike previous studies where performance tended to correlate with those areas.

An example of the relationship between the taught and written curriculum is given by Schmidt et al. (2001) showed that teachers use textbooks as one clue to determine what to emphasize. If the textbook covers the topic in depth, then teachers will gear their instruction on

The Confidence to Reach All Learners

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Amy Vizenor has served education in several capacities: a middle level language arts teacher, a preschool board chair, a curriculum specialist, a college student teaching placement coordinator, an English teacher in a high school for at-risk students, and a teacher educator. Her research interests include hopes and fears of preservice teachers, the impact of "away" student teaching experiences, and preparing teachers to meet the needs of the diverse needs of learners represented in classrooms today. Dr. Vizenor holds a bachelor's degree in English education, a master's in middle level curriculum and instruction, and a doctorate of education in leadership.

Abstract

While a majority of teachers are Caucasian and middle class, the population of students in the U.S. today is becoming increasingly diverse in many ways: learning needs, ethnicities, and socioeconomic classes. Sometimes new teachers come to the classroom with very little experience interacting with those who are different from they are, and they lack the confidence to teach the range of learners they meet in their classrooms. This lack of confidence may result in low teacher efficacy and underperformance of students. However, several researchers have identified the effectiveness of using nonlinguistic representations to mediate student learning, providing teachers with concrete tools to use with all their students, and allowing all students to reach levels of higher order thinking and learning.

In exploring this issue, I have begun a research project with a class of secondary education majors in their semester prior to student teaching. This fall I surveyed them regarding their confidence and ability to meet the needs of diverse learners and had them list specific strategies they would use in meeting the needs of all learners. After intentionally modeling and teaching a variety of nonlinguistic representations, I will again survey them at the end of the semester and during their student teaching experience. I will compare data from beginning and end of the semester, as well as during student teaching.

This research will contribute to teacher education, offering strategies for giving preservice teachers the confidence and self-efficacy to meet the needs of the diverse

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Faculty and Students Speak Out: When Technology in the College Classroom is Productive or Distractive

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the use of technological devices in classrooms on the University of North Dakota (UND) campus. Fall semester 2012, an online survey was sent to all benefited faculty teaching undergraduate or graduate classes; a combined sample of undergraduate and graduate students was also sent a similar survey. Before submitting the survey electronically, both groups were asked to indicate their willingness to participate in individual follow up interviews with the researchers. Survey results gathered from 153 faculty and 135 students indicated an overall belief that technology used by both professors and students in classrooms at UND facilitates learning. While all survey respondents acknowledged that at times technological devices could be distractive in classrooms, significant differences were found (using Chi Square analyses) between perceptions held by faculty and perceptions held by students in terms of the factors contributing to the level of distraction. In addition, there were significant differences between faculty and student perceptions related to which technologies are most productive in the learning environment and how to effectively manage the use of technology in the classroom. Individual interviews with ten professors and ten students provided a deeper understanding of productive vs. distractive uses of technology in the classroom. Finally, each individual interviewed offered suggestions for ways technology might be best used by professors and students in the college classroom to support learning.

Keywords: Technology Education College Students Faculty

Without a doubt, teaching and learning in the college classroom has been transformed by the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) by both faculty and students. ICTs utilized when the first author began her career teaching in the 1970s included overhead projectors, reel to reel film projectors, tape recorders/players and blackboards with chalk. Today, most colleges and universities have classrooms equipped with computers, LCD projectors, high speed internet, and document projectors; certain classrooms are also equipped with interactive smartboards, tablets, and teleconferencing capability.

As early as the 1980s, the effects of technology on learning were questioned (Garrison and Akyol, 2009). For example, Clark (1983) believed that "media are mere vehicles that deliver instruction, but do not influence student achievement any more than the truck that delivers groceries causes changes" (p. 445). Kozma (1991) commented on Clark's contention, claiming that attributes of a particular medium may influence learning. Much later, Hastings and Tracy (2005) supported Kozma by suggesting that computers provided cost-efficient delivery methods that supported instructional methods that prior media could not.

Classroom technologies today have expanded greatly with opportunities for interactivity and participation through "wikis, blogs, instant messaging, wash ups, internet telephony, social book marking, social media sharing, and social networking sites" (Garrison and Akyol, 2009, p. 21). As one reviews the literature related to the effects the use of technology has had on learning in post-secondary classrooms, it quickly becomes apparent that most studies have focused on how students perceive the use of various technological devices have impacted their learning. The following two sections include a review of studies that report both positive and negative effects of technological devices used in college classrooms.

Positive Effects of Technological Devices in the College Classroom

In a study of 728 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in 29 courses and representing a wide range of disciplines at a large northeastern university, Shuell and Farber (2001) assessed student perceptions of the relative benefit of several types and uses of technology on their learning of course-related materials. A questionnaire that included both Likert and open-ended items was administered by 16 professors identified as using computer-based technologies in their classes at the close of the semester. Results revealed that 88% of the students believed the use of technology helped them learn the material and skills required for their classes; 86% indicated that technology assisted in illustrating concepts which facilitated their learning; 75% said that technology improved the quality of their interaction with instructors, and 56% reported that the use of technology improved the quality of their interaction with other students. Only 11.5% of those surveyed indicated that technology had not helped them learn material and skills in their courses. Students with more negative views generally reported less course-related use of technology. On the other hand, students with more positive views reported an average of seven forms of technology used in their classrooms. Furthermore, student responses to open-ended survey questions contained descriptions of getting "hands-on" experiences through technology (e.g., using interactive video on a course Web site that gave them practice diagnosing children's reading ability).

Clark, Flaherty and Mottner (2001) surveyed 114 undergraduate students enrolled in an elective course entitled "Marketing on the Internet" at a mid-Atlantic public university regarding their perceptions of specific educational technology tools utilized by the same marketing professor across one academic year. Students had been introduced to and used the following 14 tools during this time period: chat room, electronic discussion group, FAQ page, instructor home page, Internet project, lab-only classes, online homework assignments, online lecture assignments, online readings, online syllabus, online student directory, online student grade page, a Web site project, and technology lectures. On a Likert-type scale, students were asked to rate each of these tools in terms of their perceptions of overall learning, ability to get a job, and job performance. The following nine tools were given high student ratings in terms of overall learning: instructor home page, Internet project, online homework assignments, online lecture outlines, online syllabus, online student roster page, online student grade page, Web page project, and technology lecture. Tools rated as having no influence on overall learning were the FAQ pages, lab-only classes, online readings, chat room, and electronic discussion group. These researchers were particularly surprised that students considered chat room and electronic discussion group as having little influence, considering that these tools were designed to facilitate online communication on a student-to-student level.

One technological tool that has become widely used over the past two decades in college classrooms is a response device known as a "clicker." Among other benefits, clickers can provide a professor with instantaneous feedback of student understanding. Keough (2012) reviewed 66 clicker-technology based studies focusing on student perceptions and outcomes to determine the usefulness of these devices for the field of management. While clicker systems were once expensive and hard-wired to one location, they have evolved into inexpensive wireless and portable systems used by a variety of disciplines. Utilizing objective measures (e.g., exam and quiz scores, final grades, mean pass rates and standardized tests), 31 studies with a total of 34 samples compared these measures between students in classes using clickers versus students in classes not using clickers. Results indicated that 22 of the samples reported significant increases in student performance when clickers were used. Other categories considered in Keough's review of these studies related to students' perceptions of their performance, attention span, class attendance, participation, and ease of using these devices. In all of these categories the use of clickers was supported.

For the ninth year, the Educause Center for Applied Research (ECAR) has studied how undergraduates use information technology at institutions in the United States (US) and has provided information to professors regarding what students prefer for learning, their capabilities for certain resources and their opinions of technology's impact on instructors' effectiveness. The ECAR 2012 study (Dahlstrom, 2012) indicated that student voices continue to be important in shaping the higher education learning environment. In 2012, technology ownership, use patterns, and perceptions of technology were evaluated for more than 100,000 students from 184 US institutions. Findings of this study revealed that: technology is important to students; it helps them access course materials and feel connected to their institutions, their teachers, and other students (p.29). Furthermore, students prefer courses with online components and they want to have professors integrate technology into their teaching. Students wished to have professors use open educational resources as well as game-based learning. Generally, blended learning environments were favored by 70% of the students surveyed, because they felt this environment

helped them learn best. Also, it was discovered that students increasingly expect their instructors to engage them in learning through technology. In 2010, only 47% of students surveyed reported that instructors effectively used technology to help them succeed; in 2012, 68% indicated that instructors met this expectation. The 2012 ECAR study also determined that portable devices prevail, and they are diverse in terms of brands and platforms. Approximately 83% of undergraduate students worldwide own laptop computers and ownership of smart phones in 2012 was at 67%; not surprisingly, there has been a decline in use of desktop computers. Overall, 75% of those surveyed agreed that technology helps students achieve their academic outcomes.

Negative Effects of Technological Devices in the College Classroom

In this section, studies exploring negative effects of technology in the college classroom are explored. Because computers (particularly laptop computers) have become commonplace in college classrooms, studies investigating their use will be summarized first.

As noted in the previous section on the positive effects of technological devices in the classroom, most studies are based on student perceptions. In addition, much of the research gathered has been conducted in classes specifically designed to utilize technology (Fried, 2008). In response to the scarcity of objective evidence relating to the value of laptops in the college classroom, Fried examined how 129 students in two sections of a General Psychology course (taught by the same instructor) utilized laptops. These students had been told that, while they could bring their laptops to class to take notes, they would not be needed to function in the course. Students were given 10 weekly surveys covering 20 class sessions that were strictly lecture-based and were queried about their attendance, classroom experiences, and laptop use. In terms of their laptop use, students were asked if they used them for one or more of the following: taking notes, checking e-mail, instant messaging, surfing the net, playing games or others. Students were also asked to rate (on five point scales) how much attention they paid to the lectures, clarity of the lectures, and their understanding of the lecture material presented. American College Test (ACT) scores and high school rank (HSR) were utilized to measure students' academic preparation and aptitude. Results of this study indicated that 64.3% reported laptop use in at least one class period. Students indicating that they used laptops in class estimated that they used them (on average) 48.7% of the class periods. In terms of using their laptops for other purposes than note-taking, students reported an average of 17 minutes of each 75 minute class period had been used as follows: checking e-mail (81%); instant messaging (68%); surfing the net (43%); playing games (25%); and "other activities" (35%). Using linear regression, Fried analyzed the relationship between laptop use and student learning. The major conclusion drawn was that as laptop use increased, class performance decreased. Examining correlations among variables, it was also found that the level of laptop use was negatively correlated with how clear students found lectures and how much attention they reported having paid to lectures. Course performance, how clear students found the lectures, and how well they reported understanding course materials were all negatively correlated with laptop use. Fried points out that while correlational research cannot point to causal relationships, the use of ACT scores, HSR, and class attendance tended to act as proxy measures for variables such as academic aptitude, preparation, and conscientiousness. Even after controlling for these variables, laptop use remained negatively related to academic success. Not only was laptop use negatively associated with student learning, Fried points out that the results of this study suggest that laptop use poses a distraction

to fellow students. Her suggestion to faculty is that if they do not use laptops in an integrated way in their courses, they should consider ways of limiting or controlling their use by students.

Related closely to Fried's 2008 study of college students' use of laptops in the college classroom is the work of Junco and Cotton (2010) that investigated the impact of students' reported usage of instant messaging on the completion of homework. Their study was based on Mayer and Moreno's (2003) integrated theory of learning (i.e., humans have a finite amount of cognitive processes available at any one time and these processes can be overloaded); Junco and Cotton hypothesized that the use of instant messaging (IM) would negatively affect educational outcomes. A web-based survey designed to examine technology use among college students was sent to three large public universities and one medium four-year university (based on Carnegie Classification). Two of the universities were located in the Midwest, one in the Southwest, and one in the Southeast of the United States. Of the 4,491 students responding to the survey, only those reporting that they used IM were included in the data and subsequent data analyses. Students were asked how often they did not get their homework done because they were instant messaging as well as how many minutes in a typical day they sent or received messages. To investigate the effect of multi-tasking, students were also asked: how often they worked on schoolwork at the same time they were using IM; how often they did other things (e.g., played games, browsed the internet) at the same time they were using IM; and how often they engaged in other activities (e.g., watched TV, talked on the phone) at the same time there were IMing. Results of the study revealed that instant messaging users spent a mean of 120 minutes per day actively chatting and were adept at multi-tasking in that 97% of IM users reported doing something else on the computer while chatting, 93% reported that they and actively chatted and engaged in non-computer activity (e.g., watching television, talking on the phone), and 97% of IM users reported having done schoolwork while actively chatting. Most interesting, however, is the finding that 57% of IM users reported that doing schoolwork while IMing had a detrimental effect on their homework. Finally, it was found that multitasking while IMing was related to reported academic impairment at the bivariate level. While Cotton (2008) suggested that IM use may be beneficial for enhancing social connections and well being, Junco and Cotton's 2010 study suggests "that the amount of time spent IMing is not necessarily beneficial for completing homework " (p. 374).

Tinder and Bohlander (2011) also conducted a study of student cell phone use at a small private university in Pennsylvania. Online survey data was collected from 269 students (ranging in age from 18 to 50 and representing 21 academic majors) to determine how frequently they used their cell phones (particularly text messaging) before, during, and after class. Not only were students asked to report on their own use of cell phones in class, they were also queried about how distracting use of cell phones was to themselves and to others. It was also of interest to find out whether particular characteristics of instructors or classrooms contributed to the misuse of cell phones. Finally, respondents were asked to share their beliefs regarding what an effective cell phone use policy might be. Data gathered from this survey indicated that 99 % of the students had cell phones that could be used for text messaging and 95 % reported bringing them to class

UNDERSTANDING OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON SPEECH PRODUCTION IN ENGLISH

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Biography: Miss Alvarado attended Texas A&M University-Kingsville where she received her Bachelor of Arts in Psychology, Master of Arts degree in Bilingual Education and is currently a doctoral candidate in Bilingual Education as well. She has worked with pre-collegiate programs that prepared incoming freshman and GED students begin their college experience. Through her experience of working with students, she understands the need to build a strong foundation in the area instructional supervision to promote best practices and student success. Her research interests include perceptions of corrective feedback in second language classrooms and the conservation of heritage language among English language learners.

Abstract

The research is focused on examining teacher and student perceptions regarding English language learning (ELL) related to corrective feedback on speech production. Research on examining perceptions regarding corrective feedback on speech production has not been highlighted individually within teachers and students nor specifically given a voice in terms of a narrative study. Most of the research for corrective feedback that is available is focused mainly on statistics which do not create a rich description of how teachers and students perceive and understand it. The present study represents an investigation on perceptions and understanding of corrective feedback that occurs amongst teachers and students in an English learning classroom. The participants used for the research were teachers and students who are currently teaching/attending an intensive English program. The research will provide formal information on teacher and student-centered perceptions aimed at corrective feedback.

Statement of the Problem:

The statement of the problem is that research on examining perception and understanding regarding corrective feedback on speech production has not been highlighted individually within teachers and students, nor specifically given a voice in terms of a narrative study. The narratives collected for the study will give the participants an opportunity to reveal their perception and understanding on the subject of corrective feedback. The problem states that this research is to generate a constructivist theory derived from a qualitative analysis of the narrative statements from the participants. This theory may suggest important characteristics and themes related to the participants' experiences with regards to the offering and receiving of corrective feedback. Thus, this study aims to examine teacher and student perceptions regarding English language learning of corrective feedback on speech production at an Intensive English Program at an institute in south Texas.

Purpose of the Study:

The purpose of this narrative study is to examine teacher and students perceptions regarding English language learning related to corrective feedback on speech production and fill in the gap within the existing literature by providing a descriptive narration of the perceptions and understandings retrieved from both teachers and students. By focusing specifically in one area that corrective feedback is directed, the researcher will be able to gather meaningful data that is described in-depth and is not distracted by other determining factors. A carefully designed study that investigates teacher and student perceptions regarding English language learning of corrective feedback on speech production will serve as a means of exploring the claims of both the teachers and the students. The purpose will be achieved by conducting focus groups with the participants, ask follow-up questions from the focus group discussions, and conduct member

checks to ensure that all of the data collected was interpreted correctly. All of the retrieved statements will be transcribed and later reviewed between the researcher and participant in an effort to conclude that the data collected is accurate.

Research Design and Data Collection Process:

Utilizing a qualitative narrative approach will reveal meaningful data collected from the participants and help examine the perceptions that English language learners and teachers have of corrective feedback on speech production. At the beginning of the study, the researcher will seek permission from the Institutional Review Board for Students Involving Human Subjects at Texas A&M University-Kingsville. The researcher will also meet with the director for the Intensive English Program to inform the director about the research proposal and what procedures are needed in order to conduct the study. After receiving written permission from both the Institutional Review Board and the director at the program, the researcher will begin the study. The researcher will then invite a group of bilingual education doctoral candidates to join a focus group.

The purpose of the focus group is to help the researcher validate the focus group questions and open-ended questionnaires needed for the study. By including a focus group for the study, the researcher is able to receive feedback from a group of individuals who ensure the validity of the instruments used. Once the focus group questions and open-ended questionnaires are validated, the researcher will begin the study.

With the permission of the teachers and students at the Intensive English program, a forty-five minute focus group discussion will be conducted as part of the study. All of the teacher and student discussions will be recorded for the use of the researcher once the data is ready to analyze. Recording the voices during the focus group discussions is a very important part of the

study because purpose of recording the voices during the interview is to increase the accuracy of the data that is collected. The researcher will have a second meeting with the teachers and students to conduct a follow-up open-ended questionnaire. The questionnaire will serve as a secondary source of data collection to follow-up on the focus group discussions conducted. During the follow-up questionnaires, the teachers and students' voices will be recorded in order to ensure the quality and reliability of the information retrieved.

The information obtained from the focus group discussions and follow-up questionnaires will be transcribed by the researcher in order to keep an accurate record of the data collected. Transcribing the discussion into written words will serve as a reliable source of data that can be validated by the interviewee. In order for the researcher to capture the narrative experience from the participants, the focus group discussions that are transcribed will be given a member check. A third meeting with the teachers and students will be needed to conduct member checks. Member checks will be conducted in order to ensure that the researcher was able to capture the participant's answers correctly. A carefully written transcript of the discussion that was recorded will available for the participants to view. The researcher will make sure that everything the participant has shared is carefully noted and described just how the participant would like for the information to come across. The data collected will be given a rich description which will explain the phenomenon of each of the participant's experiences. Using this form of data collection will complete the triangulation of the data and provide an in-depth view of the perceptions and understanding of English language learners and teachers have of corrective feedback on speech production.

The following research study is in progress and the researcher has not collected data due to awaiting approval from the Institutional Review Board. The researcher anticipates finding

some differences between the teachers and students on how they perceive and understand corrective feedback. It is the researchers' interest to compare the findings between the teachers and students and publish the information to inform on the disconnection of views in the classroom.

Implications & Contributions:

Since the existing literature regarding corrective feedback mostly focuses on best practices, different types of corrective feedback and appropriate timing for the use of corrective feedback, this narrative investigation provides an internalized view on perceptions coming directly from the source (e.g. teachers and students). The present study seeks to investigate the overlooked perceptions of teachers and ELL students have regarding the role of corrective feedback when directed toward their speech production. Thus there has been a void in research that considers the perceptions and understanding of both students and teacher which may create a crisis among teachers and students during classroom instruction, voices in this context remain largely unknown. The findings of this study will provide insight into both teacher and student realities among corrective feedback and their experiences as they grapple with helping attain adequate levels of understanding through their shared experiences during their focus group discussions. An examination of student and teacher perceptions and understandings of corrective feedback may provide insight into the continuing problem. For example, it is possible that students and teachers hold different perceptions and understandings about corrective feedback that do not facilitate the message delivered in the classroom. Moreover, both teachers and students may gain a deeper understanding of how to perceive and understand corrective feedback by becoming aware of each other's perceptions and their own. The research will bring the staten

The Professional Exploration Program: An Alternative Law School Admission Process

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Author note

The views expressed in this article are solely those of Professor Kisabeth and not Thomas M. Cooley Law School. This article makes no attempt at statistical correlation and none should be inferred. All percents referenced herein are rounded to two digits.

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Abstract

When Cooley's liberal admission criteria increased, it resulted in a smaller qualified applicant pool, particularly from underrepresented populations. To allow access, Cooley developed an alternative admission program. It was internally evaluated to determine if it was effective and whether it should continue. Applicants who are denied admission because of low Law School Admission Test (LSAT) scores or low undergraduate grade point averages are invited to the week-long program based on an evaluation of their LSAT writing sample, and if they are successful, they are granted admission. Over 800 students have been admitted through the program in a ten year period. To evaluate the program, it was necessary to study the success rates of the students who gained admission through the program. This was done by comparing the students' academic standing to the scores received on their LSAT writing sample and the scores received on various tests conducted during the program. The result of the evaluation indicated that the higher a student scored on the tests during the program, the more likely they were to be successful. When evaluated, the success rate was 79%. The results indicate Cooley is doing a good job of predicting who will be successful in law school from a population who were originally denied access. Cooley is consistently selecting three out of four individuals who are successful in law school despite not qualifying for admission through the traditional process. Cooley has opened the door to success for many prospective students who otherwise would not have had the opportunity to study law.

Keywords: law school admissions, alternative, underrepresented populations

I. Introduction (History and Background)

Thomas M. Cooley Law School ("Cooley") was founded in 1972 in Lansing, Michigan by then Chief Justice of the Michigan Supreme Court, Thomas E. Brennan, Sr.. Judge Brennan left a prestigious judicial career to create a law school for the average person, not the academic elite. Why did he do that? The answer is quite simple. His philosophy was that everyone, regardless of social class, previous academic performance or financial ability should have the opportunity to attend law school and receive a juris doctor degree if they chose to do so and were hard working enough to commit the time and energy it takes to complete such a rigorous postgraduate curriculum.

The law school was named for Thomas McIntyre Cooley, LL.D., a legal scholar and practicing attorney of the 19th century. He was Chief Justice of the Michigan Supreme Court from 1864 to 1885. Cooley's mission "is to prepare its graduates for entry into the legal profession" which includes "providing broad access to those who seek the opportunity to study law". Cooley's founding principles were based on access to legal education for all who sought it out. Cooley flourished over the next forty years and by design became the largest American Bar Association accredited law school in the country.

In 1972, an African-American police officer enrolled at Cooley and became its first African-American student and its first African-American graduate. That graduate later became the first African-American district court judge in Ingham County, Michigan. Little did the founders of the school know in those early days that Cooley Law School would one day become the largest accredited law school in America, or that it would consistently enroll and educate more African-American law students than any other law school in the nation, including such celebrated historically African-American colleges and universities as Howard and Texas Southern.

Cooley has been admitting, and granting law degrees to people from underrepresented populations since its inception. Approximately 30% of Cooley's student population is made up of minorities. It is noteworthy, however, that 2% of the population's race/ethnicity is unknown and 6% are classified as nonresident aliens which likely include additional minorities. And currently, the Diverse Issues in Higher Education website ranks Cooley first in the nation in law school degrees awarded to minorities overall.

Consistent with Cooley's mission, it is no surprise that the entrance standards to enroll as a student at Cooley while it was in its infancy were fairly low which enabled the majority of those who applied to be granted admission. However, over its forty year period of growth these entrance standards slowly crept upward in response to various requirements of the American Bar Association, Cooley's accrediting body, as well as the desire to maintain adequate bar passage rates. This rise in entrance standards logically resulted in a smaller applicant pool, both from underrepresented populations and represented populations. In an effort to capture these lost prospective students, in particular those from underrepresented populations, who may have been granted admission under the early entrance standards, Cooley developed an alternative admissions mechanism, namely a qualifying program.

The idea for an alternative admission program began in July 2001 when Cooley's Associate Dean of Faculty and its Coordinator of Institutional Research developed an informal, internal study to determine whether the Law School Admission Test ("LSAT") writing sample could be used as an assessment tool in the admission process. Currently, the LSAT score and the undergraduate grade point average (UGPA) are the only two factors used to determine the entrance index at Cooley, which is the standard for admission eligibility. On average, the academic attrition rate for students with low LSAT scores is high, but some students with low LSAT scores do tremendously well and succeed. This informal study tested the following hypothesis: (1) that students with good writing skills have a higher probability of law school success; and (2) that the LSAT writing sample could be an effective assessment tool for admission to Cooley.

The study seemed to indicate that the writing sample is a strong predictor of academic success and first-year law school grade point averages (GPA). The results offered some support for including an assessment of the LSAT writing sample in the admission criteria. Further, the results also suggested that consideration be given for using the LSAT writing sample as a key criterion for participation in an alternative admission process or "qualification program" with a view toward consideration of admission to the law school.

Taking those study results to heart, in 2003 Cooley formally developed its alternative admission program and called it the Professional Exploration Program ("PEP"). While other law schools have qualification programs, typically they place specially admitted individuals in two or more substantive law classes and then admit them

as students on the basis of their grades in those courses. Cooley wanted its qualification program to be different and one that would incorporate additional important components other than simply placing a prospective student in a law school classroom to see if they would sink or swim. Cooley's alternative admissions program was developed to include legal analysis skill instruction, substantive law instruction by a faculty member, reading comprehension and vocabulary testing, personality and career-interest assessments and participant self-evaluation of their fitness to study the law. The program, over the course of a week, includes twelve hours of legal analysis skill training and ten hours of substantive law instruction. At the end of the week, participants take a quiz on the legal analysis skill information and a final exam on the substantive law topic. After the program, the participants are evaluated by a PEP selection committee and are invited to matriculate, or not, based on the outcome of their overall efforts to learn to be successful in a simulated law school environment provided by the PEP. The PEP selection committee consists of the Associate Dean of Students and Professionalism, the Assistant Dean of Admissions, the Associate Dean of Enrollment and Student Services, the Associate Dean of Faculty, the Director of the school's Academic Resource Center, the faculty member who taught in the program, and PEP staff members which have included a Skills Instructor and a Coordinator.

To determine who is eligible to participate in the alternative admission program, Cooley assesses and scores an applicant's LSAT writing sample that is submitted with the individual's application for admission. Unbeknownst to them, individuals who apply to Cooley but do not meet the required LSAT or UGPA entrance index for regular admission have their respective writing samples evaluated. Individuals who score 2.5 or better out of 5.0 possible points on the writing sample are offered an opportunity to participate in the program. When an applicant is invited to participate in the PEP, they are informed of the review of their writing sample that precipitated their invitation.

Between the 2003 inception of the PEP and the end of the year 2012, fifty-five programs were conducted. During this period, 1,425 participants attended the programs and ultimately 829, or 58%, were granted admission to the school based on their performance. The success rate of those admitted is significant and is the basis for continuing this alternative admission process. Using the success rate as a benchmark, the question posed for evaluation to determine if the PEP is a viable alternative admission process is whether the LSAT writing sample serves as a predictor of first term academic success and ultimate overall academic success. The other, and more related question posed, was whether the results of the legal analysis skills quiz and final exam administered during the program serve as a predictor of first term success and ultimate overall academic success. First term academic success is defined as earning a passing grade, C (2.0) or better, in first term courses that typically include Torts I, Criminal Law and Contracts I which also results in a first term GPA of 2.0 or better. Ultimate overall academic success is defined as: (1) Graduated and received a juris doctor degree; (2) In good academic standing with a cumulative GPA of 2.0 or above; (3) Transferred to another institution while in good academic standing (cumulative GPA of 2.0 or above); or (4) Withdrew from Cooley while in good academic standing (cumulative GPA of 2.0 or above). Conversely, academic unsuccessfulness is defined as: (1) Academically dismissed; (2) Academic probation (cumulative GPA below 2.0); or (3) Withdrew from Cooley while on academic probation (cumulative GPA below 2.0). Academic success and unsuccessfulness was determined by evaluating information through the last semester of 2012 (September through December, 2012).

II. PROGRAM SELECTION PROCESS - LSAT WRITING SAMPLE

The LSAT writing samples of those who apply to Cooley but do not meet its current entrance index standards are evaluated and given a score that ranges in nine steps from 1.0 to 5.0 (1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5 or 5.0). The chairperson of Cooley's Research and Writing Department, who is a national leader in law school writing programs, developed the scoring rubric for evaluating the LSAT writing sample through a comprehensive and extensive writing sample study. In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the evaluation and scoring of the sample, a trained PEP staff member assesses and scores the writing samples. The LSAT writing sample rubric is summarized as follows:

- **SCORE 5** - A *five* paper presents a cogent, well-articulated analysis of the complexities of the issue and demonstrates mastery of the elements of effective writing.
- **SCORE 4** – A *four* paper presents a well-developed analysis of the complexities of the issue and demonstrates a strong control of the elements of effective writing.
- **SCORE 3 –** A *three* paper presents a competent analysis of the issue and demonstrates adequate control of the elements of writing.
- **SCORE 2 -** A *two* paper demonstrates serious weaknesses in analytical writing and contains numerous errors in grammar, usage, or mechanics that interfere with meaning.
- **SCORE 1** – A *one* paper demonstrates fundamental deficiencies in analytical writing skills.

The LSAT writing sample is the primary factor considered in choosing the participants who might attend the PEP and while all who score 2.5 or higher are invited to be participants, some invitees decline the invitation. Currently, about one-third of those invited choose to take advantage of the opportunity to attend this alternative admissions program with the possibility of being granted admission to Cooley. The following table sets out the number of writing samples reviewed and assessed since the inception of the PEP in 2003 through the end of the year, 2012. It should be noted, however, that a variable exists in the categorization of the writing sample scores. Since 2003 there have been approximately three different Cooley employees (faculty or lawyer-staff) who have scored the writing samples. These individuals predated the lawyer-staff member who has evaluated the writing samples since 2007. While each employee used the rubric to evaluate the writing samples, there may have been some variation in the interpretation of the sample itself and the application of the score.

Table 1
Number of LSAT Writing Samples Read and Assessed With the Corresponding Rubric Score

Rubric Score	Number of Samples in the Score Range
0	170
1	1,375
1.5	1,398
2	2,840
2.5	2,910
3	1,042
3.5	123
4	38
4.5	3
5	0
Total Writing Samples Read	**9,899**

It is noteworthy that 5,783 LSAT writing samples fell below the 2.5 score using the writing sample rubric. These individuals who fell below the bright line of 2.5 represent 58% of the population of samples that were scored. These individuals were not invited to attend the alternative admissions program as it was logical to infer that individuals who scored 1.0 or 2.0 on the writing sample would be more likely to have academic difficulty as law students than individuals who scored 2.5 or higher.

Of the remaining 4,116 samples that were evaluated, 2,910, or 71%, scored at the 2.5 level in the rubric. This would indicate that while the samples demonstrated weakness they did not demonstrate fundamental

deficiencies in analytical writing skills. The remaining 1,206 samples scored 3.0 or better as defined by the rubric. There were no writing samples in the pool that scored at level 5.0 in the rubric.

All 4,116 applicants whose writing samples were scored 2.5 or higher were invited to attend the program. Approximately 65% of those invitees did not respond to the invitation or declined the invitation and presumably chose other career or educational options. Several invitees accepted the invitation but did not ultimately attend the program because their entrance index scores increased sufficiently so that they were granted admission to Cooley, or other institutions, through the regular admissions process. A small number of individuals came to the program but then left during the course of the program and did not complete it for various personal reasons. An even smaller number of individuals completed the program but were subsequently granted admission to the school due to an increase in their LSAT score which resulted in an increase in their entrance index. These individuals were not included in the population studied for purposes of this evaluation. There were 1,425 individuals, or 35%, of the 4,116 who were invited, who accepted the invitation, participated in the program, completed the program and were voted on by the PEP selection committee to determine whether they should be granted admission to the school.

Of the 1,425 individuals that accepted the invitation and completed in the program, 829 of them, or 58%, were granted admission to the school. Conversely, 596 individuals, or 42%, completed the program and were not granted admission to the school. Currently, over half of the 829 participants, specifically 66%, that were granted admission are categorized as academically successful. In fact, this percentage is only a partial snapshot of the status of those 829 participants. Approximately 136 individuals from this group, or 16%, do not have an academic classification because they either did not accept the invitation to matriculate, accepted the invitation but have not yet matriculated or have matriculated but have not yet received first term grades. Therefore, these 136 individuals were removed from the information evaluated to determine success rates, thereby leaving 693 participants that could be classified academically. Of the 693 participants that have a classification of academically successful or unsuccessful, more than three-quarters of them, specifically 79%, are classified as academically successful. The information evaluated to determine academic success included student grades and GPAs through the last semester of 2012 (September through December, 2012). This seems to demonstrate that Cooley is finding participants for the program with potential to succeed in law school. Cooley selects participants for the program who demonstrate the highest probability for success as law students.

III. ANALYSIS

a. Age

The average age of all 1,425 participants who attended the program from 2003 through 2012 is twenty-eight years. They have an average UGPA of 2.68 and an average LSAT score of 138. The average LSAT writing sample score for this group is 2.6. The averages in these categories for the 829 participants who were ultimately granted admission are almost the same as the overall participant averages. The average age of the 829

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Urban Charter Schools and Factors that Influence the Achievement of students from Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Backgrounds

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Abstract
Charter schools have become the fastest growing school reform option for many inner-city and minority students who come from families who often lack access to average performing traditional public schools for them. However, charter schools are considered the number one alternative to failing public schools for various reasons. A number of these charter schools are located in urban school communities that are identified as 'high needs' and who educate a large percentage of students with special and other needs who come from at-risk backgrounds. The latter is oftentimes complicated by the achievement gap. This analysis will elucidate some of the factors that tend to impact the mission of urban charter schools and extend the discourse around urban education reforms aimed at educating culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students who attend them.

Key Words: *Culturally Responsive Teaching, Culturally and Linguistically Diverse, Urban School, High-Needs*

Introduction

Urban Charter Schools, Diverse Students & Special Education

Charter schools have become the fastest growing school reform option for many inner-city and minority parents, who often lack access to average performing traditional public schools. However, charter schools are considered the number one alternative to a failing public school for various reasons; they are free; they offer a culturally responsive curriculum; they uphold high expectations and standards; and most urban charters hold school discipline as the number one priority, often times alongside achievement and performance (Buckley & Schneider, 2006; Finn, Caldwell, & Raub, 2006; Hess & McGuinn, 2002; Lubienski & Lubienski, 2006; RPP International, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001;Snell, 2005; Wells, 2002; Wells, Lopez, & Holmes, 1999; Williams, 2007; Wilkens, 2011). The chart below (Figure 1.1) identifies a percentage of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students attending charters schools in states with large minority urban school districts. Students

who come from CLD backgrounds, tend to be African American, Latino and or other, who are not members of the majority culture, here, white middle class and who speak English as their dominant language (Garcia & Guerra, 2004; Harry, 2008; Hoge& Coladarci, 1989; Ladson-Billings, 1994). These students form the basis of our nations under-performing groups of students identified by states based on high stakes testing and NCLB (2001) data. The majority of the charters here are created in these states and school districts with a focus to close the achievement and performance gap of it's mostly CLD students. The latter is not inclusive of those CLD students with identified special and or exceptional needs. However, charters find it difficult to keep pace with the demand, as they often accompany long waiting lists and teacher shortages especially in high needed areas such as science, math, and special education (Estes, 2002;2003; 2003;2009;Finn et al., 2006; Fiore et al., 2000;Rhim et al., 2001 ;2006 ;2007) Nonetheless, charters have had no shortage of eager parents racing to their doorsteps pleading their case for their child's enrollment (Finn, Caldwell, & Raub, 2006; Hess & McGuinn, 2002; Williams, 2007;2012). The commitment of volunteer hours and partnerships is a hallmark of charter schools, which allow them to live up to the demands of their charter philosophy. However, to what extent and how successful charter school philosophies have been in the urban school system with students who are disabled and have specific needs is understudied (Barr, Sadovnik & Visconti, 2006; Wilkens, 2011;Williams, 2012). There is no comprehensive data set that is complete with all of the nations' charter schools; nor are there accounts of perspectives from parents and students on what makes charter schools successful. But as the No child Left Behind Act (2001) and now the reauthorized Education Secondary Elementary Act (ESEA, 2010) clearly identify, charters have become an inescapable aspect of public education.

Educational reform movements have significantly pushed for innovation in our schools. Charter schools, now serving nationally over 1.5 million students in more than 5000 schools, have typically been welcomed as a way to deliver this innovation. In large metropolitan cities with school districts that serve over 50% of CLD students, such as Philadelphia, New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, and Houston, charters serve 80% of them (Center for Education Reform, 2011; NCSRP, 2009). Data based on table 1.1 indicate the nations' largest urban school districts and the demographics of the student population that make up its schools. Charter schools in

those cities are at least 50% minority. However, missing from data on charter schools is the extent to which charter schools located in urban school districts and residentially segregated school communities, have become culturally responsive to the diverse and high needs that their students bring to the school context. Hence, charters, perhaps unwittingly, have been designated as the panacea to assist with closing the ever growing achievement gap for CLD students who attend urban schools. Additionally, whether willingly or not, the majority of these charter schools report mixed results about their success in closing these gaps in achievement, behavior, and services for these students who bring with them special, exceptional, and English language learning (ELL) needs (Callahan, Sadovnik, & Visconti, 2002;Nelson et al., 2004; U.S. Department of Education, 2005;Wells, 2002).

State	**Major Urban City(s)**	**Number of Charters in State**	**Total % of Minority Students Attending Charters in the state compared to public schools**
New York	New York	124	90% to 48%
Illinois	Chicago	95	94 % to 46%
California	Los Angeles	733	65% to 72%
Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	132	56% to 26%
Florida	Miami	396	57% to 55%
Texas	Houston	416	83% to 66%
Michigan	Detroit	265	53% to 30%
North Carolina	Charlotte	99	39% to 46%
Maryland	Baltimore	34	84% to 52%
Washington	District of Columbia	97	50% to 48%

Figure 1.1 **This chart disaggregates the ten largest school districts, which are also urban, and the number of charter in that state, with the bulk of charters located in that city (NCSRP, 2009).**

This article attempts to examine some of the nuances and vignettes that have become characteristic with educating students from CLD backgrounds who attend urban charter schools. The review will also attempt to elucidate some of the culturally relevant factors that impact the performance of these students. Lastly, the author makes recommendations to charter school reformers, policy makers, and educators to put into practice that can create a conceptual and pedagogical framework that can address some of these challenges through a culturally

responsive lens, thereby increasing the achievement of these students, many who from CLD backgrounds. (Garcia & Guerra, 2004; Harry, 2008; Hoge& Coladarci, 1989; Ladson-Billings, 1994).

Urban Charter Schools and High Needs Students

Charter schools have become one of the most popular school reforms used to repair failing schools and to support poor performing urban school districts (Callahan, Sadovnik, & Visconti, 2002;Nelson et al., 2004; U.S. Department of Education, 2005; Wells, 2002). While charter schools have not been perceived as the ultimate answer to urban school woes, they have been recognized for their efforts at attempting to close the widening achievement gap between black and white students. Additionally, charter school reform has developed into a unique, yet paradoxical, grassroots effort. Charter schools create educational opportunities for many disadvantaged inner city students while simultaneously creating competition between themselves and public schools and between families who choose charters over those families who do not (Wells, 2002; Wells, Lopez & Homes, 1999). Nevertheless, charter schools have become a primary urban school reform that is used to address urban school problems such as school equity, the growing black/white achievement gap, and other issues confronting urban schools (Wells, 2002; Wells, Scott & Slayton, 2002; Williams, 2007; 2012).

Charter schools are one of the most sweeping national legislative proposals of school reform (Buckley & Schneider, 2006; Snell, 2005; Wells, 2002). Yet rapid growth has brought a number of social and political problems to charter schools. Problems with accountability, school budgets, and curriculum are common. On the other hand, there are a number of attractive features not found in many of the nation's public urban schools that make charter schools of interest to many parents, community members, and educators. Charter schools generally maintain small class sizes, low teacher to student ratios, teacher's assistants in each classroom, extracurricular multi-cultural activities, and more, which makes these schools a unique alternative to public schools (Davis, 2005; Grant, 2005; Jacobson, 2002; McDonald et al., 2007; Levy, 2010; Renzulli, 2006 ; Williams & Leonard, 2004). Nonetheless, research on charter schools seems to ignore an important aspect that would enable their reform effort to grow, namely, factors that contribute to the success and or failure at

educating the population of high needs urban students from CLD backgrounds. Yet, the variety of charters continues to flourish in urban school districts.

Charter schools operate under themes and that allow them to secure the amount of autonomy within a district. The majority of urban charter schools are considered local education agencies (LEA), which give them autonomy to function as a member of the local public schools, and at the same time provides them the autonomy required to be a charter school. For instance, school based decisions, curriculum, special and gifted education services, minor assessments, and policy governing students, teachers, parent collaboration and other basic school policy decisions, are often left up to the charter school board. With the exception of the federal mandates, such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2001) and the Individual Disabilities Education Act (IDIEA, 1997; 2004), charters are flexibility on how to provide services to even this protected class of students. Lastly, state laws and administrative regulations that govern all LEA's must be adhered to by the charter school. Table 1.1 below reveals that charter schools serve a significant number of urban students from CLD backgrounds. This makes charters a viable resource for this demographic of students, but at the same time at risk for not living up to their expectations to close the achievement gaps. Hence, given the aforementioned, charters become the mirror of traditional urban public schools, in their often programmatic response to the achievement gap (Barton, 2003; Education Trust, 2006; Ferguson, 2002; Jencks & Phillips, 1998; Lee & Burkham, 2002; Peske & Haycock, 2006).

Urban Charter Schools and The Achievement Gap

The Achievement Gap (AG) has been given scant attention by Universities and colleges across the country for various reasons(Barton, 2003; Education Trust, 2006; Ferguson, 2002; Jencks & Phillips, 1998; Lee & Burkham, 2002; Peske & Haycock, 2006). More specifically, students of color and those from CLD backgrounds suffer the most from underachievement in our nations' public schools. There appears to be no significant d urban or suburban they

Supporting Value-Added Claims for the Accreditation of an Educational Leadership Program Using a Modified Solomon Four-Group Design

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Abstract

A number of accrediting agencies and various commissions are now applying pressure for universities to demonstrate that they actually add value to their students' educational trajectories while enrolled. Students and their parents also seek a better understanding of the cost effectiveness for higher education programs where expense has recently become a major issue. For value-added, we initially want to answer the research question: To what extent does the Regent University Educational Leadership Program add value to students' competence in leading a K-12 school? We shall take a stratified random sample of three separate groups of master's degree students within the university: educational leadership, other SOE, and other Regent. For instrumentation, we have chosen the School Leaders Licensure Assessment examination; we believe that it represents a reasonable proxy or indicator for competent leadership practice. Because the SLLA offers a third–party, objective evaluation and is a requirement for licensing in Virginia and many other states, it provides us with scores that can track value-added claims. We propose a modified Solomon Four-Group design that allows for pretest-posttest and posttest only controls. Random selection and partial random assignment for educational leadership, other School of Education, and other Regent university students helps to protect against a number of threats to internal and external validity. Challenges include variable participant motivation, securing partnerships and financing, and dealing with effect size vs. *n*-size tradeoffs. The longitudinal aspect of the design is an important benefit.

Keywords: value-added, accreditation, Solomon Four-Group design

A number of accrediting agencies and various commissions, including the United States Department of Education (USDOE), the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU), and the Council for Accreditation of Education Programs (CAEP) among many such accrediting bodies, are now applying pressure for universities to demonstrate that they actually add value to their students' educational trajectories while enrolled. Students and their parents also seek a better understanding of the cost effectiveness for higher education programs where expense has recently become a major issue.

For accreditation, the movement to a value-added focus has gathered momentum over the last several decades as two major shifts have occurred. First, from the perspective of a program logic model, emphasis has moved from tracking inputs or institutional capacities such as libraries to charting outcomes as measured by graduates' characteristics and achievements (Liu, 2011). Second, some of the attention

has reoriented from outcome status that conveys information about graduates' knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors, to value-added evidence that addresses how the outcomes were generated (e.g., by the program itself, by the initial quality of the students admitted, etc.).

An example of the value-added approach applied at the undergraduate level involves the Voluntary System of Accountability (VSA), a program co-developed by the AASCU and focused on the outcomes for writing and critical thinking (Liu, 2011). Three instruments, including the Educational Testing Service Proficiency Profile, provide the input for measurement of these two academic skills, and the estimation of value-added evidence comes from the simultaneous examination of both freshmen and seniors at each of the 300+ institutions participating in the VSA program. Note that the VSA deploys a cross-sectional design because the preferable longitudinal design (Liu, 2011) would require at least 4 years before the same students could be re-tested as a panel study.

Currently, the value-added approach is poised to expand more widely into the nation's teacher and administrator preparation programs, both undergraduate and graduate. At least 14 states are working with such value added possibilities, and Louisiana and Tennessee have shown that such programs can be a powerful catalyst for change. Both can point to programs that have seen improvements in value-added scores after altering aspects of their processes. However, most teacher preparation programs across the country have not been very receptive to the value-added idea.

Established in 1995, the Regent University School of Education (SOE) Educational Leadership (Ed. Lead.) program has become a national standards-based (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, ISLLC) enterprise that received national accreditation from the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) on January 9, 2009. This was one of the first two educational leadership programs nationally to receive independent program accreditation from TEAC. CAEP represents the merger of TEAC and the older National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

From the beginning of the accreditation effort in 2005, the Educational Leadership program evolved several models to guide the endeavor; among others, these involved a Program Logic model (Hanes, 1998), a Systems Evaluation Partnership (SEP) model (Urban & Trochim, 2009), and, as a Christian University, a Christian Service model. Because TEAC presented three levels of claims that an educational program could make for itself, we included all three in our Program Logic model. Two of these claims, value-added (shows graduates' improvement over the course of the program) and causal (utilizes control group to demonstrate that the program caused graduates' improvement), are considered subsidiary to status claims about graduates' knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. For the initial accreditation, the Ed. Lead. program only utilized status claims, but the Program Logic model anticipated deployment of the subsidiary claims as identified in Figure 1 under the question, "Compared to What." This is located between the symbol representing our students and the symbol representing prior or current cohorts other than our Ed. Lead. students.

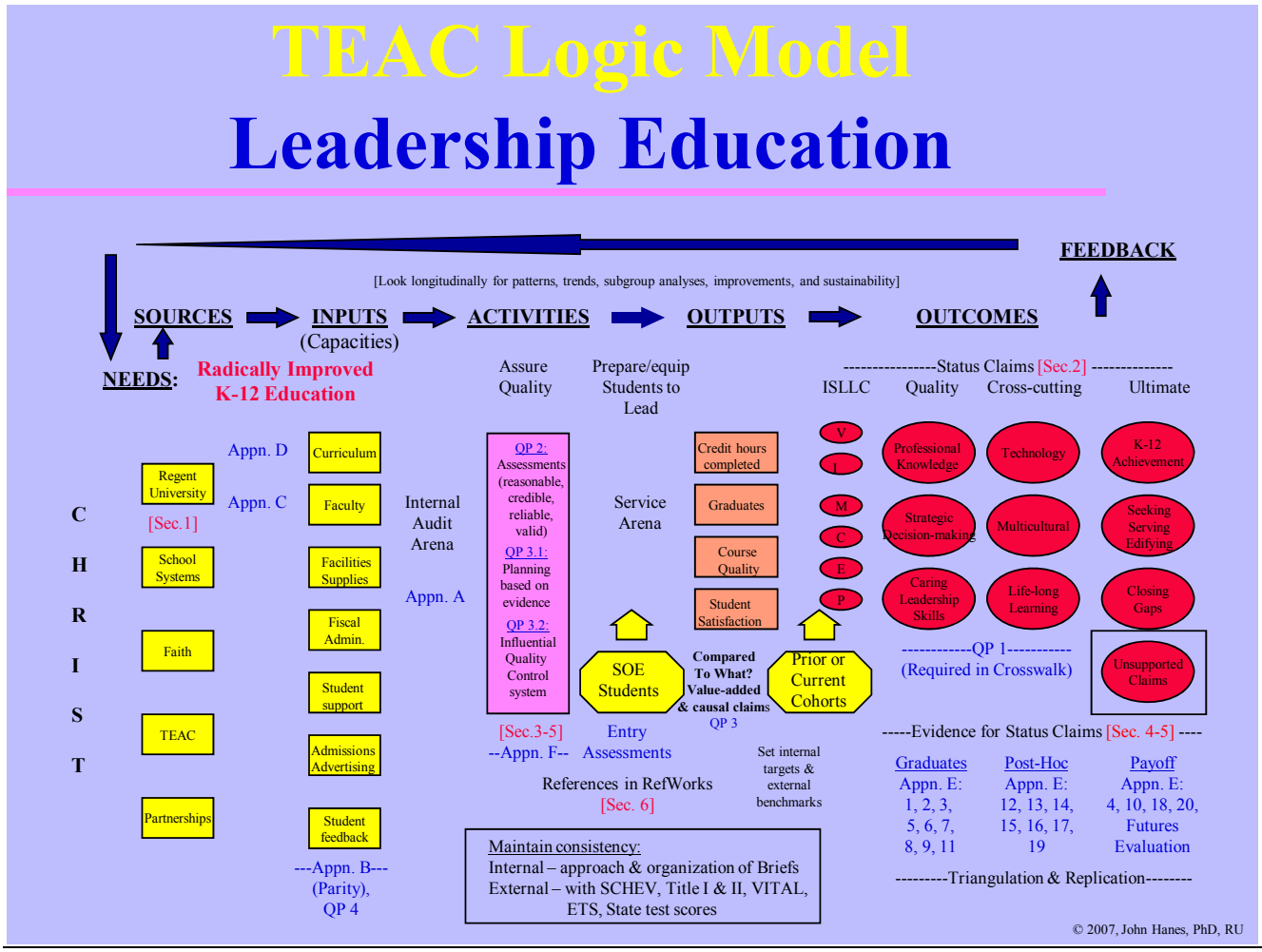


Figure 1. Program Logic Model for the Regent University School of Education Leadership Program. Adapted from Hanes (1998).

Methods

In order to begin the value-added process, a simple research question is posed: To what extent does the Regent University SOE Educational Leadership Program add value to students' competence in leading a K-12 school? Because we lack sufficient sample size and data to assess our graduates who have risen to the principal position (although this is changing rapidly as more of our graduates attain the lead position in school systems across the country), we have chosen the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) examination as a proxy for the actual leadership that we eventually want to measure. The SLLA proper will be discussed under "Instrumentation" below.

Operationalizing the research question thus yields a research hypothesis that states: The Regent University Educational Leadership Program adds statistically significant value and at least moderate effect size to achievement scores of graduates on the SLLA examination as a proxy for leadership competence in K-12 schools. The corresponding null hypothesis states that the Program does not add statistically significant value and at least moderate effect size to achievement scores of graduates on the SLLA examination.

Participants

Three target populations of Regent University graduate students constitute the sampling frames for this investigation. Our master's degree graduate students in the Educational Leadership program constitute the intervention group that receives the treatment, in this case our program for school administrators with a focus on the principal's position at a K-12 school. Two other groups of students provide comparisons: School of Education students in other master's degree programs (Other SOE) and

master's degree students at Regent University in fields of study outside of education (Other Regent). An initial assumption of the relative comparability for cognitive ability among the three groups of students will be investigated through admissions grid assessments.

Sampling

Because of cost constraints, the sample is limited to a maximum of 50 students. Using stratified random sampling across the three groups of master's degree students, the target allocation is 20 Educational Leadership students, 20 from the Other SOE category, and 10 from the Other Regent stratum.

Design

Deploying a modified Solomon Four-Group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002) as shown in Figure 2 allows us to investigate the value added component of our program and answer the important question of "Compared to what?" If we could randomly assign students to programs within the SOE and the university, then the Solomon Four-Group would realize its full potential as a true experimental design, including protection from all threats to internal validity except attrition, both overall and differential. To the degree that self-selection into the various programs disturbs characteristics that might influence performance on the SLLA examination, the benefits of the ideal of random assignment are diminished. The design does address the external validity threat of the interaction of testing and treatment (that treatment being The Regent University Educational Leadership program). Nevertheless, the major benefit to value-added assessment comes from the combination of the pre-test-posttest and posttest-only control group (really comparison groups in this instance) designs. This combination addresses program value-added evidence directly by comparing our Educational Leadership students with other SOE students as well as other Regent University students who constitute an additional group that modifies and extends the Solomon Four-Group design as originally conceived. This means that five groups of roughly 10 students each will provide the focus for the study: Ed. Lead. students who receive both pretest and posttest, Other SOE students who also receive both tests, Ed. Lead. students who only participate in the posttest, Other SOE students who also participate in the posttest only, and Other Regent students who likewise take the posttest only.

The Modified Solomon Four-Group Design

R	O1	X	O2	Ed. Lead. Students
R	O3		O4	Other SOE
R		X	O5	Ed. Lead. Students
R			O6	Other SOE
R			O7	Other Regent

R = Random selection/assignment
O = Observations based on SLLA
X = Treatment of Ed. Lead. program

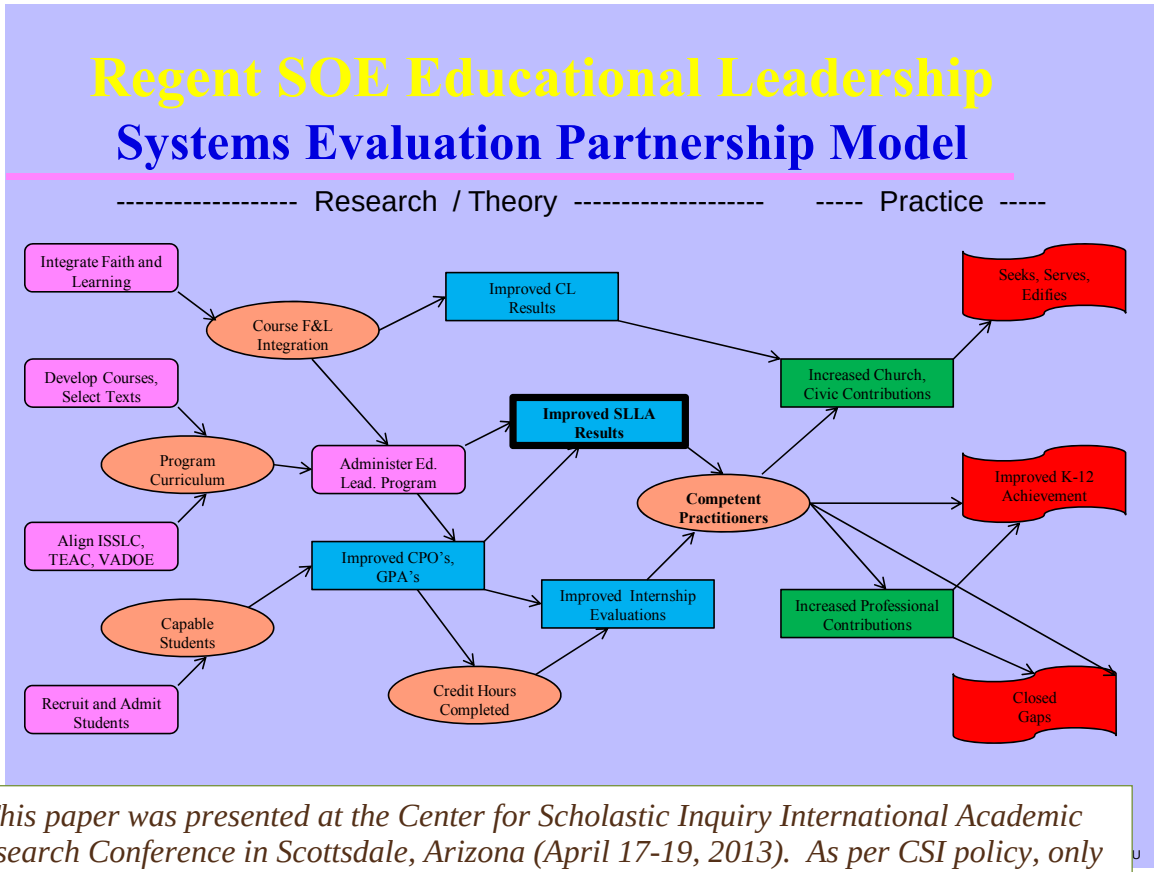
Some expected results: O2 > O1, O2 > O4, O5 > O6, and O5 > O7.

Figure 2. The Solomon Four-Group design with an additional group and a partial random assignment that applies only to Ed. Lead. and Other SOE students in respect to their participation in either the pretest-posttest group or the posttest only group.

Instrumentation

The SLLA is the instrument selected as the dependent variable for this study because it is used as a measure to determine if "entry-level educational leaders have the knowledge necessary for their professional practice" (Educational Testing Service, 2012a, p. 1). The SLLA examination provides an objective third party measure of an essential outcome indicator for the program. As previously indicated, it represents a reasonable proxy or indicator for competent leadership practice, a proposed major step toward the autoptic preference (Anderson and Twining, 1998), or the direct evidence for the ultimate outcome, of enhanced K-12 student learning. There was a need for an assessment vehicle to drive a first effort to measure the value-added element attributable to the educational leadership program.

In our previously developed SEP model (Figure 3), the SLLA was revealed as a good candidate for such a vehicle. The general SEP model focuses on the theory/practice interface with attention to the connection of various components of a program and its outcomes. In the model, the SLLA is *low-hanging fruit* because all program graduates need a passing score for administrative position licensing, a target for the vast majority of our students.



Figur …n Educational Leadership program. Adapted from Urban and Trochim, 2009.

Building a trusting relationship— Appreciating the linguistic and cultural influence of three Hispanic families on school learning

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Abstract

There is limited research concerning bilingual classroom teachers who conduct household visits of non-English speaking Hispanic families. The author and teacher explored (a) ways that three Hispanic families were involved with their children's school to promote mathematics and language literacy learning and communication; and (b) how these Hispanic parents viewed themselves as critical partners in their child's literacy learning. Findings from four months of household visits involving interviews, observations, and analysis of student schoolwork indicated the parents hoped for a home-school partnership based on mutual respect and trust; parents desired that their child's family and cultural experiences be incorporated in classroom learning; older siblings often served as language brokers between their non-English speaking parents and younger siblings during at home learning; and parents and children often code-switched when communicating with each other during at-home learning and in making sense of school correspondence. Based on data collected during household visits, this paper provides recommendations for improving home-school partnerships with Hispanic immigrants.

Key words: Hispanic cultural knowledge, literacy practices, code switching

Introduction

> In reality, most immigrant parents care intensely, but many misunderstand what is expected of parents in U.S. schools or do not know how to become involved (Sobel & Kugler, 2007, p. 63).

Increasingly, significant numbers of linguistically diverse families are migrating to the United States; and their children are entering schools across the country with the hope of acquiring competency in the English language while gaining access to relevant academic experiences (Garcia & Jensen, 2007; Osterling, Violand-Sanchez, & von Vacano, 1999; Rolon, 2002/2003). Yopp and Stapleton (2008) suggest, "Educators face an unprecedented challenge as English Language Learners in public pre-kindergarten through 12th grade schools number more than 5 million, or 10.1% of the total enrollment" (p. 374). These numbers are up nearly 100 percent from a decade earlier (Short & Echevarria, 2004/2005). Mays (2008) reiterated an alarming trend, "As the minority population in the United States continues to grow, the rapidly increasing epidemic of students left behind is one of grave concern for early childhood educators nationwide" (p. 415). With the dramatic increase in Hispanic students with limited or no English language skills, teachers must address a fundamental issue, which is establishing a relationship with parents in an effort to promote literacy learning amongst their children (Bazron, Osher, & Fleischman, 2005; Fitzgerald, 1993).

Hispanic immigrant parents new to the United States with limited or no English language fluency greatly appreciate the opportunity to establish a respectful, trusting relationship with their child's school and classroom teacher in which each other's perspectives of education and strengths are valued (Gonzalez, & Huerta-Macias, 1997). Unable to find the appropriate medium for interaction, parents and classroom teachers often feel "disconnected" and thus unable to capitalize on each other's cultural knowledge, skills and experiences as partners in facilitating student learning (Allen, 2008). Certainly as parents and teachers work together, opportunities grow for stakeholders to grow comfortable with one other while openly talking with each other about ways to support their child's literacy activities at home (Risko, & Walker-Dalhouse, 2009). In studies with children of Mexican culture, Rothstein-Fisch, Greenfield, and Elise-Trumbell (1999) noted, "When teachers understand and respect the collectivistic values of immigrant Latino children, the opportunities for culturally informed learning becomes limitless" (p. 66).

In research with four Mexican immigrant students within the context of their homes and families, Commins (1989) noted parental involvement was often more affected by the parent's limited English language proficiency versus a work consideration; in turn, the school's practice of sending information home only in the English language led to parents feeling ignored and distant from any connection with the school. Immigrant parents do value education; however, they are often unable to participate in school functions or volunteer in their child's classroom due to long or irregular work hours; a fear of formal communication in the English language; unable to afford child or public transportation; or are confused about educational practices that contrast with prior learning (Gorski, 2008; Lindeman, 2001; Sobel & Kugler, 2007). Lundgren and Morrison (2003) cited several reasons to explain the lack of parental participation with their child's school such as prior negative experiences that bordered on racial or linguistic discrimination; the absence of an equal partnership with the school; their own limited education; or the lack of information about school policies. In many instances, while immigrant parents do care about their child's school learning they choose not to because they are simply unaware of what is expected of them, or from their own cultural upbringing have learned that to question a teacher's instructional ways is to show disrespect (Sobel, & Kugler, 2007). Ochoa and Rhodes (2005) suggested, "Many ELL parents have endured the educational and emotional hardship that often accompanies limited English proficiency and earnestly desire their children to learn English as rapidly as possible" (p. 86). Similarly, Becker (2001) stated, "If parents do not know how their child's school functions, what options they have, what the expectations are for their children and for themselves, it will be more difficult for them to participate in their child's education, let alone support it" (p. 172).

Lindeman (2001) noted that nonnative parents, with children in US schools, may feel confused, troubled, and uncertain in attempting to respond to educational practices different from their own cultural upbringing.

However, educators can choose to experiment with innovative ways to acknowledge the rich, cultural diversity and strengths that their students of immigrant families bring to the classroom (Lindeman, 2001), while reexamining traditional instructional practices (Garcia, 1999; Howe, 1994). Classroom teachers can explore different opportunities to build deeper relationships with parents, such as making household visits; assisting students with an out-of-school photography project; or exchanging a home-school reading journal. These opportunities engage parental involvement while sharing and understanding cultural differences as the springboard for addressing the critical social responsibility of meeting the unique learning needs of each student (Allen, 2008). From research of school-family-community relationships, Sanders (1996) stipulated, "Partnerships can enhance students' learning and the ability of families to assist in that learning" (p. 61). Consequently, as classroom teachers explore ways to develop a home-school partnership with Hispanic parents, there must be a better knowledge of the unspoken reasons that Hispanic parents do not participate in school functions (Flood, Lapp, Tinajero, & Nagel, 1995).

In recognition of the immense growth of the Latino community within public schools across the United States, classroom teachers must make the effort to discover more of their student's cultural background, primary language and family literacy experiences thus validating the voices of all students and the construction of classroom learning (Ben-Yosef, 2003; Rolon, 2002/2003). Likewise, teachers and parents who share knowledge of literacy activities such as home-response journals or reading experiences that occur at home and in the classroom can benefit the child's reading acquisition and allow parents the chance to express their own beliefs, strategies, and insights about literacy learning at home (Darling, 2005; Fisher, 2001; Koskinen & Shockley, 1994). Classroom teachers will gain an important lens through which schools view the contextual setting that underlies the student's literacy learning at home. By working together, school and home knowledge become complementary serving a framework for helping raise student achievement (McIntyre, Kyle, Moore, Sweazy, & Greer, 2001).

Consequently, the purpose of this ethnographic research study was to establish a level of "confianza" meaning mutual trust with three Hispanic families via household visits over a period of four months with the aim of discovering how the family's cultural and linguistic knowledge, skills and experiences contribute to their child's out-of-school literacy learning (Allen, 2008). By interacting directly with this group of Hispanic families within their homes, an appreciable understanding of their feelings of alienation or disconnect between them and the school was acknowledged providing new insights of culturally diverse families to make literacy more culturally relevant (Flood, Lapp, & Ranck-Buhr, 1995). By being part of their everyday lives—their social setting; talking with family members in their native language; and making meaningful connections with these Hispanic families, the researcher learned their frame of reference. By documenting and identifying emerging themes during the household visits, it provided understanding in the ways in which these Hispanic families interacted with their children's school to facilitate literacy learning and communication; viewing themselves as partners in their children's literacy learning (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995).

Review of Literature

Teacher: Source of Knowledge

Minority parents view education as a means for their children to remove themselves from the grasp of migrancy and ultimately to be successful in their local community and society; thus, minority parents view homework as a means to improve their children's education and show respect for the teacher's knowledge (Diaz, Trotter, & Rivera, 1989). In studies of 234 low-income parents rating the importance of helping their children with academic work, such as literacy, Drummond and Stipek (2004) indicated that Latino parents viewed their role as assisting in their children's academic learning, especially at the younger ages and ensuring that their children had good relationships with others. Pena (2000) stipulated some Mexican parents restrict their involvement with their children's education to assisting with their children's homework or transporting their children to school functions and delegating to the school the responsibility for their children's education. Due to differences in income or cultural values, some Latino families may be afraid to ask questions of the classroom teacher. In cases where their children have a problem at school, the family may blame themselves instead of looking at school practices as the source of the problem (Lundgren & Morrison, 2003). Drummond and Stipek

(2004) indicated that some Latino parents viewed their role as one of supporting the classroom teacher versus suggesting ideas or collaborating with the teacher as part of their children's academic learning; and some Latino families emphasized their children's moral upbringing as the basis for other learning. Conversely, Saenz and Felix (2007) indicated that Spanish-speaking Latino parents carried the traditional view that teachers guided their children's literacy growth; however, Latino parents, with higher levels of education and English language fluency, assumed a greater role in their children's literacy instruction.

Perceived role differentiation between teacher and parent. Despite efforts to gain parental involvement of minority families, there are still differences in perspectives between educators and families about school participation (Waldbart, Meyers, & Meyers, 2006). Teachers may unknowingly associate nonparticipation in traditional school literacy activities as non-supportive of their children's literacy skill development; when in fact, such parents were deeply involved and influential in teaching their children; and the parents demonstrated an awareness of their children's academic weaknesses (Manyak, 2007; Peterson & Heywood, 2007; Waldbart et al., 2006). It was also perceived, when immigrant parents or parents of low socio-economic status, did not take part in established school programs and events, teachers and school administrators concluded it was because these families did not care (Pena, 2000; Peterson & Heywood, 2007; Sobel & Kugler, 2007). Sobel and Kugler (2007) emphasized that immigrant parents care a great deal about their children's education; however, many misunderstand what is expected of parents in U.S. schools or do not know how to get involved. A related assumption on the differences in viewpoint between schools and families is that the minority families' native language and culture cannot contribute to their child's literacy development in English. However, teachers and principals can show a genuine concern for the language and cultural skills that minority-language students bring to school (Peterson & Heywood, 2007). Barillas (2000) also noted that many U.S. teachers presumed an immigrant parent's inability to speak English precluded helping his/her children with homework and interfered with the pace at which his/her child acquired the English language. The continuance of this daily reality affected the second language learners' success in academic and English language acquisition (Garcia & Jensen, 2007; Goldenberg, 1992/1993). In research focused on the cultural context of out-of school learning of Hispanic children, Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez (1992) noted that children in Mexican households were actively engaged with household chores; using what they knew of the English language to mediate between their parents and local community businesses or schools; and using familiar cultural contexts to take part in activities with people they trusted. For example, in research of a Mexican community in northern California, Manyak (2007) discovered that families regularly combined their language skills in Spanish and English when visiting doctor's offices or interpreting tax and immigration documents.

Connecting literacy and learning to Hispanic culture. McCarthey (2000) indicated that teachers were not aware of the cultural differences in literacy practices between parents and school; and such differences in the teaching of children served as barriers to communication and academic learning. Classroom teachers at times perceived differences in the behavior of a culturally, diverse student as disruptive to traditional classroom practices. Additionally, teachers may not realize that minority learners may have previously been assigned to low performance groups where rote memorization learning activities were emphasized and a systemic learning environment that reinforced their inability to attain academic success (De La Luz Reyes & Molner, 1991). Furthermore, the classroom teacher may not fully grasp how the need for migrant families to constantly relocate in order to find employment and the migrant students' challenge to learn English as a second language reduces their probability for academic success. In recognition of migrant students' transition to many schools or efforts in learning a second language, teachers need to find different ways to incorporate the voices of these families (Whittaker, Salend, & Gutierrez, 1997).

Apart from the abrupt relocation to another community due to the availability of jobs and daily challenges in acquiring a second language, minority students were often confronted with school curriculums that failed to portray the migrant families' experiences and struggles (Whitaker, Salend, & Gutierrez, 1997). Garcia and Jensen (2007) reported that schools, developing curriculums and programs, frequently do not realize that Hispanic children speak a language other than English; must learn to use the English language and an academic vocabulary to succeed in content areas; or bring to school both cultural and linguistic skills essential for understanding academic concepts. Generally speaking, the nature of literacy instruction that is usually provided

for low socioeconomic and ethnic minority students is more apt to involve rote learning versus collaborative learning experiences in which spontaneous discussions are used as a vehicle for literacy learning (Zecker, Pappas, & Cohen, 1998). In their research regarding the effect of incorporating the student's native language and cultural knowledge in the classroom, Jimenez (2001) stipulated that traditional school assumptions of instructional methods and literacy practices of Latina/o students are often inadvertently alienating. Often, classroom norms fail to recognize the potential value of ELL students utilizing a bilingual literacy skills approach to learn the curriculum. Within many school systems, there is a prevailing notion that if Latinos stopped using their native language and adopted the English language they would ultimately succeed in school and later in life. In some instances there may be a subtle, pervasive racism that influences classroom teachers to deliberately exclude linguistically and culturally diverse students from using their primary language to develop English language proficiency (Bartlett & Brayboy, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1999; Rolon, 2002/2003). In addressing the adverse effects of a "one size fits all" literacy policy, Koskinen and Shockley (1994) stated, "Schools often unintentionally deny families access to school literacy by their rigid adherence to packaged programs such as basals" (p. 500). In view of the concern for the dominance or oppression of one cultural group over another, Mays (2008) strongly urged educators to capitalize on their ELL students' primary and academic Discourses as one strategy for promoting equity in school learning and thus narrowing the achievement gap.

To reiterate the point concerning the home-school connection, teachers may not be thoroughly trained on establishing parental involvement or the additional time required apart from the daily teaching responsibilities may preclude meaningful contact with parents. In those instances when parents do not speak English or have limited education, it may be much easier to conclude that parents would not be able to help their children with schoolwork (Pena, 2000). Commins (1989) noted, "From the school's point of view, the parent's lack of English hindered them in helping their children academically" (p. 32). Epstein and Dauber (1991) stated, "When teachers differ culturally and educationally from their students or when they teach greater numbers of students, they are less likely to know the students' parents and therefore more likely to believe that parents are disinterested or uninvolved" (p. 298).

Drawing on a five-month qualitative research study, involving interviews and observations in four school districts with large student populations of migrant students, Lopez, Scribner, and Mahitivanichcha (2001) examined several effective parental involvement programs with the aim of identifying successful strategies and practices for implementation at other schools. Using a semi-structured interview protocol encompassing 12 group interviews and 5 individual interviews, the researchers reached several important findings. These findings reflected investments in building a home-school connection such as recognizing the family's social, economic, and physical needs; gaining an insider perspective with the migrant experience; showing a sincere commitment to migrant families and their needs; and creating relationships based on trust and communication.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct an in-depth study of three Hispanic families to understand the manner in which cultural knowledge, prior experiences, and frames of reference were critical resources in at-home literacy learning, and how family school dialogue could enrich the relevance of at-school learning (Allen, 2008; Bazron, Osher, & Fleischman, 2005; Ben-Yosef, 2003; Civil, 2008; Diez-Palomar, Simic, & Varley, 2007). Gonzalez, Andrade, Civil, and Moll (2001) stated that classroom teachers can learn of the student's daily life experiences and skills, referred to as the funds of knowledge, through frequent visits to their student's household[illegible]w immigra[illegible]. The

Culturally Responsive Transition Practices: Beyond the Post Secondary Education Opportunity Gap for Students from Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD) Backgrounds

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Abstract

Providing transition services and adequate planning for students with disabilities has become of critical importance. Connecting these students' needs with specific but measurable goals listed in the Individual Education Plan (IEP) has become equally important. However, an additional important component of the IEP includes transition goals, often culminating into a single transition plan. The transition goals typically relate to each student's unique needs, driven by their level of functioning and performance and any other related services under the Individual With Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA, 2004). However, at issue is the type of instruction and pedagogy used to create the transition goals that inform the transition plan and that lead to positive post high school goals such as college, post secondary vocational or professional school training for students. More so important here, is the development of culturally appropriate transition goals that can lead to a successful college or professional school experience for students who come from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds. The transition plans should increase the students' opportunity to learn, by including personal goals and culturally responsive family collaboration, beyond the students' disability, which is crucial at increasing the opportunity gap for all students with special needs, particularly those CLD students who come from low income and at-risk school communities. The post college transition access gap can be addressed through: (1) culturally responsive mentoring, (2) building social and cultural capital for CLD students and, (3) strengthening family and school collaboration.

Key Words: *Culturally Responsive Mentoring, Culturally and Linguistically Diverse, At-risk, Family Collaboration*

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Research Problem

(Ferri & Connor, 2005; Harry, 1992; Klingner, Blanchett, & Harry, 2007; Sleeter, 1987). More so important is this praxis for students who come from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds. African American males have become commonly overrepresented in special education. At issue is also the high number of identified special education African American male students who drop out of high school altogether, but those that do graduate are often already two to three years behind their general education peers and on a pipe-line to juvenile delinquency (Hogan, Bullock & Fritsch, 2010). The researcher argues that culturally responsive transition practices embedded with effective and culturally competent family collaboration will increase high school and post secondary transition outcomes for African American males and other (CLD) students.

Purpose of the Study

This paper is a descriptive analysis that will highlight the importance of culturally understanding the needs of (CLD) students' with an emphasis on African American males, who have identified learning and other disabilities served under IDEA and the roles of their classroom teacher. Next, this paper will examine the importance of culturally responsive teaching and pedagogy and it's relevance in the field of special education where the practice of teaching is often driven by learning goals, and not the students' unique needs beyond his or her disability. Lastly, this paper will offer recommendations for reaching beyond the disability category to make family collaboration and achievement work for the student with special needs who is at the nexus of instruction, delivery and design. Recommendations are offered for schools and teachers.

Methodology

This paper is a descriptive analysis that engages the critical literature around special education reform, teacher leadership, policy and practice, interwoven with culturally responsive teaching. The inquiry based perspective adopts a critical constructivist stance towards identifying restorative practices that can provide access to underserved students from CLD backgrounds with disabilities. Critical inquiry focused on problems can lead the researcher to deeper and richer exploration that has potential to uncover issues often overlooked by traditional empirical researchers (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2007).

This study adopts a social networking theoretical perspective to attempt to understand the nuances and issues that problematize special education in urban schools and the youths these schools serve. Through the nexus of social network theory and tied to social capital theoretical perspectives, the researcher can identify how students and schools can work together to approach more equitable and family centered practices that lead to more productive outcomes for CLD students with disabilities and who attend high-needs urban schools (Bourdieu & Colman, 1991; Granovetter, 1975; Lareau & Horvat, 1999; Horvat, Weininger & Lareau, 2003).

Recommendations & Implications for Public Schools

Given the nexus of issues that result in delayed school outcomes, poor performance and cultural misunderstandings of (CLD) students and the home, there is a need for public schools and teacher training colleges and universities to adopt a framework that supports teaching beyond the disability. This framework adopts pedagogy and practices that look at the student and his or her community and family and re-positions instruction, transition plans and services by taking them into account with the needs of the 'whole' student (Hughes, Valle-Riestra, &Arguelles, 2002; Lo, 2010; Salas, 2004; Williams, 2012). Students from linguistically diverse backgrounds, low SES and high needs urban school students, and all who possess disabilities will benefit from the inclusion of CRT coupled with the IEP. The researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. Engage in site-based, school, and teacher leadership critical reflection that explores ones own attitudes and perceptions concerning cultural and linguistic diversity, and the influence of these attitudes and perceptions on students with special needs and others who come from (CLD) backgrounds across all school programs.

2. Acquire accurate information about (CLD) groups and their families (e.g., histories, cultural styles, values. customs and traditions, child rearing practices, etc.) and group identity development and how this impacts adolescent students with disabilities and their outcomes using culturally responsive transition practices to plan for beyond post-secondary education.

3. Participate in formal and ongoing multicultural professional development in order to maximize an understanding of (CLD) students and develop skills that can address the academic, cognitive, social, psychological, and cultural needs of (CLD) students;

4. Participate in professional development that allows a special focus on the complex issues that serve as obstacles for specific high needs diverse groups, such as African American and Latino/Hispanic males' experiences across achievement and opportunity gaps in special education.

5. Examine the framework used to address family collaboration and the roles of practitioners, paraprofessionals, administrators and others so as to create a learning community for families and caretakers of (CLD) students that extends beyond the boundaries of the IEP and Quarterly Progress Notes.

Summary & Conclusions

Since its development, special education has failed to adequately provide access and services for students who are culturally and linguistically diverse, African American, Hispanic/ Latino, and American Indian students have always been either overrepresented in special education or not making AYP according the State demographic NCLB school district reports. The researcher believes that the problem is complex, but not insoluble and can best be addressed through CRT. Special educators and school leaders must be on the front line to make the paradigmatic shift in thinking about how we teach students with disabilities, those who possess disabilities and who are from (CLD) backgrounds and how we as practitioners collaborate with (CLD) families. Educators and schools must become proactive in eliminating all barriers that limit thinking beyond the disability and family collaboration and work to invent and create new and innovative ways to address some of the issues highlighted in this paper. Attitudinal changes are essential, as are changes in teaching and family collaboration that inform best practices and policies.

Adequate teacher preparation in and sensitivity to the characteristics of special needs students who come from (CLD) backgrounds will further support these students' success and overall outcomes within and outside of the limited framework of IDEA. Additionally, CRT, coupled with appropriate RTI and early non-biased evaluation procedures further support educators' competency at making fair and equitable referrals and decisions. All educators—teachers, school counselors, and administrators—should seriously and honestly examine their respective school context to make conscious changes, and seek the preparation and knowledge necessary to work with special needs students, CLD students, and gifted CLD students. The time to open the doors of CRT for 'all' students and their families is long overdue.

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Examining Variables of a Quality Education

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Biography: A senior Fulbright professor, Dr. Joanna S. Mann has enjoyed a 25 year career in higher education, with more than 15 of those years serving in administration. She has lectured at senior universities across the nation and abroad. She is the recipient of numerous professional honors and awards. Dr. Mann holds a baccalaureate degree in English from Jackson State University, a Master's degree in Library Science and a Master's degree in English, both from Atlanta University. She also holds a terminal degree in English from the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor.

Abstract: There are variables that need to be evaluated in order to have a scientific reproducible result to measure a quality education. One must examine the home environment, the student, the classroom, and the instructor. In examining historical data, soliciting informal student feedback, and documenting personal observations, I have determined that all of the aforementioned variables are required in order for a student to receive the maximum education. My presentation will address this hypothesis and detail the results that I have discovered.

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What is the impact of students' ability to choose across and within course modality (OL or FTF) on course completions?

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BA Psychology Cal-State University East Bay 1973, MA Education and Human Development The George Washington University, PhD Educational Leadership, E-Learning LeadershipTUI University. Coordinator of Online Instruction and Associate Professor of Business and Education from 2008 to present. Department Chair Administrative Management from 2002 to 2008. Assistant Professor Business from 1995 to 2002. Research interests include distance education and student perceptions. Previous twenty years of experience in small and intermediate size business with positions in Sales, Sales Management, and as General Manager/VP.

Abstract

Current literature review revealed that students learned as well in both teaching modalities (OL and FTF) (Finlay, 2004; Joy, 2000; Twigg, 2005; Vamosi, 2004). Along with those studies, findings on dropout rates from online courses were significantly higher than from the traditional FTF learning modality (Dutton, 2002; Phipps, 1999). Persistence (dropouts) as defined by course completion has been acknowledged to be common problem associated with online instruction (Dutton, 2002; Noble, 1998). The research question that guided this study was: What is the impact of students' ability to choose across and within course modality (OL or FTF) on course completions? The participants were college students who attended an accredited private college offering associate, baccalaureate, and graduate degrees in the western United States. The research variables included student choice of modality (either OL or FTF), the covariate was students' GPA. Data were collected from institutional records and analyzed through descriptive statistics and multiple regression analyses. The findings revealed that student choice of modality affected FTF course drops. The IV choice of modality had significant relationship to course completions, which indicated that choice of modality decreases the chance of completing courses. These findings support institutional decisions in helping students with course modality selection and in developing policies and procedures that may lead to increased retention, student performance, and student satisfaction.

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The Impact of Sensemaking and Socialization on the Retention of Novice Teachers

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Abstract

Teacher attrition is costly for districts, both financially and in terms of student achievement. Districts often address teacher attrition by focusing on induction programs or mentors for novice teachers. However, new teachers continue to leave the profession at alarming rates.

This qualitative case study provides insight into how new teachers cope with the frustrations of entry-level teaching. Based on interview data, the study examines the experiences of twelve novice teachers from urban secondary schools in three states. The study focuses on new teacher perceptions developed prior to entry, frustrations they experienced, how they made sense of what was happening, and how they adapted in response to what they experienced.

Viewed within a theoretical framework developed by Meryl Louis for examining the newcomer experience, the data suggest that traditional group approaches to supporting novices fail to address the highly individual way in which newcomers "make sense" of teaching. The study indicates "stayers" are those who think about teaching in practical rather than idealistic ways, those who demonstrate the ability to be analytical and dynamic rather than static, those who acquire some form of insider support, and those who experience a sense of empowerment and efficacy.

A better understanding of how novice teachers assign meaning to frustrations they encounter (and the relationship between this and their decision to stay in teaching or leave the profession) could be used in designing support systems for new teachers, including orientation programs, mentoring approaches, professional development, and other strategies for dealing with new hires.

Introduction

Teacher attrition is a subject of concern nationwide. Thirty percent of those entering the teaching profession leave the classroom within three years, and between 40 and 50 percent leave before the end of five years ((Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; *Tapping the potential: Retaining and developing high-quality new teachers*, 2004). Teacher attrition is costly, both financially and in terms of student achievement (Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005; *Tapping the potential: Retaining and developing high-quality new teachers*, 2004). School administrators need effective approaches for supporting and retaining teachers (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003), who often report isolation and inadequate support as reasons for their disillusionment with the profession (Brock & Grady, 2007; Rogers & Babinski, 2002).

Data collected through a qualitative study involving twelve novice teachers employed in urban districts in Texas, Louisiana, and Arizona may be of some value. The experiences of the teachers in the study are

presented in a series of patterns or themes based on (1) their prior expectations about teaching, (2) the aspects of teaching they found most surprising and frustrating, and (3) the ways in which they rationalized and dealt with those frustrations and the people who assisted with this process. Embedded within their experiences are clues about why some teachers stay in the profession and why others choose to leave, critical information for a profession currently suffering from a growing student population and a shrinking teacher workforce.

While previous studies have centered on the reasons for leaving cited by teachers who have left the profession, none have considered the proposition that new teachers are more apt to continue in the profession if they are able to make sense of the frustrations they encounter in specific ways. The intent of this study was to examine how twelve new teachers in urban secondary schools made sense of the frustrations of entry-level teaching and the impact of that sensemaking on their decisions to leave teaching or remain in the profession.

Traditional approaches to new teacher support include mentoring, orientation and induction programs, peer assistance programs, and school/university partnerships. Most of these approaches are provided in a uniform, systematic way for all new employees, and most occur during the first year only. Much research has been devoted to the reasons given by teachers for leaving the profession. However, a better understanding of how individual newcomers in the profession assign meaning to events, conflicts and frustrations they encounter, and the relationship between this and their decision to stay in teaching or leave the profession, could be used by districts in recruiting methods, orientation programs, mentoring approaches, professional development, and in ongoing peer and administrative support to new hires.

According to Louis (1980), such an understanding could lead to "designing organizational structures that facilitate newcomer transitions" (p. 239). Since little research has been done to provide this, documenting the sensemaking strategies of a group of novice teachers as they progress through a year of teaching contributes to that understanding and could facilitate the creation of a model for supporting and retaining new teachers.

Background

The need to support and retain new teachers is supported by the literature. According to Ingersoll & Smith (2003), between 40 and 50 percent of those entering the teaching profession leave the classroom before the end of five years. A report from the Alliance for Excellent Education indicates that the level of new teacher attrition is highest in economically disadvantaged areas and is more acute in inner city and remote rural schools than in suburban districts (*Tapping the potential: Retaining and developing high quality new teachers*, 2004). In schools in high-poverty areas, the rate of teacher attrition is as much as 50% higher than in affluent school districts (Ingersoll, 2001).

The teacher shortage created by new teacher attrition impacts states in critical ways. First, staffing all classrooms with highly qualified teachers is difficult if not impossible for school districts with high turnover rates. Secondly, teacher attrition is expensive (Carroll, 2007). Nationwide, the cost of teachers leaving the profession is estimated at $4.9 billion (*Tapping the potential: Retaining and developing high quality new teachers*, 2004; Carroll, 2007). Moreover, student achievement is negatively impacted by high teacher attrition. Experienced teachers (having taught more than five years in the classroom) have a greater impact on student achievement than those with less than five years experience (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Stronge & Tucker, 2000). Across the nation, student achievement is lower in schools with a high percent of teacher turnover (Murname & Phillips, 1981). Finally, teacher attrition contributes to an existing critical teacher shortage.

One approach to countering this trend is through socialization. Riordan, Self, Vandenberg, and Weatherly (2001) found a positive correlation between investiture socialization practices and enhanced employee job satisfaction. Greenhaus (1999) defines socialization as the process through which "the organization teaches the newcomer the skills of the new job and the norms and values or organizational culture that guide behavior and enhance the newcomer's performance" (p. 315). He contends that increased socialization strategies have a positive correlation with improved attitudinal outcomes among new employees. This has implications for new teacher support systems. However, most traditional approaches are standardized

for all new employees, while the individual nature of the concerns among new teachers, as identified by Veenman (1984) and Johnson (2004), suggest that a one-size-fits-all approach is ineffective.

A framework for examining the experience of newcomers within any organization has been developed by Meryl Reis Louis (1980), and it is within this framework that this research study is positioned. Louis (1980) proposes that new employees are frustrated when they have unrealistic or unmet expectations about their teaching assignment. She identifies a series of stages through which newcomers pass, including *anticipatory socialization* (when the employee has not yet joined the organization but is developing notions about what he will experience in the new role), the *encounter* stage (when the newcomer begins to learn the culture and processes of the organization), and the *adaptation* stage (when the individual begins to feel a part of the organization and is considered an insider). These closely align to stages identified by Fuller (1969).

Louis (1980) says the newcomer in the organization encounters three distinct experiences as he moves through the various stages. The first is change, as he adjusts to new surroundings, new equipment, new requirements, and a new hierarchy of authority. The second is contrast, as he finds himself in situations that are different from his expectations or that are different from his previous experiences. The third is surprise, which can occur when conscious expectations about the job are unfulfilled or when the employee's expectations about his ability to do the job successfully are unrealized (Louis, 1980).

Louis (1980) proposes that it is because of the *surprise* element that newcomers engage in "sensemaking," which she explains in this way. Much of the time, individuals operate in patterns of behavior that are automatic or scripted. However, when an individual encounters something that is in contrast with the script, the individual attempts to assign meaning to the surprise, based on past experiences, personal characteristics, or cultural assumptions (Louis, 1980). This process of assigning meaning is called sensemaking. According to Weick (1995), this sensemaking is an inherent part of entry into any new environment, and it is through an understanding of how novices make sense of the new environment that organizations can build structures to support and retain employees.

Methodology

Data Collection

For this study, the researcher utilized a qualitative case study approach (Merriam, 1998). Data were collected through observations, field notes, document review and interviews. Semi-structured interviews using a set of pre-established questions (Guba and Lincoln, 1981) centered around factors frequently associated with teacher attrition, including the teacher's expectations about teaching along with perceptions of support provided by administrators, the level and type of support provided by peers, student behavior, the academic achievement of students, self-efficacy, and professional development/educator preparation. The interviews were taped, transcribed, and coded for recurring themes. Classroom observations provided additional insight into the teaching experience of participants. The observations were documented through field notes and later coded for recurring themes and subthemes.

Data Sources and Context

Studies indicate that the typical teacher leaver is female, under 30 years of age, and teaching in a secondary school in a central city or urban district (Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, & Morton, 2007). The percent of teacher attrition is higher in the southern and western states. While teacher attrition among teachers of color is not significantly different from the population of new teachers as a whole, the number of teachers of color recruited into the profession is extremely low compared to the population as a whole. This makes attrition within this population of great concern.

Similarly, while attrition of female teachers is slightly higher than that for males, males are significantly underrepresented in the teaching force compared to the general population. For this study, data were collected from a group of twelve full-time novice public school secondary teachers from three urban school districts in Texas, Arizona, and Louisiana. Urban schools are defined as the largest districts located in urban areas (counties of 650,000 or more) and serving student populations with high rates of poverty and high proportions of stud males and seven t

THE PRODUCTION OF FINAL /s/ IN ENGLISH WORDS BY THAI SPEAKERS WITH DIFFERENT ENGLISH-LANGUAGE EXPERIENCES AT AN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE

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This research paper aims at studying the production of final /s/ in English words in English context by Thai speakers at with different English-language experiences an international college. The subjects are 40 participants at Burapha University International College (BUUIC) that will be selected from 400 Thai speakers. The selected group will be divided into 2 groups. Half of the subjects are the speakers with high English-experience and the rest are subjects with low English-language experience. The subjects will read 30 test items appearing in an English passage of connected speech.

The hypothesis of this research is that the subjects with low English-language experience will have more L1 transfer effect than those with high English-language experience. Their pronunciation of the variables will be closer to the Thai pronunciation. The subjects with high English-language experience will have less L1 transfer effect. Their pronunciation will be closer to the English pronunciation.

The analysis will show the different variants of the final /s/. The findings will also reveal a relationship between the variation of the linguistic variables and the social variables.

The result will help English teachers predict the variants of the Thai speakers' final /s/ production and help them correct the pronunciation. The relevant research findings will contribute to the empirical knowledge and problem solving techniques for better understanding in the field of English education.

Key Words: final cluster, sound production, English-language experiences, pronunciation, interlanguage

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