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Metro Atlanta Housing Industry Recovery, 2010-2013: A Temporary Perturbation or Long-term Trend?

Ebenezer Aka
Morehouse College
Introduction
The sudden perky U.S economy in 2013 seemed to convince many Americans that the era of national nightmare on the economy was over. The year 2013 seemed to be year of economic recovery, as the national economy did much better after entering a recession in 2008 and a depression in 2009. In fact, 2009 was also the height of global economic trauma and financial panic, with the attendant implosion of Western financial markets and their weak recovery afterward. The economy suddenly looks perky in 2013, as the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew by 3.6% in the first quarter and 4.1% in the third quarter; better than economists expected (CNN, 12/20/13).

Recently, all the trends have been in the right direction. For example, the national GDP grew by 3% in September 2013 higher than 2.5% in the same period in 2012. In 2013, the GDP expanded at an annual rate of 2.6% (U.S Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2013). From 2008 (the inception of national recession) to 2013, the national economy had steadily expanded as exemplified by the overall GDP and per capita GDP. According to U.S Department of Commerce, 2013, the GDP increased from $13961.8 billion in 2008 to $15884.8 billion in 2013, while per capita GDP increased from $43,069.6 in 2009 to $43,063.4 in 2013. Likewise, the gross domestic products of State of Georgia and Metropolitan Atlanta expanded during the same period. For example, State of Georgia GDP increased from $404335 million in 2008 to $433569 million in 2012, while Metro Atlanta GDP increased from $274878 million to $294589 million (see Table 1).

As the national economy is improving over the years so also is the state personal income which in 2014 grew by 1.2% and overall earnings by 1%. In fact, earnings grew in every private-sector industry (Bureau of Economic Analysis, March 2014). Of course, as personal income improved so also the consumer confidence that jumped 9.3% in 2013. In February 2014, the percentage of Americans who favor current economic conditions was at highest level in 6 years (CNN/ORC International Poll, 2014).

One of the indices of consumer confidence is increase in home price as consumers resume once more scouting for home purchase. Thus, in 2013 housing price increased by 3.7% as sales rose. In December 2013, mortgage or purchase application edged up 1% and refinance increased by 2% (Business Insider, December 11, 2013). Consequently, there were fewer foreclosures nationwide as foreclosures hit bottom; and home construction rose 18%, the highest since 2007 (CBS News, Friday, January 17, 2014).

Purpose of Study
Currently many American consumers are seeing U.S economy-glass either half-full or half-empty. Is the rear-view mirror indicator showing U.S economy and housing industry picking up or slowing down? Thus, the question for this study is: is metro Atlanta housing industry recovery a temporary perturbation or a long-term trend?
The purpose of this paper is to analyze housing industry activities in metro Atlanta, Georgia from 2010 through 2013 to indicate probably whether the prevailing housing recovery is pointing toward a long-term trend or otherwise. Several metro Atlanta socio-economic variables should be analyzed for the study period such as: Gross domestic product (GDP), Employment Rate by County, Population by County, Annual Building Permits by County, and Annual Foreclosure Rates by County. The analysis should enable us support the theorization that sustained economic recovery is correlated to sustained housing industry recovery and vice versa. Suggestions and policy recommendations should be proffered for sustainable economy and housing industry in U.S and metro Atlanta.

The Study Area
The Study is focused on the 20-core Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties that include: BARROW, BARTOW, CARROL, CHROKEE, CLAYTON, COBB, COWETA, DEKALB, DOUGLAS, FAYETTE, FORSYTH, FULTON, GWINNETT, HALL, HENRY, NEWTON, PAULDING, ROCKDALE SPALDING, and WALTON. See also Map of the 20-County Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Area.

National Recovery Trends
U.S unemployment rate has fallen from its sharp increase in 2009, during the height of the recession, to a low level in 2013, lower than its European counterparts. Unemployment rate fell from 8.1% in 2012 to 7% in 2013 (Table 1), the lowest since 2008, which hit 5-year low; and not only government jobs but also private sector jobs were created, performing better than several economies in Western Europe (see also Tables 3, and 4 below). In European Union, unemployment rate was 10.9% in 2013 (Table 3); and among selected countries in Europe, unemployment rates were as high as 9.9% and 14.0% in Slovenia and Slovakia respectively, though as low as 3.3% in Norway (Table 4) (see also Eurostat, January 8, 2014; Reuters, January 8, 2014, 5:00am). Unemployment rate decreased in U.S from 7% in November 2013 to 6.7% in December 2013; in March and April 2014, unemployment rate was held at 6.7% after decreasing to 6.6% in January and February; and in May 2014, it decreased further to its lowest level of 6.3% (Bureau of Economic Analysis. U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014).

Millions of jobs had been created since 2010; and jobless claims are currently down and personal spending is rising. As consumer confidence and personal spending are rising, U.S stock prices are also rebounding. For example, nationally, 401-K savings are increasing and Retirement accounts hit a record $12.5 trillion in the first three months of 2013 (Paul Wiseman, et al, 2013). From 2010 to 2012 there had been 4.4 million net gains in jobs. In December 2013 alone, the economy added 203,000 jobs; and 2.9 million jobs were created overall in the year. The number of unemployed full time workers (work 35 hours or more per week) decreased from 10,155 thousands in November 2012 to 9,243 thousands in November 2013. The number of unemployed part-time workers
(work less than 35 hours per week) decrease from 1,810 thousands in November 2012 to 1,632 thousands in November 2013 (U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Over the year 2013, the number of unemployed persons and jobless rate were down by 1.2 million and 0.8% point, respectively.

In March 2014 a total of 192,000 jobs were added to the economy and in April 2014, a total of 288,000 jobs were also created. Thus, according to Associated Press (AP), 4/19/2014, the private sector has almost regained all the lost jobs before 2008 crisis. The employment increases were mainly in transportation, warehousing, healthcare, and manufacturing (U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Nationally, constructions earnings in 2013 had increased 1.4% from 2009 level. More than two-thirds of the states reported job gains in March 2014, as hiring had improved for much of the country during what had been sluggish but sustained four-and-half year recovery. As a matter of fact, unemployment rates fell in 21 U.S states in March, 2014 (Josh Boak, AP, 4/14/2014). No wonder the Federal Reserve Chair, Janet Yallen said recently that, the Fed’s current forecast projects that the economy could be recovered and full employment restored within a little more than two years (Deirdre Hughes, Ameritrade, 4/18/2014). By the Fed’s definition, “maximum employment,” means an unemployment rate between 5.2% and 5.6%.

Historically, U.S annual average inflation rates had been consistently low from 2000 to 2013, which had been aiding and fueling the national economic and housing recoveries (see Table 5). For example, in 2000 the average inflation rate was 3.4%, which peaked in 2008 during the inception of financial crisis to 3.8%, then came down as low as 1.5% in 2013. Home prices are currently rising so fast in some selected markets, which have prompted some Americans to ask whether we are headed for another bubble. For example, housing prices are going up quickly by over 17% in San Jose, Orange County, California; Honolulu, Hawaii; Austin, Texas; and Miami, Florida, among others (see Yahoo Finance, April 17, 2014). Nonetheless, it has been observed over the years that high price does not cause bubble more than unregulated financial market and individual greed for abnormal profits. Moreover, consumer protection (e.g. Frank-Dodd Wall Street Financial Reform Act of 2013) is currently in place to avoid another bubble.

Criticisms of the National Economic and Housing Industry Recoveries

• Some Americans are saying, “if this is recovery, please take me back to the operating room,” because:

• U.S recovery is not as strong as should be expected when it grew pathetically by 1.3% annual rate in 2nd Q-2012---weak economy.
• One America but two economies; in any way, the prevailing and increasing income inequality and poverty among individuals and families.
• Nothing to create jobs with living wages.
• The current low minimum wage of $7.25/hour is not enough.
• Even if minimum wage is raised, what kind of job opportunities? Today, jobs are highly mechanized and robots do most jobs.
• The current “barbell economy,” which is characterized by swelling employment at the bottom and top of income ladder, while the middle gets hollowed out. The blame has been on globalization for the decline of decent-paying middle-class jobs, since big companies have moved many manufacturing plants and other types of operations overseas, and automation that has come with the digital revolution, since computers and other machines can now do many of the jobs once performed by humans (Rick Newman, 2014).
• Many Americans are still out of jobs or still looking for jobs—currently about 10 million individuals.
• Europe can still derail U.S recovery or economy due to their continued financial crisis, weak recoveries and high unemployment rates (see Tables 3 and 4).
• For example, the effect of China’s economy (on world economy), which has slowed down considerably.
• U.S banks are not lending money to make money; companies have cash in the banks without investing and hiring.
• Banks are still too big to manage and too big to jail e.g. J.P. Morgan, Bank of America, etc.
• No more bail out of financial institutions—no push from Congress after 2013.
• The uneven nature of U.S housing recovery. Some states are doing far better than others.
• Rental rates on housing had become a crisis for many low-income Americans, which is slowing down housing recovery (Joint Center for Housing Studies, Harvard University, 2013).
• We are in the midst of the worst rental affordability crisis that this country has known (HUD Secretary, Shaun Donovan, Business Insider, December 2013).
• Since 2000, renter incomes have fallen almost every year, while rental costs have raised a significant strain on the ability of low-income Americans to afford rent (Business Insider, December 19, 2013).
• 50% of renters now have housing costs of at least 30% of their household income (Joint Center for Housing Studies, Harvard University, 2013). These costs have forced renters to cut back on other goods.
A recent criticism is the fact that a growing number of American homes are now obsolete. Housing obsolescence is a situation where properties are no longer desirable because their characteristics do not match what buyers are looking for in a home, according to Mark Fleming at CoreLogic (Mamta Badkar, Business Insider, May 23, 2014, 1:19 pm). The recent data on U.S housing recovery has shown some improvement but far from the strength economists had hoped to see. Home sales should have been stronger because of population growth, but that has not been the case, rather, prices have climbed faster because of tight inventory. According to Mark Fleming at CoreLogic, the lack of inventory is a key issue in this recovery cycle. He continued to say that, there were about 2.3
million existing homes for sale in April, 2014, but there were even fewer homes for sale that do not suffer from housing obsolescence.

Performance Variables in Atlanta Housing Industry Recovery

POPULATION
Atlanta is the largest city in the State of Georgia, and its 20-county urban metro region has grown to over 5.5 million people in 2013 (Atlanta Regional Commission, 2013) (see Table 6). Most growths are concentrated in the immediate 10-core counties (Cherokee, Clayton, Cobb, Dekalb, Douglas, Fayette, Fulton, Gwinnett, Henry, and Rockdale) and Forsyth County that has one of the highest growth rates in the country from 2010 to 2013 (10.51%). Most of the minorities (Blacks, Hispanics, and others) are concentrated more in the 10-core counties, especially in central city of Atlanta that is housed by Fulton County (Atlanta Regional Commission). The large population of Atlanta urban metropolitan counties had resulted in overbuilding, high unemployment rates and high foreclosure rates since 2008.

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP)
The gross domestic product (GDP) by metropolitan area is the sub-state component of the nation’s gross domestic product (GDP), which is the most comprehensive measure of U.S economic activity. Metro Atlanta GDP comprises of more than two-thirds (2/3) of State of Georgia GDP (see Table 1). The real Metro Atlanta GDP rebounded in 2010, mirroring the national and State of Georgia trends. The GDP increase was led by growth in durable-goods manufacturing, trade (wholesale and retail), and financial services. According to the data released by U.S Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis on September 17, 2013 (BEA 13-42), Atlanta metro area GDP ranked 10th among the nation’s 381 metropolitan areas in 2012.

EMPLOYMENT/UNEMPLOYMENT RATES
According to Table 7, since mid 2000 decade, the 10-core Atlanta Urban Counties had consistently been responsible for over 85% of total employment in Atlanta metropolitan region. The Table also shows that, total county employments had consistently declined from 2008 to 2010, especially in the 10-core counties, which are exemplified by their net changes. During the same period, total unemployment (the opposite side of the same coin) had also increased consistently in the counties. Most counties, especially the 10-core Atlanta urban counties, showed large negative net changes. Thus, the 10-core counties were the hardest hit by rate of unemployment. Nonetheless, since 2010, total employment has consistently increased in all the metro counties, mirroring the national and State of Georgia trends, and showing a remarkable recovery, especially in the 10-core counties. Of course, employment and unemployment rates, as indicators, have had both positive and negative effects on total building permits and foreclosure rates in the counties.

ANNUAL BUILDING PERMITS
Annual building permit rate is an indicator of the overall economic performance. In fact, if the construction rate goes up, so also the economic growth rate; and
vice versa. From Table 8, it is apparent that most counties had witnessed major increases in all units (both single and multi-family) in 2012, probably due to improved economic conditions in the nation, State of Georgia, and metro Atlanta counties. The Table further indicates that the 10-core counties saw increases in all units from 2010 to 2012, especially in 5-immediate core counties (Clayton, Cobb, Dekalb, Fulton, and Gwinnett) that showed major increases, due to major increases in population, employment, and large minority groups. Nonetheless, major increases in all units did not occur in Clayton, Henry, and Rockdale counties as in other 10-core counties during the same period, because these core counties either showed low net changes in population or employment (see Tables 6 and 7). The peripheral counties with lesser permits in 2010 through 2012 did not engage in multi-family construction due to low population increases and low number of minorities, except in Forsyth County with large population increases, as well as being coterminous with the 10-core Atlanta urban counties. The peripheral counties had also witnessed low foreclosure recovery in recent years.

FORECLOSURE FILINGS

Another indicator of overall economic performance, apart from GDP, employment and unemployment rates, and annual building permits, is the annual foreclosure filings. Table 9 shows that foreclosure filings had consistently decreased in metro Atlanta from 2010 to 2013, mirroring the national and State of Georgia trends, especially in the 10-core counties, but more especially in 5-immediate core counties (Fulton, Cobb, Dekalb, Fulton, and Gwinnett). The decrease witnessed by most counties was largely due to improved national, State, metropolitan economies, employment rates, and foreclosure mitigation factors meted at all levels of government. Foreclosure-drop, as expressed by the percent net change, had been consistent from 2012 to 2013 in all the counties (see Table 10). Total metro Atlanta County foreclosure filings as percent of total State of Georgia had consistently dropped from 2010 to 2013, and percent change had also consistently been higher during the same period. The peripheral or outlying counties had also consistently maintained their percent changes from 2010 to 2013, even more than the State of Georgia average.

Housing Recovery: A Temporary Perturbation or Permanent Trend in Atlanta Metro Counties?

The findings in this study should help us take the bold step in making a conclusive assumption that the recent housing industry recovery in Atlanta metropolitan area is just a temporary perturbation or that it is pointing toward a permanent trend. As a matter of fact, the study findings and discussions so far indicate that:

- The National, State of Georgia, and Metropolitan Atlanta rear-view indicators are consistently showing that the economy is picking up and that the national nightmare on U.S economy is almost over.
- Many Americans are beginning to see the housing industry recovery glass half-full rather than half-empty.
• U.S Economy is consistently improving, employment rate is low, more jobs are being created monthly, and inflation rate is historically low.
• According to The World Bank, the current European economic crisis and the slowdown of China’s economy are not likely to slow down U.S economic recovery, which GDP represents 25.3% of the world economy (The World Bank, 2013).
• Home prices and home values are improving in most states; home building is increasing; stock prices and retirement accounts are increasing; industries have started to hire once more; and consumer confidence is rising.
• State of Georgia and metropolitan Atlanta are mirroring the national trends in improved economic conditions, expectations, consumer confidence and housing industry recovery.
• National foreclosure and financial crisis mitigation policies and programs are currently in place, such as HARP (Home Affordable and Refinance Program) and Wall Street Financial Reform (Frank-Dodd Act).

Thus, confidently, the choice at this time is to boldly err on the side that: housing industry recovery in metro Atlanta is not a temporary perturbation but it is pointing toward a permanent trend.

Policy Recommendations and Conclusions
The recent financial crisis of the mid-2000 decade was the root cause of the prevailing mass unemployment, foreclosure crisis, and housing problems. It is recommended that all levels of government (national, state, and local) should, as a matter of policy, invest in infrastructure development and projects that should create the much needed jobs and incomes, in order to shelter individuals from future economic crisis. As a matter of fact, the aforementioned governments must act and the need is urgent. Infrastructure spending is the fastest way to create jobs, especially in the private sector. Therefore, the policy plan should be to incentive public-private relationship to create jobs and money.

According to Forbes, employment crisis and education crisis are two sides of the same coin. Employment crisis is a major national concern as job growth is not consistent with the increase in college graduates. Consequently, functional education to create the crucial skills (critical and creative) needed in today’s job world is very important (Forbes.com). Education to create technical, computer, critical thinking, and creative skills, as well as employment, should be dealt with at the same time. This will undoubtedly strengthen the nation’s workforce. It will also enable employers have a pool of skilled workers for employment, and also enable workers to earn living wages necessary to access basic needs that include shelter.

It is also concluded that policy recommendations should call for enormous federal funding for research and development (R & D) needed for innovation in the overall economy. More importantly, for millions of jobless Americans that had been out of jobs since 2008 (at the inception of recession), the industrial policies of the governments should seriously strive to create, attract, and retain jobs that
are crucial for the recovery. Finally, the mitigation factors (e.g. HARP and Wall Street Financial Reform Act) of the federal government should remain in place for a while, in order to sustain the ongoing financial and housing recovery.

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Yahoo Finance (2014). “Are We Headed for Another Bubble?” April 17, 2014.
Table 1: National, State of Georgia, and Metro Atlanta Current Dollar Gross Domestic Products, 2008-2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>U.S GDP(^1) (Billion $)</th>
<th>U.S GDP Per Capita(^1)</th>
<th>State of Georgia GDP(^2) (Million $)</th>
<th>Metro Atlanta GDP(^3) (Million $)</th>
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Atlanta Metropolitan Area (MSA) encompasses Atlanta-Sandy Springs-Marietta


Table 2: U.S Monthly and Annual Unemployment Rates, 2000-2013

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<th>Year</th>
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Table 3: Euro Zone Unemployment Rate as Compared to U.S Unemployment Rate, 2012-2013

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Data not available: *September 2012; **October 2012

Source: Reuters, January 8, 2014, 5:00am. See also Eurostat, January 8, 2014.

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http://www.usinflationcalculator.com/inflation/historical-inflation-rates/

### Table 6: Total Population in 20-County Atlanta Region, 2012-2013

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* 10 “Core” Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties

Source: GA Dept. of Labor 1 Q ES-202; Atlanta Regional Commission (processing and analysis)
Table 8: Actual Annual Building Permits in 20-County Metro Atlanta: 2010-2012

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* 10 "Core" Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties

Source: SOCDS Building Permits Database. Query Results on 12/05/2013. [http://socds.huduser.org/permits/output_monthly/odb](http://socds.huduser.org/permits/output_monthly/odb)

Table 9: Annual Foreclosure Filings in 20-County Metro Atlanta, 2010-2013

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* 10 "Core" Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties

Source: SOCDS Building Permits Database. Query Results on 12/05/2013. [http://socds.huduser.org/permits/output_monthly/odb](http://socds.huduser.org/permits/output_monthly/odb)
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* 10 “Core” Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties. Source: www.atlantaregionalhousing.org
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* 10 “Core” Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties

Map of 20-County Atlanta Urban Metropolitan Counties
Developing Online Blackboard Courses, with Patterns of Excellence: Best Practices from Reviewed Exemplary Courses

Randy Basham
The University of Texas at Arlington
Abstract
A review of the posted video demonstration and summaries of available Blackboard Catalyst Award winners or Exemplary Courses as posted online on either the Blackboard Catalyst Award Winners site, or alternatively as available on YouTube as submitted by the course developers by three reviewers, for the past three years of postings. The goal of the review was to determine the capacity of the summaries to educate or transfer knowledge of best practices, in developing course with patterns of excellence, using only the exemplary criteria as publicly available within the Blackboard Exemplary Program Course Rubric. Less than exemplary criteria were not included in the review. Reviewers began with the highest score possible for an exemplary course and observed the videos to determine if each of the major criteria for exemplary status was captured within the video and served to generalize knowledge, or competencies, of exemplary course development. Each observer then averaged their observed ratings which were than compared to other peer observer’s ratings.

Introduction
Blackboard Learn course delivery platform has become a dominant application, or course platform for the online course delivery industry, developed by Blackboard Inc. The program which is generally institutionally leased has a number of existing versions that provide different options for educators. Options presented in this paper may not be available to all, but worth considering. Additionally, the online course delivery format has led to changes in the methods of course delivery, course engagement and course evaluation that differ from the conventional classroom. Some instructional practices tend to be evaluated by students as more valuable. Blackboard has also developed a number of strategic partnerships with other course delivery applications that enhance content and delivery. The best of the composite course models and instructional methods are archived and reviewed online by Blackboard’s Exemplary Courses program. These may be reviewed and modeled. Best practices from these reviewed courses are presented in this paper and of importance to social science and social work professionals, in part because of the need to socialize members to professional practices and norms beyond the informational content of an online course as part of the curricular design.

History
Blackboard Inc. has acquired a number of model existing, and developing, course delivery applications, since the company’s inception in 1997. Career educators may be familiar with CourseInfo, AT&T Campus wide and Web CT course delivery systems which have been incorporated, or at least partially, into the currently existing Blackboard Learn platform (Blackboard Inc., 2014). Over the history of development the Blackboard course delivery system has either introduced or acquired a number of online course delivery tools that serve to provide a classroom like experience for online students. These tools are also available for the most part in some form of other competing course delivery platforms though Blackboard has become the most dominant of these. Common online course delivery tools such as streaming video lectures, forms of correspondence education, and internet television, or live conferencing have in recent years become incorporated into the Blackboard system. Table 1 (below) describes briefly the most common toll or elements, though a number of others and emerging applications are not included (Blackboard Inc., 2014).
Over time and across most curriculum delivery platforms, these applications have been consistently and successfully utilized by online, or distance educators. These then constitute a portion of online courses that demonstrate patterns of excellence, in combination with the utilization of criteria described later that contribute to exemplary course design.

(See Table 1)

Blackboard Exemplary Course Program History
The Blackboard Exemplary Course Program began in 2000 with the goal of identifying and disseminating best practices for designing engaging online courses. Using a rubric instructors and course designers are able to evaluate how well their own course conforms to best practices for Course Design, Interaction & Collaboration, Assessment and Learner Support. The rubric is rated at each of the seventeen course criterion categories as either incomplete (1), promising (2), accomplished (3-4), or exemplary (5-6). Further, each category has a weighting factor of importance, to be determined as an exemplary course design. Weighting factors for each category may change from a multiplier of .5 for a criterion to a rating of up to 5. For the last three years these exemplary course winners have been reviewed and posted on either Blackboard Catalyst webpage, or YouTube, online.

Problem
Most educators including Distance Education providers are not familiar with the best practices in course design and delivery. Educators need to have model standards to guide online curriculum and delivery. Educators have little resource to review the best of curriculum designs and available technologies and incorporate into their courses. Commonly or exemplary course tools are not known to developing online instructors such as doctoral students or community based part time faculty, as well as, for many traditional educators. Transition of distance and online educational instructional competencies take time and represent an investment to both the instructors and educational decision makers in terms of time and selection of best course platforms and tools. The Sloan Consortium and others also provides awards (Sloan Consortium, 2014).

Exemplary courses are determined through a vetting and evaluation process; however, few have full access to the instructional materials, or course shells to learn from innovators in online course delivery. For the past three years, Blackboard had been archiving video tours of the best features of exemplary course awardees. Most are viewable to the public and serve to showcase the best of the instructor’s course delivery practices for distance education. Viewing the course video provides an overview of the course, but may not identify in detail the workings of the course adjudged as exemplary such that the best practices are passed on to aspiring educators.

Those training to become educators need access to models of curriculum design that would convey excellence or best practices from which to quickly assimilate skills and competencies for course design and delivery across a number of disciplines. Modeling or role modeling, mentoring and training are among the essential requirements for excellence in training for advanced skills and behaviors for a number of professions including education.
Video summaries may provide a technically based alternative for knowledge transfer of patterns of excellence in online education practices (Oud, 2009). However, the summaries in showcasing the course profiles may not adequately provide the information need for effective modeling and duplication of expertise from outstanding online faculty and courses. A review of the video content against the criteria for best courses, by students aspiring to become educators, may add to our understanding of knowledge transfer needs.

Exemplary Courses
Exemplary courses will adhere to the highest standards of course design, and have the highest overall ratings on review, regardless of reviewers. Designs reviewed by Blackboard will tend to incorporate the same criteria as those contained within the highest ratings category of the exemplary course rubric utilized by independent review team members.

Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Rubric
Blackboard: Exemplary Course Criteria and Weighting are published as an online course evaluation rubric that is more simply summarized here to permit the reader a conceptual overview of key components. These are posted and may be viewed at: Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Rubric. Please see the rubric for specific weighting of criteria: http://www.blackboard.com/resources/catalyst-awards/BbExemplaryCourseRubric_Nov2013.pdf

The rubric represents an important advance in understanding the components and practices of online course design that tend to be rated highly by participants, convey content and generalize knowledge gains well and serve to permit a representative social community, or representative classroom, with the instructor able to provide a personal interface with the students throughout the course delivery.

The rubric is divided into four rating categories of Incomplete, promising, accomplished and exemplary. However, a fifth category of not evident, not represented in the rubric is included in the course review and rated as a 0 score. Incomplete categories are scored as a 1, promising categories as a 2, and accomplished categories as a 3 or 4, with the exemplary category score as a 5 or 6.

There are 16 major review categories. However, the weighting factors have been added over the past years or so. The rating for itself was published (current posted version) in 2013. Earlier versions or rubrics are no available for comparison. Further, categories are likely revised as new applications come online and instructor options increase. Award winners based on review using the rubric criteria or the Blackboard Exemplary Course program are only publicly available as video demonstration posted online for the past three years of 2013, 2012, and 2011. The major categories represented on the rubric are described in Table 2 (below).

(See Table 2)
Each of the above Blackboard Exemplary Course Program rubric categories has a differ weight or rating factor relative to the importance of the category to the development of an exemplary online course for the purpose of Blackboard Catalyst awards. However, differing online course platforms and those engaging in specialized instructional designs may tend to rate these components or others as exemplary for their curricular needs and intent.
Of the exemplary courses reviewed, only one is selected as the ultimate award winner though several are chosen as exemplary courses. Below are links to the award winner course for each of the past three years as posted to YouTube video channel online. These provide a video review of the best features and categories of the selected video. Among those courses selected annually for the past three years as exemplary online curriculum delivery models are a very few courses in the social sciences. Though courses in most disciplines require mastery of difficult content, solutions for complex problems and accumulated skills and knowledge, the social sciences and professional school disciplines have the additional challenges. These include professional socialization, to usual and customary practices, mastery of social conventions and skills learned through practice application and role modeling in supervision. In some instances these programs provide content addresses to improving lifestyle, or personal development.

(See Table 3)

There are a few links are listed in the following table that represent best available practices, per the exemplary course program, for promoting excellence in content delivery of social science content. Applications within the course platform are utilized differently to model the classroom and mentoring training experience so familiar to those having trained in these professional training disciplines. These examples were among those reviewed for the current study.

(See Table 4)

These courses are included as reviewed reference examples of courses of this type. Other awards systems or non submitted courses though other universities may be of equal or better exemplary status.

Methods

Purpose
The method employed in this study was developed with very close collaboration of the three video observers. The purpose of this Blackboard Exemplary Courses video review is to survey the effectiveness of publically available videos to convey the Best practices of the represented courses using only the exemplary criteria from the rubric. To the authors’ knowledge, no such external review of the videos has been conducted to date. Given the exploratory nature of this project, it was guided by three research questions: 1) Are the video demonstrations constructed to represent the exemplary criteria captured in the Blackboard Exemplary Course Program? 2) Using only the exemplary criteria and not the full republic, will the video demonstration convey exemplary practices or presence of the exemplary criteria to external views, so as to transfer knowledge or competence? 3) Given that external reviewers will observe the videos, will these tend to agree that exemplary criteria are represented within the videos, and to what degree?

Data Collection
The observers were provided a scoring sheet of only the exemplary criteria and scoring capacity of the online Exemplary Course rubric. Each observer then observed, or reviewed the available posted videos for the past three years of available posts (2013, 2012, and 2011) via the Blackboard Catalyst web page, or through YouTube, reviewing only those listed on the Catalyst page, should there be any difference in
available postings, for courses. Observers were directed to score each of the sixteen course criteria categories as present or absent, using a score of 1 or 0, and then apply the weighting factor (or multiplier) designated by the rubric for the exemplary criteria, for a maximum score per video observed of up to 48 points for all exemplary criteria. Scores were entered in Excel spreadsheets and averaged per course and then an average of the total for all videos for the given award year were also calculated. These were then compared for all three observers. See tables, 5, 6 and 7.

The number of Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Winners available resulted in 26 videos reviewed for award year 2013. Also for 2012, 32 videos were reviewed and for 2011, 21 videos were reviewed. At this writing most if not all remain publicly posted though award year 2014 submissions are currently underway. The numerical order of the video reviewed corresponds to their posting order at the time of review with individual courses not otherwise identified. As posting change (all award winners were not available) the listing below will no longer correspond.

Results

There are a number of limitations to this review. These include that video summaries of the course and not the course shells themselves were observed and rated and so may not capture the details of the course design that would provide a full and complete picture of best practices. Additionally, the rubric has been amended over time such that the current version may have not been fully applied to the evaluation of earlier award winners. Further, the complete set of award winners was not available to the observers to determine additional difference in exemplary course design for a particular year or set of submissions. Though listed, some course demonstrations have been taken down and are no longer available. The observers themselves had not been trained by Blackboard, Inc. or any member of the awards committee in how to best utilize the rubric, in the evaluation of Exemplary Courses. The quality and construction of the video presentation or demonstrations varied and may have been produced by different videographers or video capture technicians. Furthermore, the subject matter and content and indeed instructor style, may have affected the perception of the exemplary nature of the course for any particular observer. The observers themselves were more accustomed to social science, and may have had differing subjective appreciation of the video or content.

Available Exemplary Course Program Award Winners Videos for the posting year of 2013 were observed and rated by three independent observers, with the count of videos enumerated in Table 5 below. Using only the exemplary category for the rubric and rating each category of the rubric of the video (n=16) as present or absent, and then multiplying by the weighting factor of each determined to be present and capable of conveying best practices within the video demonstration and course summary, reviewer completed all observations, scoring, and reporting within a two week time frame occurring in February of 2014.

Scores from Table 5 below indicate that there was close agreement on the capacity of the video demonstrations to capture the exemplary features of the course design for the Exemplary Course being observed and that the quality from course to course varied, though overall more than 75 to 80 percent of the exemplary course criteria and best practices were captured within the video observation as compared to the optimal rating for the program rubric.

(See Table 5)
Available Exemplary Course Program Award Winners Videos for the posting year of 2012 were also observed and rated by three independent observers, with the count of videos enumerated in Table 6 below. Using only the exemplary category for the rubric and rating each category of the rubric of the video (n=16) as present or absent, and then multiplying by the weighting factor of each determined to be present and capable of conveying best practices within the video demonstration and course summary, reviewer completed all observations, scoring, and reporting within a two week time frame occurring in February of 2014.

(See Table 6)
Scores from Table 6 above indicate that there was close agreement on the capacity of the video demonstrations to capture the exemplary features of the course design for the Exemplary Course being observed and that the quality from course to course varied, though overall more than 70 to 75 percent of the exemplary course criteria and best practices were captured within the video observation as compared to the optimal rating for the program rubric. However, these received slightly lower aggregate ratings and averages then the more recent year of 2013.

Available Exemplary Course Program Award Winners Videos for the posting year of 2011 were also observed and rated by three independent observers, with the count of videos enumerated in Table 7 below. Using only the exemplary category for the rubric and rating each category of the rubric of the video (n=16) as present or absent, and then multiplying by the weighting factor of each determined to be present and capable of conveying best practices within the video demonstration and course summary, reviewer completed all observations, scoring, and reporting within the time frame.

(See Table 7)
Scores from Table 7 above indicate that there was close agreement on the capacity of the video demonstrations to capture the exemplary features of the course design for the Exemplary Course being observed and that the quality from course to course varied, though overall more than 65 to 70 percent of the exemplary course criteria and best practices were captured within the video observation as compared to the optimal rating for the program rubric. However, these received slightly lower aggregate ratings and averages then the more recent years of 2013 and 2012.

Discussion
Developing courses in the Blackboard Learn or similar course platforms that are exemplary, or demonstrate patterns of excellence in design would include many if not all of the criteria captured within the Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Rubric, though the rubric and the nature of online instruction are likely to vary over time with expected additional advances in technology.
Best practices are exemplified within the rating rubric, as well as, the submitted materials, including video summary presentations posted online from the Blackboard Catalyst and Exemplary Course Program over the previous three years and ongoing. Observers agreed that the majority of the rubric criteria were captured in the video demonstrations and so both the pogrom rubric and the video demonstration provide a valuable resource in generalizing best practices, patterns of excellence in course design and the included criteria for creating and delivering an exemplary online course.
References

Blackboard Exemplary Course Program (2014): http://blackboard.com/ECP
Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Rubric (2013):

Table 1: Some Common Course Tools in Blackboard Learn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>Announcements</td>
<td>post timely information critical to a courses success.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blogs</td>
<td>a tool which provides an online forum, diary, or journal.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collaboration (Chat, Virtual Classroom)</td>
<td>divided into two features: The Virtual Classroom and Lightweight Chat.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contacts (formerly Staff Information)</td>
<td>allows Instructors to post information about themselves, Teaching Assistants, guest speakers, and other Course leaders.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discussion Board</td>
<td>asynchronous discussion areas where faculty and students can exchange ideas on a topic, post requests for assistance or conduct conversation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dropbox (Shared)</td>
<td>a personal file storage space for earlier Blackboard users.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Glossary</td>
<td>Each entry consists of the term and an accompanying definition.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group Viewer</td>
<td>can be created one at a time or in sets. Groups can be designated as Self-Enroll, allowing students to add themselves to a group, or Manual Enroll.</td>
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<tr>
<td>i&gt;clickers</td>
<td>Personal response pads used by students in conjunction with a personal response system to participate in classroom discussions and assessments.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blackboard Instant Messenger</td>
<td>an instant collaboration system designed to advance and promote learning and connect with classmates and instructors.</td>
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<td>Journals</td>
<td>Instructors can assign a journal to each user in a Course or Course Group that is accessible by only them and the user.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaltura Course Media</td>
<td>Kaltura is a new feature within Blackboard that allows instructors to manage media (primarily videos) within their Blackboard courses.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Photo Roster</td>
<td>a searchable list of students enrolled in a course.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respondus (Test Building)</td>
<td>a tool for creating and managing exams that can be printed to paper or published directly to Blackboard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Send Email</td>
<td>Users can access e-mail functions for through the Send E-mail page. Users can send e-mail to the following people in a course or organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tests, Surveys, and Pools</td>
<td>Tests, surveys and pools, are on-line evaluations that can be used to measure a Student's understanding of the Course.</td>
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Table 2: Major categories of the Exemplary Course Program Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goals and Objectives</td>
<td>available, locatable, and written in measurable outcomes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Content Presentation</td>
<td>varied, with intuitive or logical flow and multimedia resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Engagement</td>
<td>individualized and guided group critical learning activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technology Use</td>
<td>low cost, creative, labor reducing and engaging tools and media</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication Strategies</td>
<td>asynchronous and synchronous interaction</td>
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<td>Development of Learning Community</td>
<td>collaboration and student interactions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interaction Logistics</td>
<td>announcements, expectations, feedback, guidelines, reminders</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assessment Expectations</td>
<td>assessments, directives, instructions and rubrics</td>
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<td>Assessment Design</td>
<td>measurement of performance, critical thinking and transfer</td>
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<td>Self-assessment</td>
<td>provide constructive feedback and multiple opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Orientation to Course</td>
<td>available tutorials for navigation and leaning of context</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supportive software Plug Ins</td>
<td>linked optional and required installable applications</td>
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<tr>
<td>Instructor Role and Information</td>
<td>Contact information, role, and usual response times</td>
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<tr>
<td>Course Institutional Policies and Support</td>
<td>linked and navigable rules and supports</td>
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<td>Technical Accessibility Issues</td>
<td>file download size, streaming and standard formats</td>
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<td>Accommodations for Disabilities</td>
<td>alternative resources and support mechanisms</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>bidirectional during and after the course</td>
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Source: Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Rubric: https://www.blackboard.com/resources/catalyst-awards/BbExemplaryCourseRubric_Nov2013.pdf

Table 3: Blackboard Exemplary Course Winners
(Reviewed and posted on Blackboard)

<table>
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<th>Rubric Criteria met are listed per course</th>
<th>Blackboard Exemplary Course Winners (Reviewed and posted on YouTube)</th>
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<td>Year 2013:</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLontYaReEU1voZsmm5gDVNT6imGKnLWTp">https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLontYaReEU1voZsmm5gDVNT6imGKnLWTp</a></td>
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<td>Year 2012:</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=Blackboard+Exemplary+Course+Program+Winners+%282012%29">https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=Blackboard+Exemplary+Course+Program+Winners+%282012%29</a></td>
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<td>Year 2011:</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=Blackboard+Exemplary+Course+Program+Winners+%282011%29">https://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=Blackboard+Exemplary+Course+Program+Winners+%282011%29</a></td>
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Note: Blackboard Catalyst Award: Past Winners
Table 4: Links to Selected Examples in the Social Sciences of Exemplary Courses

General Psychology:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t9YqYAG1cWl&index=2&list=PLontYaReEU1voZsmm5gDVNT6imGKnLWTp
Theories of Counseling:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=o7Cxrsc2JpM&list=PLontYaReEU1voZsmm5gDVNT6imGKnLWTp&index=20
Wellness Management:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UP4oBnpnAi0&list=PLontYaReEU1voZsmm5gDVNT6imGKnLWTp&index=7

Table 5: Blackboard Exemplary Course Program Winners (2013) by Blackboard Inc

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36.29 35.81 36.43
Average 36.17
“Ch-ch-ch-ch-changes.” Teacher Perceptions and Attitudes about the Common Core State Standards

Carol L. Butterfield
Dan Fennerty
Central Washington State University
Interviews

Introduction
As public school districts and teachers in states that have adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) race to learn about and implement standards, teacher education programs in universities are also learning about and implementing the standards. Teacher candidates in a literacy course at a regional university in the Pacific Northwest have been involved in collecting and analyzing interview data in regards to teacher perceptions and attitudes about the Common Core State Standards and literacy. So what exactly are the perceptions that practicing teachers have about the CCSS and literacy? What are public school teachers doing? Where are they getting their information? The International Reading Association, the association for reading teachers internationally and in the United States, state in their CCSS guidelines, “The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) have the potential to ensure that every child in the United States is prepared for college and careers. It is a worthy goal and one that we must work together to achieve. However, information, policies, and products aimed at helping educators to implement the ELA Common Core state Standards are being produced rapidly, sometimes with conflicting messages about literacy practices” (International Reading Association Common Core State Standards (CCSS) Committee, 2012).

CCSS Research
Research regarding the CCSS and implementation is in the early stages, although there are many websites explaining what the CCSS are and their limitations. For example the Common Core State Standards Initiative (2012) lists CCSS considerations such as
1. The Standards define what all students are expected to know and be able to do, not how teachers should teach.
2. While the Standards focus on what is most essential, they do not describe all that can or should be taught.
3. The Standards do not define the nature of advanced work for students who meet the Standards prior to the end of high school.
4. The Standards set grade-specific standards but do not define the intervention methods or materials necessary to support students who are well below or well above grade-level expectations.
5. It is also beyond the scope of the Standards to define the full range of supports appropriate for English language learners and for students with special needs.
6. While the ELA and content area literacy components described herein are critical to college and career readiness, they do not define the whole of such readiness.

Most school districts are in the process of changing from their state standards to the CCSS, so research has been limited. However, some current research has focused on investigating the comparisons between current state standards and the CCSS, policy research and development, and surveys.

In one study, differences in the changes between US state standards, international standards in other countries and the CCSS were explored (Porter, McMaken, Hwang, & Yang, 2011). In another CCSS arena, McDonnell and Weatherford (2013) investigated the educational policy making of the CCSS, while policy groups
have met to establish a research agenda for the CCSS (Center on Education Policy, 2013).

In regards to surveys, one CCSS – Math survey of 12,000 teachers stated that 80% had read the standards for their grade. 77% of the teachers said the CCSS were similar to their own state standards and 94% liked and would teach the CCSS (Schmidt & Borroughs, 2013). Teacher unions (American Federation of Teachers) surveyed 800 members regarding the CCSS resulting in a 75% favorable support for the CCSS, however, 83% supported a moratorium on consequences for students, teachers and schools until the standards and related assessments have been fully in use for one year, (AFT, 2013). Other union (National Education Association) surveys report that teachers are unfavorably impressed with the CCSS (Van Roekel, 2014). Van Roekel goes on to state,

“Seven out of ten teachers believe that implementation of the standards is going poorly in their schools. Worse yet, teachers report that there has been little to no attempt to allow educators to share what’s needed to get CCSS implementation right. In fact, two thirds of all teacher report that they have not even been asked how to implement these new standards in their classrooms” (2014).

Method

Setting

This study took place at a small regional university located in the Pacific Northwest. The teacher education program at this university graduates approximately 250-300 elementary education majors (ELED) each year. Literacy education is an important component within the ELED major with four courses (15 credits) focusing on literacy development K-8. Each elementary education certification candidate also seeks an endorsement in another area such as literacy, bilingual/TESL, Special Education, Middle Level Math/Science being the most popular.

Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 87 teacher candidates who enrolled in EDLT 308 Literacy I course during three different quarters. Literacy I is the initial Literacy foundations course within the ELED major and is an introductory K-8 literacy teaching course. The participating K-6 teachers who were interviewed were teachers currently teaching in the state of Washington.

As part of the Literacy I course, candidates were introduced to the CCSS, with English Language Arts Standards having the main focus. According to the CCSS website of the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction

“The standards insist that instruction in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language be a shared responsibility within the school. The K–5 standards include expectations for reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language applicable to a range of subjects, including but not limited to ELA. The grades 6–12 standards are divided into two sections, one for ELA and the other for history/social studies, science, and technical subjects. This interdisciplinary approach to literacy is based on research indicating that students who are college and career ready must be proficient in reading complex text from many disciplines” (Washington State OSPI, 2012).
Description of Teacher Interview

In order for teacher candidates to understand and connect to the application of the philosophical principles, literacy methods and materials they were learning about in their class sessions and course text, students interviewed practicing K-6 teachers in Washington State regarding the ‘practical’ aspect of teaching literacy. The teacher interview consisted of twelve open-ended questions developed by faculty with student input. The questions ranged from what programs/publishers, materials and strategies do you most often use, to what technology do your students use in the classroom for reading and writing and how do they use it? To concentrate on the perspectives of teachers and the CCSS, three questions were focused on in this study. The questions were: How involved is your school in implementing the Common Core State Standards, How do you think the Common Core State Standards will change the teaching of literacy, and What are the guiding principles in the teaching of literacy in your classroom?

Data Collection

Teacher candidates interviewed 87 elementary teachers in 59 different school districts (27 rural and 24 urban) in Washington State. The teacher candidates had a choice of interviewing their selected teacher in person or over the phone. All teachers had been introduced to the CCSS at a variety of levels. The Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction’s website (OSPI, 2012) listed the timeline for CCSS adoption in the public schools.

(See Table 1)

The interviews were collected during the academic quarters Spring quarter (2013), Fall quarter (2013), Winter quarter (2014) and encompassed Phases 3 & 4 of the WA State timeline.

In analyzing the data from the teacher interviews, using the constant comparative method of analysis (Glasser & Strauss, 1967), themes emerged. Spradley (1980) refers to analysis as a search for patterns: “Analysis of any kind involves a way of thinking. It refers to the systematic examination of something to determine its parts, the relationship among parts, and their relationship to the whole” (p. 85).

Findings

For question #1, findings are organized by question, academic quarters and year, and phase year of adoption as stated on Washington State’s OSPI website. Three broad themes (beginning involvement, moderate involvement and very involved) are further categorized with the number and percentage of teachers from the Western and Eastern part of Washington State. Example teacher responses that connect to themes are presented in Table 2.

Question #1: How involved is your school in implementing the CCSS?

(See Table 2)

For question #2, the findings are organized by academic quarter and year, Washington State phase year of adoption, six broad themes and number of teacher responses. Example teacher responses are presented in Table 3.

Question #2: How do you think the CCSS will change the teaching of literacy?

(See Table 3)
For question #3, the findings are organized by academic quarter and year, Washington State phase year of adoption, five broad themes, number of teacher responses. Example teacher responses are presented in Table 4.

**Question #3: What are the guiding principles in the teaching of literacy in your classroom**

*(See Table 4)*

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to explore practicing K-6 teachers’ perceptions and attitudes regarding the Common Core State Standards. Teacher candidates interviewed teachers during an introductory Literacy course. Three questions were focused on: How involved is your school in implementing the CCSS, How will the CCSS change the teaching of literacy, and What are the guiding principles in teaching of literacy. The findings were organized by question, academic quarters and year, and phase year of adoption as stated on Washington State’s OSPI website, and broad themes. Example teacher responses that reflected the themes were presented.

In regards to question #1: How involved is your school in implementing the CCSS, in the initial academic quarter (Spring 2013), there was an uneven split between teachers teaching on the east and west side of Washington State. Teachers on the West side were very involved with the CCSS, while teachers on the East side were just beginning to explore the CCSS. This split became more even by Winter quarter 2014 where both east and west side teachers indicated that their schools were very involved with the CCSS.

For question #2: How will the CCSS change the teaching of literacy, there seemed to be an even number of perceptions among the six different themes for the initial academic quarter (Spring 2013). However, in Fall 2013, a large percentage of teachers indicated that they believed that the CCSS would change instruction, while in the ending academic quarter of Winter 2014, teachers believed that the CCSS would standardize instruction as well as student learning.

For question #3: What are the guiding principles in teaching literacy, in the initial academic quarter (Spring 2013), teachers responses were split between instruction and the big five of reading. Teachers seemed to be still focused on the results of the Reading Panel’s report (2000), indicating that phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension were the main pillars of literacy instruction. In quarter, Fall 2013, the responses indicated that the Common Core State Standards were the main principles, while in Winter 2014, teachers indicated that instructional methods were the most important principles in the teaching of literacy.

General findings mirror the processes teachers were experiencing: becoming familiar with the CCSS, attending mandatory workshops, staff meetings, aligning the CCSS with current commercially produced curriculum and adopting a new commercial curriculum (standardizing the curriculum). The focus seemed to be on aligning the CCSS to commercial curriculums or programs, rather than on using the CCSS as goals in their instruction, or critically analyzing if the CCSS would be good for students. Teacher perceptions seemed to mirror what they had been told or read about the CCSS, although they were not shy about expressing their frustrations regarding the changes. Teachers stated that in order for any positive change there needs to be allocated
monies, time to collaborate, high quality workshops and more information about the CCSS.

**Further Analysis**

While the original intent of this study was to gather the perceptions of practicing teachers, the data collected has been useful in helping preservice candidates connect theory and textbook learning to the practical applications of practicing teachers. To further explore teacher perceptions of the CCSS and literacy teaching additional questions could be added to the existing interview. The questions below could be added to further investigate teacher perceptions, but would also serve to broaden teacher candidate awareness of the CCSS and literacy teaching.

The questions include: Where did you receive your information about the CCSS? In your opinion how are the CCSS any different from the state standards already in place? If you ‘like’ the CCSS, what is it that you ‘like’ about them? If you don’t ‘like’ the CCSS, what is it that you don’t ‘like’ about the CCSS? As a result of implementing the CCSS, how has your literacy instruction changed? How have your materials for teaching reading/literacy changed? How are you assessing the literacy CCSS? How are you teaching literacy within the disciplines or across content areas?
References:


Table 1
Washington State & the CCSS Adoption Timeline

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<td>Phase 1: CCSS exploration</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2: Build awareness &amp; begin building statewide capacity</td>
<td>2011-2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 3: Build state &amp; district capacity and classroom transitions</td>
<td>2012-13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Phase 4: Statewide application and assessment</td>
<td>2014-2015</td>
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### Spring 2013 – Phase 3

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<th>East – 9 teachers: 67%</th>
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<td>Getting our feet wet –</td>
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<td>won’t focus on it until</td>
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### Fall 2013 – Phase 3

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<td>the very large amount of</td>
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<td>– frustrated; Started to</td>
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<td>Began last year- working</td>
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<td>on aligning literacy</td>
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<td><strong>Very Involved</strong></td>
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<td>All trained with</td>
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<td>Our school is a pilot</td>
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<td>school-we jumped in with</td>
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<td>both feet; Required to</td>
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<td>follow CCSS this year</td>
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<td>(2013-14)-all curriculum &amp;</td>
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<td>report cards aligned to</td>
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### Winter 2014 – Phase 4

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<td>I have to do it, so I’m</td>
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<td>administration doesn’t</td>
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<td>seem to care about it;</td>
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<td>More involved last year-</td>
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<td>trainings fizzled out this</td>
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<td>year; Not implemented,</td>
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<td>teachers are matching</td>
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Table 3

**Spring 2013- Phase 3**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deeper student thinking (6 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: Brings more critical thinking-helps prepare student thinking for what is ahead; Better prepared for college &amp; career, more informational text, deeper knowledge.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction (6 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: More focused instruction, better to inform students of learning targets; Requires more diligence of integration of subjects; CCSS will be come main and only focus; Will help teachers become more intentional &amp; deliberate in the teaching of all skills.</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unsure (5 teacher responses)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: I worry they will change the teaching of literacy in a negative way – take away from creativity; Not sure, but if there are changes it is because the CC are less structured; unsure, changes might occur because the CC might be less structured.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not Much (4 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example response: Not much – CCSS reworded with minor changes; Not much change, teachers will keep teaching the same way they have been for years and most will interpret the CCSS in their own ways; Don’t think it will change much.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standardize (4 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: National standards will benefit kids who change districts; It will help student better understand what is expected no matter where they go in the US.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accountable (1 teacher response)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: They will make teachers and students more accountable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fall 2013 – Phase 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deeper student thinking (8 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: Helpful, students are asked to think more critically; Make it better, thinkers as readers; Depth and complexity will be emphasized; Rigorous with more expectations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction (16 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: CCSS will focus more on purpose rather than enjoyment; Shift from fiction to nonfiction; A lot of busy paperwork; Teachers will teach across the curriculum instead of teaching skills in isolation; A more well rounded student, teachers will be mindful and have more specific instruction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unsure (1 teacher response)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Worried, teachers will have to change their teaching style, worried about losing the ‘personal touch’ because it will be more curricular based.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not Much (6 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example response: I don’t think it will change at all in my room, I am not quick to jump on the bandwagon, the pendulum always swings; May not change anything; Not much different than the state standards; Won’t change, need more trust in teachers to do what is needed and right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standardize</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: All kids will be on the same page; Standardize education across the US; More consistency among schools; Not entirely happy about federalizing schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accountable</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Winter 2014 – Phase 4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deeper student thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: Students are asked to go deeper in the long run, a benefit; Expectation is that students' knowledge will be much deeper and higher quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Will focus more on non-fiction and argumentative writing; Provide a steady progression of skills, will help the way literacy is taught; Hope the responsibility for teaching literacy will be the responsibility of all teachers; Will lead to teachers teaching to the test for students to pass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: We will fall behind without creativity; It will be difficult for teachers to adapt to the standards; It will be hard in the beginning because there are so many shifts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not Much</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example response: They are nothing new; Won’t change much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standardize</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: Learning will be more uniform and less creative; Everyone will be teaching the same – standardized; students will be learning the same thing no matter where they move to; Standardize the playing field, more like the past curriculum if it could be more aligned; Hoping to put the US on an equal playing field with standardized strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accountable</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example Responses: Expectations are higher for students and will be difficult to have each child meet the standards. It should be changed back to an integrated model rather than separating reading and writing; It raises the bar for students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4
#### Spring 2013 – Phase 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional (15 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Balanced program – workshop model, interactive learning, more time spent reading, knowing where you have to be, small groups</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Big 5 Areas of Reading (15 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Decoding, fluency, phonemic awareness, letter/sound knowledge, decoding – fluency- comprehension, building vocabulary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials (4 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Variety of genres, engaging books, know and understand the curriculum, authentic literature</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affective factors (11 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The joy of reading, enthusiasm for reading, interest, every child can read</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Core State Standards (7 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The CCSS</td>
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### Fall 2013 – Phase 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional (7 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Grouping, read by reading, skills in context, writing seminars, good strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Big 5 Areas of Reading (1 teacher response)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials (2 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Variety of genres, the reading basal</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affective factors (5 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The love of reading, enjoyment, all children can read</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Core State Standards (11 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The CCSS</td>
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</table>

### Winter 2014– Phase 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional (10 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: 90 minute comprehension block, student learning plan, whole language approach, RTI, CAFÉ, small group instruction (10 responses)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Big 5 Areas of Reading (6 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: Phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials (2 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The reading basal, authentic literature &amp; relevant literature</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affective factors (4 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The joy of reading, love of literature, interest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Core State Standards (6 teacher responses)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example responses: The CCSS</td>
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</table>
Mapping the Cultural Terrain of Natural Resources and Sustainability Issues in Colorado Springs, Colorado

Melissa Chambliss (Student)
University of Colorado - Colorado Springs
Introduction
Our ethnographic team of ten student researchers from the Anthropology Department at the University of Colorado at Colorado Springs conducted interviews and used NVIVO10 qualitative analysis software in 2013 to analyze 47 interviews concerning natural resources and sustainability viewpoints primarily in Colorado Springs, Colorado. We also talked to people from outlying areas such as Fort Collins, Colorado as well as Manitou Colorado. For this paper, we aimed to answer the question of “How might specific demographics and values or behavioral factors be associated with viewpoints regarding natural resources and sustainability issues?” We have found that demographics, particularly including age, political party, education level, education major, and religious beliefs —along with some specific values and behaviors—align with viewpoints regarding natural resources and stances on sustainability issues.
More specifically, we found that for some issues there was a general agreement in values that cut across primary demographics, thus forming a potential bridge of viewpoints, whereas for some other issues there was little or no agreement across a “gap” or chasm of awareness and understanding, indicating some major oppositions in the mindsets of our respondents. Overall our research findings provide insight into cultural views surrounding natural resources and sustainability issues in Colorado Springs. One unexpected finding is that because the Colorado Springs area in particular and Colorado in general has experienced a devastating sequence of destructive wildfires, floods, and drought conditions, we find that many respondents are becoming more aware of issues surrounding sustainability and natural resources as a matter of urgency. Thus our snapshot of views regarding sustainability during a time of urgency depicts a time of potential change or movement in terms of awareness and in terms of shared concerns.

Background of Study
We created a two-part survey. Part one, with 102 questions, elicited a barrage of background demographic information such as age and political party, and then asked respondents to rate a variety of values (such as unity with nature, power, wealth, etc.) on a scale from one to five. We asked them also to rate from 1-5 their degree of participation in a variety of environmentally friendly behaviors. Part two of the survey included a list of topics regarding sustainability and natural resources; we asked respondents to circle those topics most important to them and then we interviewed them in open-ended, in-depth style about each of the topics the respondents had selected. Part two also asked people to define natural resources, to respond to a set of questions about recently flooded well sites in Northern Colorado, and to share what they felt people might “never agree about” or might “all agree about” with regard to sustainability and natural resources issues.

Research Sample
To interpret our study results it will be helpful to first understand the composition of our sample. There were 19 females and 28 males, with a total of 47 respondents. Age was organized into six categories: Under 20, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60+. Our sample includes four respondents under 20, 20 between the ages of 20 and 29, eight between the ages of 30 and 39, two between the ages of 40 and 49, seven between the
ages of 50 and 59, and five people who were 60 and up. As for race and ethnicity, 39 of the 47 respondents were Caucasian, with four Hispanics, and four people who indicated a mixed racial or ethnic identity. Level of education emerged as an important demographic in relation to our inquiries. Our sample included 2 respondents with high school diplomas only, one with a technical certificate, 23 people with Some College, one with an associate’s degree, 10 with a Bachelor's Degree and 9 with post-graduate degrees. College education Major also emerged as significant in our queries. Four respondents were or had been Business majors, 1 majored in General Studies, 5 were Math and science majors, 4 had Medical majors, 5 claimed natural science majors, 9 were social science majors, and 6 were in liberal arts. For the purposes of interoperating the data on a basic level we organized majors into their corresponding focus area, however when we further analyze we will separate them into their specific degree focus. We also sorted respondents into 3 categories of religion, including: Christian, Other-denominational, and non-religious. Ten respondents claimed being Christian, 28 were non-religious and two claimed Other-denominational beliefs. Four of our respondents used solar energy, and three owned a domestic well. Political affiliations included 14 claiming Liberal, 9 Conservatives, 4 Independents, and 17 were not politically affiliated.

Background Demographic Factors in relation to Sustainability
We triangulated several kinds of information to arrive at an understanding of the how our respondents were distributed with respect to natural resources and sustainability issues. For the dimension of values, those that seemed to be the most significant in relation to sustainability related viewpoints were ‘unity with nature’ and ‘protecting the environment’ for a more pro-sustainable side of the study, and ‘power’ and ‘wealth’ for the other side of the issues. As for behaviors, some that emerged as significant were: whether or not they recycled containers, and if they turned off lights and water when not in use. We did not ask any questions based on lifestyles that are not sustainable however we were still able to find a lack of sustainability among our respondents.
To arrive at an understanding of how our demographics pattern in relation to sustainability viewpoints, Chambliss ran a number of data search queries using NVIVO10 to investigate correspondences. (NVIVO10 is a quantitative and qualitative data analysis software program in which we have inputted all of our data.)

Major demographics in relation to Unity with Nature
Unity with Nature was one of the values we asked our participants to rate on a scale of one to five, with 1 being not important to them at all and 5 being extremely important. When Chambliss queried to investigate how these ratings correspond with various demographic background factors of our respondents, it was found that a high rating of 4-5 correlates well with other factors favorable to a pro-sustainability viewpoint, although a wider set of respondents rated the value of Protecting the Environment more highly than the perhaps more polemically phrased value of Unity with Nature.
Age yielded some interesting results when correlated with ratings about the importance of Unity with Nature. When age was queried in relation to Unity with Nature it was found that that the two polar degrees of the age groups included, that is, under 20 and 60 and up, showed completely opposite results. The 60+ respondents all rated Unity
with Nature three or higher (of 5), while those respondents under 20 in our sample all rated this value at three or lower. Those in their twenties rated this value most highly altogether, with ratings of mainly fours and fives. Respondents in their thirties, forties, and fifties, gave more neutral ratings (clustering around 3). See Figure 1 (below)

Regarding religious backgrounds, this study arrived at some very interesting and unexpected results. Christianity showed to have no noticeable effect on a person's rating of Unity with Nature. Respondents ranged widely on their ratings for this value, with similar numbers asserting its importance and lack of importance. As for non-religious respondents, many more gave ratings of four or five, thus claiming Unity with Nature to be of high importance. Only one other-denomination respondent answered the question.

See figure 2 (below)

College education majors were fairly easy to categorize with regards to the value of Unity with Nature. Business majors only provided ratings of one or two, indicating that they did not find Unity with Nature to be important to them as a value. Math and science and medical majors all provided ratings of four and five, so they seemed to find Unity with Nature to be very important. Liberal Arts majors gave an average rating of 4.

Respondents’ levels of Education revealed some definite patterning with respect to the value of Unity with Nature. Respondents with ‘Some College’ and with Associates degrees— which both imply around two years of college—all provided ratings 4 and 5. Those with only a high school diploma, as rated this value on the average at 2.5, indicating they do not claim a value of Unity with. As for the those with bachelor’s and post graduate degrees, they were both almost equally distributed on this value, suggesting that one’s academic major matters more than the level of a college degree earned in influencing sustainability values.

As might be expected, those who own solar only rated Unity with Nature at 4-5, showing that they believe it is important.

The last demographic queried in relation to Unity with Nature was political affiliation. This showed very distinctive results. Liberals provided an average rating of 4.2, showing this value is one they identify with strongly. Conservatives rated the value at an average of 2.5, suggesting they do not claim this value as important. The Independent respondents were evenly distributed, with two answers of 5 and two answers of two.

Major Demographics in relation to Protecting the Environment

Another value we examined in relation to our key demographics was ‘Protecting the Environment’. As a value, of course how people might feel about ‘Protecting the Environment’ was crucial for us to gauge because sustainability almost always traces back to protecting the environment in some manner or other. The reason this value is distinct from that of ‘Unity with Nature’ is that ‘Unity with Nature’ implies that humans are a part of their environment, whereas ‘Protecting the Environment’ does not require this assumption. I queried this value against the same demographic characteristics as for Unity with Nature to see to what extent these overlapped or differed as values.

Compared against Unity with Nature, Age patterned very differently with respect to the value of ‘Protecting the Environment’. Every Age group in our sample rated Protecting the Environment primarily with a value of three or higher, thereby claiming this is important to them. See Figure 3 (below)
When querying religious affiliations in relation to ‘Protecting the Environment’, Christian, non-religious, and other-denominational respondents all provided the majority of their ratings at 4-5. Only one Christian and one non-religious respondent gave low ratings for this value. This shows a huge bridge factor regarding religion or a lack thereof. Across the board people are agreeing that they would want to protect the environment, even though religiously affiliated respondents did not score highly on Unity with Nature as a value.

These contrasting results with Age and religion appear significant with regard to the use of discourse about sustainability. It appears that if we talk about sustainability in terms of “Unity with Nature,” we can expect to encounter a “Divide” in perspectives, indicating that this expression, “unity with nature” is a loaded expression, perhaps associated with a “green” or pro-sustainable jargon. On the other hand, Protecting the Environment can be considered a “bridging” concept insofar as most people express considerable care about protecting the environment overall, without necessarily relating to the perhaps more “left-wing” notion that they regard themselves as “one with Nature”.

College Major showed the same pattern as with Age and religion, with the majority of respondents from every college major scoring Protecting the Environment at 3-5 in importance, although there is more of a spread across majors regarding Unity with Nature as already described. Apart from one respondent who said protecting the environment was not important, all Business majors, in particular, rated Protecting the Environment at 4-5, contrasted with an average rating of 2.0 for Unity with Nature.

When Level of Education was queried in relation to the importance of Protecting the Environment it also revealed some interesting results. Respondents with only a high school diploma, who had rated Unity with Nature as of low importance, rated protecting the environment at 3 or higher. Respondents with all other education levels rated Protecting the Environment as important, with an average rating of 4.4.

Those who own solar all rated Protecting the Environment with a 5, again as expected. Those who do not own solar however answered mostly three and above for Protecting the Environment whereas their ratings for Unity with Nature were widely scattered. Political party also dissolved as a dividing factor insofar as all political affiliations correlated with ratings of 3-5 for Protecting the environment.

In all, Protecting the Environment emerged as a “Bridge” factor whereas “Unity with Nature” is found to be a “dividing” factor. There is a high level of agreement across almost all demographics in support of the basic value of Protecting the Environment.

Major Demographics and Environmentally Friendly Behaviors
To explore our demographic factors further, we examined each of our seven key demographic factors in relation to three pro-sustainability related behaviors which respondents had also scaled 1-5 according to their enactment of these behaviors, including: recycling containers and turning lights when not in use. This query allowed us to consider to what extent people of various demographic backgrounds claiming specific values appear to follow through with lifestyles aligned with their values regarding sustainability.

Age provided interesting results when queried in relation to specific values and whether or not respondents report turning off lights when not in a room. Those in their twenties claimed to identify with Unity with Nature and to highly value Protecting the
Environment. However, they were the only age group to include respondents who reported they do not turn off lights in rooms they are not using. All age groups claimed to value protecting the; however, every age group had numerous people who rated recycling with a 1, indicating they never recycle.

As for religion, all respondents claiming religious affiliations rated highly that they normally turn off lights in rooms they are not using. A majority of our non-religious respondents claimed not to recycle and more Christians claimed they do recycle, which seems to indicate a reversal from their ratings about values insofar as Christian respondents tended not to rate Unity with Nature highly while non-religious respondents did identify with that value, yet it was the more religious group who claimed more engagement with the pro-sustainable practice of recycling.

We also ran political affiliation against the use of environmental behaviors, more specifically recycling of containers and turning off lights in unused rooms. The majority of Conservative respondents answered three or less, insisting that they did not recycle containers very often. This lined up with unity with nature, however not protecting the environment. They claimed they found it very important to protect the environment. As for liberal respondents answered four or five while three answered one, which shows a gap within this group however all answered three or above with both unity with nature and protecting the environment. All four independents rated three or higher and unaffiliated showed to be spread across the board. As for turning off lights in unused rooms, both liberals and conservative answered only four and five, with one answer of one. This shows a very obvious bridge within the sustainability behaviors. Independent only answered four and five and unaffiliated had respondents across the board with the majority in four and five. See figures 4 and 5 (below)

Those who own solar only answered four and five for turning off lights in unused rooms, which lines up well with the previous queries. Those who claimed not to own solar answered primarily fours and fives as well with only a few answers in the lower numbers. This again shows a bridge in the behavior of turning off lights in unused rooms. As for recycling the results were very interesting as two who own solar answered five and one who answered with one, this shows a gap somewhere within this group. As for those who do not own solar, 13 answered five, while the rest of the answered primarily had 5 to 8 respondents. This shows us that maybe turning off lights is an easier environmentally friendly lifestyle to practice while recycling is not. This also showed us some major bridges and gaps within our study.

**Major demographics in relation to power and wealth values**

To expand our findings, we also queried the demographics data in relation to some values that seemed to be not associated culturally with a pro-sustainability mindset. To do this we queried our key demographics in relation to respondents’ ratings of “power” and “wealth” values. The owning of solar, and religious affiliation, were demographics that revealed significant differences bridges and gaps in viewpoints of the respondents when examined further in relation to the values of Power and Wealth.

When Power was queried in correspondence with the behavior of Owning Solar, the findings were quite definitive. Throughout the study, those who said they own solar provided uniformly high ratings regarding pro-sustainability values and behaviors. When
we queried those who do or do not own solar in relation to the value of Power, those who own solar provided an average rating of 2.0 for this value. When queried in relation to the importance of Wealth as a value, those owning solar had showed the same trend, rating this value under a 3 in importance. See Figures 6 and 7 (below). Querying religious affiliation in relation to Power, other-denominational and non-religious respondents provided a combined average rating of 2.3, which is quite different from their very high ratings of the value of Unity with Nature. This supports a view that that Power tends to be more of a non-sustainability coded concept. Those with a Christian affiliation were distributed widely in their ratings of the importance of Power. See figures 8 and 9 (below). Overall, those who rated pro-sustainability values and behaviors as very important tended to rate the values of Power and Wealth as low, helping us to recognize where respondents diverge in relation to sustainability values and behaviors. It is worth noting that while many respondents, when asked whether Wealth is important to them, said it was not of high importance, yet throughout the open-ended interviews one of the most frequently mentioned expressed concerns is that sustainable practices and developments are too costly.

Conclusions
The above findings provide a general overview of our subject sample and of the nature of our research questions based on this sample. These basic queries have helped us to gather a general understanding about those who express a pro-sustainable viewpoint overall and those who do not. With this paper we have introduced the basic idea of a bridge factor, whereby we are noticing that people agree widely about some specific values such as protecting the environment. We also introduced our observation that a gap or chasm of viewpoints—what we call the divide—aligns with some other values such as unity with nature. The following two papers will elaborate further, exploring more closely those factors indicating a “cultural divide” as versus a “bridge” or a “We factor” when it comes to discourse and behavior associated with natural resources and sustainability issues. Here is Elizabeth with “the Divide” paper.
Figure 4: Political Party and Recycling

Figure 5: Political Party and Protecting the Environment

Figure 6: Solar and rating of Power
Unlikely Bedfellows: Reconciling Intentional Teaching, Developmentally Appropriate Practice, and Common Core Standards in Early Childhood Education

Debra Dyer
Keuka College
This paper explores the history of Developmentally Appropriate Practice (DAP) – the framework for early childhood education, the emphasis on intentional teaching in early childhood settings which Developmentally Appropriate Practice strongly advocated in its 2009 iteration, and the recent implementation of the Common Core State Standards. The juxtaposition of these three facets of early childhood education provides a fascinating study of pedagogical negotiation and accommodation. The question has arisen from the early childhood field, Can Developmentally Appropriate Practice with its incumbent emphasis on purposeful, intentional teaching co-exist and in fact, embrace the Common Core State Standards?

The field of early childhood education has a long history of reflection on developing practice. Evidence has emerged throughout this history which underscores the importance of appropriate experiences that foster learning and development. Well-defined and coherent professional standards articulated by professional associations provide the framework for developmentally appropriate practice. The framework typically includes facets such as curriculum planning, teacher preparation, inclusion, ethical practice and learning standards. One of these associations, the national Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) has been on the forefront providing the conduit for production and dissemination of information and position papers, and guiding practice serving children from birth to age 8 and their families.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice

Over 20 years ago, NAEYC addressed the need for standards of practice for young children by writing the Developmentally Appropriate Practice (DAP) and Code of Ethical Conduct statements. The NAEYC marshaled its forces “…in an effort to stave off the increasing demands for academic instruction in early childhood programs” (Marsh, 2003, p. 26). In addition to pushdown curriculum, DAP evolved to address two other significant early childhood issues: lack of universal, high-quality early education programs and growing concerns over lags in achievement among certain groups of children, particularly children living in poverty.

The NAEYC, after collecting information from early childhood educators all over the country, published a position paper in 1986 defining the concept of developmentally appropriate practice and a set of guidelines for programs serving children from birth to age 8. This was followed by an NAEYC book summarizing the support in the literature for DAP as well as describing exemplars of developmentally appropriate practice for programs serving young children (Bredekamp, 1987). The first iteration delineated between practice that is correct and practice that is incorrect. With a theoretical lens relying heavily on the work of Jean Piaget, the original DAP statement promoted the use of a play-based, child-initiated, integrated curriculum that reflected both age and individual appropriateness. Age appropriateness is the awareness of universal milestones of normal development across all domains expected in all children. Individual appropriateness recognizes that not all children develop in exactly the same way and within the same timeframe.

What was missing in the first DAP set of guidelines was the consideration of social and cultural contexts. The assumption was that all children learn in much the same way, with contextual and historical differences contributing very little variation to the pathway of learning. Consequently, the preponderance of belief in much of the early childhood
community during this era was that all children would benefit from a child-centered approach that was grounded in white, middle class values of schooling. Marsh (2003) argues that the type of culturally specific standards advocated in the 1987 DAP guidelines maintain social inequities by discouraging the development of alternative methods of teaching which may better meet the needs of non-dominant groups of children.

The 1997 revised DAP document incorporated the work of theorists who place greater emphasis on the social and cultural aspects of a child’s life. Lev Vygotsky’s work asserts that children assume historically, socially, and culturally diverse ways of thinking, speaking, and interacting. From this perspective, learning and development are both social and individual. The role of the teacher became much more significant than in the child-centered model. The teacher supports and expands the cognitive functions that are developing, provides experiences that are challenging yet can be accomplished with adult or more capable peer guidance and works both individually and collaboratively with children (Marsh, 2003). NAEYC members and a revision committee considered the debate, criticism, and reflection offered after the release of the 1987 edition and several key changes were made to the 1997 document (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

The 1997 version of DAP also began to challenge the either/or thinking of the 1987 edition – the dichotomized belief of educational practice being either appropriate or inappropriate. Should preschools emphasize cognitive growth or social-emotional development? Should there be only child-initiated or teacher-directed activities? Either/or thinking assumes there is only one right way and ignores the complexity of learning and development. The 1997 and 2009 editions address the research that shows children are better served with a both/and thinking which rejects oversimplified explanations of complex processes of learning and requires diverse perspectives and multiple answers and strategies to be valued. The 1997 revision also incorporated evidence of exemplary educational practice from national and international settings. These included Reggio Emilia, the Project Approach, Montessori, and Head Start/Early Head Start (Follari, 2011).

The 2009 DAP was generated less by critique as was the 1997 version, and more by the significant amount of new knowledge and rapidly changing contexts of both children and early childhood settings. The dramatic increase in children attending center programs, the contributions of research on development and learning, and the changing demographics of young children, necessitated the evolution of professional practice – thus, the roughly 10-year intervals of the NAEYC revision process of developmentally appropriate practice. In addition to the continuation of both/and thinking, the following instructional strategies form the framework of the 2009 DAP goals (Copple & Bredekamp, 2009).

- Skillful balance of child-initiated activities and direct instruction
- Providing routines, boundaries, and limits, while allowing student choice
- Recognizing universality and individuality in child development
- Fostering the foundational skills, attitudes and engagement that prepare children for successful lifelong learning in school and beyond
- Supporting children’s need to collaborate in group work and to work on individual tasks
• The need for children to develop self-regulation

The major shift from the 1987 to 2009 versions of DAP is the emphasis on the diverse cultural contexts of children (Copple & Bredekamp, 2009). The emphasis on sensitive response to the economic, cultural, and linguistic differences of children and their families became the focus of the revised DAP statement. This shift transpired in response to changing demographics in both schools and communities, emphasizing the need to be prepared to teach all children from all contexts. Guidelines from NAEYC’s Developmentally Appropriate Practice (DAP) in Early Childhood Programs address a child’s culture as part of appropriate practice. The guidelines made it clear to teachers “to pay attention to the social and cultural contexts in which their children live and to take these into account when shaping the learning environment and their interactions with children and families” (Copple & Bredekamp, 2009, p. 331).

The skillful balance of child-initiated activities and direct instruction; fostering the foundational skills, attitudes, and engagement that prepare children to be lifelong learners, and supporting a child in collaborative and individual work, which the 2009 iteration of DAP calls for, require intentionality in teaching. With the advent of the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001, the early childhood education pendulum swung toward increased adult-directed instruction. This controversy pitted the extreme interpretations of “child-initiated” (teacher as passive “guide on the side”) and “adult-initiated” (direct instruction, scripted lessons) against each other. The 2009 edition of DAP calls for a balanced approach which respects both child-initiated learning and adult-initiated instruction (Copple & Bredekamp, p. 49):

• Children both construct their own understanding of concepts and benefit from instruction by more competent peers and adults
• Children benefit both from engaging in self-initiated, spontaneous play and from teacher-planned and teacher-structured activities, projects, and experiences.
• Children benefit both from predictable structure and orderly routine in the learning environment and from the teacher’s flexibility and responsiveness to children’s emerging ideas, needs, and interests.

The concept of balance is supported by research such as the report, Eager to Learn, Commissioned by the Committee on Early Childhood Pedagogy of the National Research Council:

Children need opportunities to initiate activities and follow their basic interests, but teachers are not passive during these child-initiated and directed activities. Similarly, children should be actively engaged and responsive during teacher Initiated and –directed activities. Good teachers help support the child’s learning. Developmentally appropriate practice calls for both children and adults actively planning, implementing, and assessing children’s learning.

The what of teaching – the content – as well as the how – the pedagogy, has been debated by early childhood educators. The majority of early childhood educators agree that the curriculum should include the academic content areas as well as the traditional domains of social-emotional, physical, and creative development. The Prekindergarten and Common Core Standards for K-3 – adopted in whole by 45 states – provide the guidelines for early childhood curriculum. The New York State Prekindergarten Foundation for the Common Core (NYSED, 2011) states that “Children are active learners. A primary approach to learning is through purposeful play. Intentional planning
(italics are mine) promotes rich learning experiences that invite participation, involve multiple contexts, and engage the senses that help children explore their environment" (p.8).

**Intentional Teaching**

So what is *intentional teaching and planning*? It is purposeful teacher planning of knowledge (content) and skills that children will need for school and life success. Intentional teaching does not happen by chance:

It is planful, thoughtful, and purposeful. Intentional teachers use their knowledge, judgment, and expertise to organize learning experiences for children; when an unexpected situation arises (as it always does), they can recognize a teaching opportunity and are able to take advantage of it, too. (Epstein, 2007, p. 1)

Intentional teaching requires the teacher to use the three foundational tenets of developmentally appropriate practice: 1) What is known about child development and learning; 2) What is known about each child as an individual; and 3) What is known about the social and cultural contexts in which children live (Copple & Bredekamp, 2009). In the area of child development, the teacher must have knowledge of the wide range of typical development and then offer strategies that accommodate the individual needs and interests of children. Often, children will learn through child-guided experiences – using their own explorations, experiences, and interactions to gain knowledge. At other times – particularly for the introduction of new content – children learn best from adult-guided experience; these experiences include teacher direct instruction, modeling, and demonstration (Epstein, 2007). The early childhood teacher also must know the child’s social and cultural contexts to ascertain the child’s experiential knowledge as well as the family’s expectations for success.

The intentional teacher, when planning curriculum, discerns between the skills and content children learn through their own exploration and interactions, and those that require teacher-guided instruction and scaffolding. It is then the teacher’s job to plan the appropriate learning experience to maximize student learning. Intentional teaching utilizes local, state, and national standards: 1) to clearly define the goals and objectives for learning, 2) to design instructional strategies that teach so children can meet the goals and objectives for learning, 3) to assess the learning, and 4) to use the assessment data to plan future instruction. Intentionality of teaching paves the way for effective teaching which supports deep, purposeful learning.

Berliner’s (1992) characteristics of effective teaching provide guidelines for successful intentional teaching:

- Teacher’s high expectations for student engagement and learning
- The classroom as a valued learning environment
- Thought-provoking questioning to stimulate thinking
- Careful planning and effectual management of the classroom
- Engaging activities within the child’s zone of proximal development
- Supportive and specific feedback that focuses on the child’s learning

At any time of the day, the teacher should be able to clearly explain the *why* of what he/she is teaching. In-depth and systematic planning to meet both learning objectives and the needs of individual students is one of the hallmarks of intentional teaching.
Intentional teaching includes factors other than the actual daily instruction. It includes the design of the room and the materials and activities that are offered. The physical room arrangement should include a meeting area, interest/content centers, plentiful and diverse equipment and materials, and small group work areas. Student work samples and artwork should be displayed around the room and the school. The Reggio Emilia program uses documentation panels to visually chart the progress of student learning (Edwards, Gandini, & Forman, 1998); many American schools have adopted this strategy to make learning visible.

Another factor in intentional teaching that the early childhood educator must bear in mind is the schedule of the school day. Establishing a consistent, flexible routine provides security and predictability but allows for the “teachable moments” that need to be captured. A predictable routine aids the teacher in planning an integrated curriculum that meets the needs of all students and incorporates all domains of learning. It also should allow time for children to spend long blocks of uninterrupted time to explore materials and activities, and to re-visit the same centers for further investigation.

Within the consistent daily routine, the teacher needs to vary the type of activities; there should be opportunities for student choice, whole group activities for teacher-directed “stage-setting”, small group activities, and debriefing and reflection times. Teachers need to be sensitive to combinations of children when planning group work; there should be a balance between teacher choice of groups and student choice. There should also be options for individual and pair work.

The teaching/learning system, SPEDRA (Dyer, 2004) purposefully structures the teaching and learning cycle to allow children plenty of focused inquiry. SPEDRA – Set the stage, Play, Explore, Debrief, Revisit, Assess-Apply – is a recursive planning-learning-assessing system that employs intentional teaching, teacher-directed instruction and investigative play. The teacher designs scenarios, problems to solve, or dilemmas that set the stage for student investigation involving essential concepts; setting the stage may also include a purposeful read aloud accompanied by intentional questioning and the creation of supportive graphic organizers. The play and explore stages begin as students experiment with materials and ideas, constructing and testing hypotheses intended to resolve the dilemma or solve the posed problem. In the debriefing session, the teacher provides a forum for discussion of student ideas. During the discussion students are encouraged to respect the ideas of others; the teacher checks for student understanding and clarifies misconceptions. The teacher poses questions that challenge children’s thinking and stimulates an excitement for further investigation. During the revisit stage, children use the same materials or additional materials and hypotheses to carry out more complex investigations leading to more extensive understanding. During the final assess-apply stage the teacher poses scenarios, questions, and dilemmas related to the concept or skill previously explored but often transported to new contexts. By completing this recursive cycle, the teacher is able to assess student learning and to plan for new learning.

In the area of independent problem-solving, teachers must strike a delicate balance between allowing children enough time and effort to try solutions to problems, while not allowing the child to become discouraged and frustrated. This balance is achieved by effective teachers being vigilant, allowing the child to articulate what he or she is
attempting and then providing time to try out the solutions, while often intervening and
doing limited direct instruction or by providing suggestions.

Teacher-student interactions as well as peer interactions provide the relationships
that are foundational in the teaching/learning cycle of intentional teaching. These critical
connections are created when children feel respected and secure in taking risks in their
quest for knowledge construction. The positive classroom climate is constructed through
warm, nurturing interactions – both verbal and nonverbal, focused listening and
inquisitive questioning on the part of the teacher, and strong, individual relationships.
Teacher-student interaction also occurs in the “stage setting” phase of learning, when
the teacher provides content knowledge by explicitly introducing information or modeling
specific skills. “Children construct their own understanding of concepts, and they benefit
from instruction by more competent peers and adults” (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997, p.
23).

It is important for the teacher to encourage initiative in each child by allowing
opportunities to plan, carry out, and reflect upon his or her learning. Encouragement
and specific feedback goes much further in guaranteeing student success than general
praise. Effective teachers know many ways to recognize and encourage children’s
intentions and accomplishments: to comment specifically on what the child has done;
ask questions to learn more about the child’s plan and thoughts (not stock questions to
which the adult knows the answer, but authentic queries to elicit information); repeat the
child’s ideas and imitate his actions; write down or tape the child’s ideas; draw
connections between the child’s current words and actions, and events or information
that came up at other times or places; refer children to one another for information or
assistance; display children’s work; and share the child’s ideas, contributions, and
products with peers, other staff, and family members (Epstein, 2007, p. 18).

Positive peer relationships are facilitated by modeling kind, respectful and reciprocal
relationships; creating a classroom environment that encourages positive peer
relationships; structuring plenty of possibilities for collaborative play and inquiry; and
encouraging students to ask for peer assistance in solving problems.

Assessment is an important part of intentional teaching; authentic, consistent, and
objective assessment provides valuable data to all stakeholders – teachers, children,
families, and policymakers. “Ongoing…assessments enable teachers to appreciate
children’s unique qualities, to develop appropriate goals, and to plan, implement, and
evaluate effective curriculum” (NAEYC, 2005, p. 33). Ongoing, daily assessment
provides a comprehensive, holistic view – much like a video – of a child’s ability, as
opposed to a one time test which is more like a snapshot of the child’s ability at one
moment in time. Assessment data should be used to “make sound decisions about
individual and group curriculum content, teaching approaches, and personal
interactions” (NAEYC, 2005, Criterion 4.14). Assessment data may also be used to
identify areas of need in professional development. “…By enhancing their own
understanding and expertise - of specific content areas, in using instructional strategies,
or both – teachers will be able to more effectively plan and execute activities that
advance children’s knowledge and understanding” (Epstein, 2007, p. 21).

The task of the intentional teacher is to ensure that young children attain the
knowledge and skills that ensure school and life success. This undertaking is fulfilled by
addressing every domain of learning – cognitive, social-emotional, physical, motor, and
creativity – through a thoughtfully planned balance of child-guided and adult-guided experiences. Reflection and self-evaluation by both children and teachers is an integral part of lifelong learning – a basic tenet of intentional teaching.

Intentional teachers play a crucial role in establishing a community of learners through a combination of adult- and child-initiated activities. Additionally, the positive classroom environment is built through teacher-student interactions and collaborations among peers; supplying materials and activities; modeling and providing information in a timely manner; guiding discussions; asking purposeful questions; and posing new challenges.

Intentional teaching goes hand-in-hand with developmentally appropriate practice; it is built on the three core foundational tenets of developmentally appropriate practice. When addressing developmentally appropriate practice, intentional teaching is an integral part which cannot be divided from DAP.

The Advent of the Common Core Standards

Historically, individual state education departments have provided learning standards for school districts to follow in curriculum design and implementation. Standards outline the content students are expected to know and be able to do at each grade level, and provide guidelines for implementing assessment designed to measure whether students are meeting the standards. A result of the 1990’s accountability in education movement, learning standards are meant to reverse the perception that students are graduating high school lacking the skills and knowledge to be successful in college or the workforce.

In 2009, the National Governors Association convened a group of educators and business people to work on developing standards in the areas of mathematics and literacy. The initiative’s stated purpose was to “provide a consistent, clear understanding of what students are expected to learn, so teachers and parents know what they need to do to help them.” Additionally, “the standards are designed to be robust and relevant to the real world, reflecting the knowledge and skills that our young people need for success in college and careers, which should place American students in a position in which they can compete in a global economy.”

As of fall 2013, 44 states have adopted the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) for both English language arts and mathematics. Texas, Virginia, Alaska, Nebraska, and Indiana prefer to use their own state standards, while Minnesota adopted the ELA CCSS but rejected the math.

The development and adoption of these standards has drawn a great deal of debate in both the K-12 and early education fields. As states adopting the CCSS are moving toward full implementation, the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) has created a position paper to provide a frame for ongoing dialogue. The position paper clearly states the NAEYC’s long time support for learning standards in early childhood education. For example, NAEYC and NAECS/SDE (National Association of Early Childhood Specialists in State Departments of Education) (2002, p. 4) note, “Clear, research-based expectations for the content and desired results of early learning experiences can help focus curriculum and instruction, aiding teachers and families in providing appropriate, educationally beneficial opportunities for all children.”
NAEYC articulates four conditions under which standards should be developed and implemented, and then considers the Common Core State Standards within this framework:

1. **Early learning standards should emphasize significant developmentally appropriate content and outcomes.** The NAEYC states the obvious – the Common Core State Standards were developed for ELA and math only, yet the federal funding provided through the Race to the Top initiative and the Early Learning Challenge as well as sound developmentally appropriate practice calls for educating the “whole child”. Developmental domains such as social-emotional, large and fine motor skills and cognitive domains that include scientific thinking and social studies are not considered in the Common Core State Standards.

   Additionally, there is the question of the developmental appropriateness of the Common Core ELA and math standards themselves. While the increase in the use of nonfiction texts in the ELA standards is laudable, calling for prekindergarten students to “participate in shared research and writing projects” seems to be developmentally inappropriate for children at this developmental level, unless the content is relevant and the teacher provides appropriate scaffolding. The Common Core State Standards for math have received the majority of critique by early childhood educators. The kindergarten standards call for children to think abstractly, however most child development theorists like Piaget and Vygotsky argue that children this age think concretely and literally, precluding abstract thought.

   Intentional teaching which is a fundamental support of developmentally appropriate practice necessitates the integration of all the domains of learning in a well-prepared environment, utilizing a balance of purposeful child-initiated and teacher-directed learning. The Common Core State Standards precludes effective integration of the domains since they do not address all the domains of learning. We run the risk of focusing narrowly on the ELA and math content standards, moving away from the “whole child” approach which is a fundamental belief in developmentally appropriate practice and intentional teaching.

2. **Early learning standards are developed and reviewed through informed, inclusive processes.** The Common Core State Standards were developed very quickly with little input from experts in the early childhood education field. Going forward, these standards must be scrutinized in their implementation by the professionals who have been schooled in early childhood development and who work daily with young children. NAEYC calls for “experts in early education and K-12 education (who) can ensure that the standards are continually reviewed for appropriateness to the diversity of children beginning public schooling, and for consistency with emerging research”. This scrutiny will help to stem the tide of “push down curriculum" that erringly supposes early childhood standards can be aligned with the standards for older children. “The early childhood field should not allow for alignment to flow only downward but should advocate for the ‘push-up’ of early childhood standards to inform ongoing development of K-12 standards, including those in areas not part of the Common Core” (NAEYC, 2012, p. 6).
3. Early learning standards gain their effectiveness through implementation and assessment practices that support children’s development in ethical, appropriate ways. Learning standards provide the “what” but not the “how” of teaching knowledge and skills. The implementation of the Common Core State Standards needs to be aligned to best practice for early childhood education. Especially critical is maintaining methods of instruction that include a range of approaches – including the use of play as well as both small- and large-group instruction – that are considered to be developmentally appropriate for young children. Likewise, approaches to assessing young children and the appropriate use of assessment data are increasingly becoming concerns as the Common Core State Standards have moved from design to implementation. In states like New York, we are witnessing the use of Common Core Modules – poorly written, scripted, lengthy lessons that are predominantly paper-pencil driven – being pushed on K-Grade 6 students and their teachers. Additionally, children are being assessed in inappropriate and unethical ways. The diversity of American children in terms of ethnicity, culture, linguistics, and special needs has not been considered in the creation of the Common Core State Standards, nor in their implementation and assessment. A “one size fits all” philosophy pervades the implementation and assessment of meeting the standards, and in fact, potentially causes a widening of the achievement gap, instead of a narrowing of it.

4. Early learning standards require a foundation of support for early childhood programs, professionals, and families. The Common Core provides the “what”, but its success in moving children toward college and work readiness relies upon a foundation of supports. Schools need to ensure that there is adequate time for implementation of the Common Core State Standards without jeopardizing time for activities that address children’s needs not included in the current standards. Content such as social studies, science, art, and career development needs to have both a foundation of standards that is often provided by national organizations such as the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), and time in the daily schedule for exploration and learning. Teachers need appropriate tools to address each standard, including aligned curricula and related resources; they may need additional training as well. One of the many criticisms of the Common Core State Standards is the lack of training and the speed of implementation. Finally, families need to be provided with necessary information in order to be able to understand the learning goals established by the standards and identify roles that they may take to support their children’s education. Presently, we are seeing a groundswell of parents who are concerned about the imposition of the Common Core State Standards, as well as the implementation and assessment of the CCSS.

Conclusion:

I return to my original research question, Can Developmentally Appropriate Practice with its incumbent emphasis on purposeful, intentional teaching co-exist and in fact, embrace the Common Core State Standards? Based on my research, I believe that at this juncture the two entities, Developmentally Appropriate Practice and the Common Core State Standards, while not at totally opposite poles, cannot in their present states co-exist. Developmentally
Appropriate Practice is the bedrock of early childhood education and has endured and evolved across 30 years of research, revision, and implementation. Developmentally Appropriate Practice provides the foundational theoretical lens for early childhood education around the world.

Although the intent for the creation of the Common Core State Standards is understandable and even laudable, these standards are not ready for implementation in early childhood education settings. The intent to standardize learning outcomes across the United States holds value; however in this effort, inflexibility and ignoring young children’s development and learning styles as well as not addressing all the domains of learning have resulted in a developmentally inappropriate “one size fits all” set of learning standards. Even more alarming, the advent of the Common Core State Standards has flooded schools and early childhood settings with scripted curricula designed around developmentally inappropriate content (e.g., the New York State modules which requires learning about the three major world religions as part of the first grade curriculum) and unethical assessment practices (e.g., first graders being formally assessed – paper and pencil – on their knowledge of the three major religions).

Based on the research, this paper proposes several suggestions:

1. **Put a moratorium on the implementation of the Common Core State Standards.** In the interim, allow states to return to their own state standards or the standards proposed by national organizations such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM). This suggestion is not to totally rescind the Common Core State Standards, but instead to allow time to revise and more completely develop the standards to include all the domains of learning and the content areas.

2. **Convene educators in all content and certification areas to use their expertise in revising the Common Core State Standards.** Critical to this dialogue will be informed voices who can join their deep understanding of standards in general, and early learning and the Common Core State Standards in particular, with knowledge of research and practice in early childhood education. The early childhood education field is uniquely able to connect this knowledge and experience with that provided by colleagues working in K-12 education to ensure that the Common Core meets its goals of promoting college and career readiness for all children.

3. **Address and design Common Core State Standards across all domains of learning and across early childhood to grade 12 settings.** For young children this would include developmental domains such as social-emotional development and motor development as well as content domains such as science and social studies. Especially in states, districts, or schools where implementation of the Common Core State Standards threatens other areas of children’s development, the early childhood education community must share research on the importance of the other domains of child development that are not only important in their own right but are also important because of the interrelatedness of child development. Early childhood education professionals, especially those already working within elementary school settings as teachers, administrators, or providers of teacher training or professional development,
can work directly with those in the K-12 setting to bring fundamental early childhood education principles, especially developmentally appropriate practice, to the creation and implementation of the Common Core State Standards (NAEYC, 2012).

4. **Offer intense training in the content, implementation, and assessment of the revised Common Core State Standards.** Developmentally Appropriate Practice must underpin both the implementation and assessment of the revised Common Core State Standards. Professionals working in programs serving children before kindergarten entry should become familiar with the revised Common Core State Standards and other K-12 content standards as well as their state’s early learning standards, not only to prepare children for school, but also to identify potential mismatches (or lack of alignment) that may still exist in the new standards. In the training it would be beneficial to offer developmentally appropriate suggestions for lessons and activities that are aligned to the revised standards. Instead of imposing scripted curriculum modules, it is most important to value the knowledge and professionalism of EC educators in their capabilities to develop the “how” (pedagogy) of teaching the “what” (content).

Revisiting the Common Core State Standards provides the opportunity for the early childhood alliance to add to the discourse about educational reform utilizing the theoretical lens of Developmentally Appropriate Practice. This work could ensure that research and practical application in the classroom within the early childhood education field can contribute to the shaping of the Common Core State Standards for the betterment of young children. The reexamination of the Common Core State Standards also provides the unique opportunity for the early childhood community to boldly emerge as leaders in the broader educational system through its advancement of evidence-based best practices that are relevant for all students.
References


Influencing Reading Engagement of Recidivistic Youth by Using the Graphic Novel

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Abstract

Poor readers are often reluctant readers. Research has shown that the reading skills of incarcerated juveniles are below average and that this below average reading ability not only affects reading engagement but also impacts cognitive development, motivation, and behavior.

The objective of this proposed study is to examine the influence graphic novels have on the reading engagement of incarcerated juveniles and the impact it has on reading comprehension and reading attitude.

Problem

In the general school population, reading interest, reading competence, and reading motivation decline as adolescents enter middle school (Guthrie, Klaus, S., and Ho., A., 2013). This suggests that critical analysis and application of concepts derived from the text is lessened by the adolescent reader. The current literature that focuses on reading intervention and research conducted with incarcerated youth begins by citing decades of research that shows a link between reading literacy, incarceration, and recidivism (Rozalski, Deignan, and Engel, 2008). Reading literacy has been linked to recidivism; however, there is not enough empirical data to argue that there is a causal link between reading literacy skills and recidivism but that there is a logical link (Archwamety and Katsiyannis, 2000). Still, large amounts of money are spent annually to address poor reading and writing skills of recidivistic youth that end with mixed results (Nance and Novy 2011; Leone, Krezmien, Mason, and Meisel, 2005).

The longer these reading skills are underdeveloped, the more pronounced the effect (Nance and Novy, 2011). The characteristics of cognitive development, motivation, and behavior influenced by reading skills arguably influences individual thought and action. It is reasonable therefore to believe that without effective, engaging, and empowering reading interventions, the juvenile offender may fall academically further behind his peers.

To master or to become more proficient in any individual undertaking motivation to continue in and practice in that activity is required. Poor readers who often do not have the motivation or attitude to continue participation in the reading activity do not get practice while good readers continue to participate in reading activates and get practice. This results in a situation expressed as “The Matthew Effect” by Stanovich where in reading competency, the “rich get richer and the poor get poorer” (Stanovich, 1986). It is an aphorism he uses to describe the literacy inequity between good and poor readers or the end result of reading practice versus no reading practice. It is a succinct statement that underlines and bolds the belief that reading ability not only affects reading comprehension and reading attitude but in the larger picture may influence aspects of participation in a democratic society such as employment and political participation.

Correctional educators have worked for years based on the belief that education not only provides hope for their students and an avenue for change, but that reading literacy also reduces the likelihood of future crime. Correctional educators have continued to teach while facing constant scrutiny and pessimism from the public and from some legislators about the value of their work. Unfortunately, most juvenile correctional facilities’ objectives are based upon rigorous behavioral programs that target oppositional behaviors, aggression, drug abuse, and other delinquent behaviors rather than to investigate interventions that improve the reading skills and reading
engagement of delinquent youth (Krezmien and Mulcahy, 2008). From the incarcerated juvenile’s perspective, correctional education is just another detention facility required service. Capitalizing on the moral and social reasoning of recidivistic youth while building literacy skills may be effectual in rehabilitating reading deficiencies and perhaps reducing recidivistic behavior (Wilson, 1994). This is to say that interventions that appeal to this group of readers’ world view may produce positive results.

Unfortunately, delinquent juvenile recidivism creates a state of instability that potentially denies juvenile offenders and the institution a steady and totally beneficial classroom curriculum experience. A possible long term impact of this instability is that juvenile offenders run the risk of being unprepared for the challenges of today’s global economy that limits his ability to become economically contributing members of society rather than economically dependent members.

**Purpose**

The purpose of this proposed study is to examine the merits of using the graphic novel in a Book Club setting as an intervention to increase reading engagement of recidivistic youth and the impact that it has on their reading motivation and reading attitude. Reading graphic novels in a Book Club is a social activity. Reading them may stimulate reader imagination that provides fuel for debate where text alone may not.

The structure of the graphic novel, the relationship between image, text, and layout challenges the traditional idea of reading in which the reader submits to interpretive confines imposed by text alone. Unlike standard text where communication is dependent upon the reconstruction in the mind of the reader of the writer’s intent, the format of the graphic novel that combines illustrations and text may help the reader make comprehension connections that may provide the opportunity to be in the forefront of the discussion of issues affecting culture and society.

This idea of combining issues and perception has been exploited in the popular culture with film adaptations of graphic novels and comic books. Combining the graphic novel with Book Club may increase the possibility of engaged, meaningful reading and group discourse among recidivistic youth who have been identified as struggling or disinterested readers.

Dias-Mitchel and Harris (2001) suggested that Book Clubs that emphasize reading as experience rather than an academic task can attract students, even reluctant ones, to participate because they view the club more as a social event and less as the typical classroom reading activity.

This study proposes that reading relevant graphic novels in a Book Club setting influences the reading engagement of recidivistic youth. Since educators and administrators within the juvenile corrections system are wrestling to find ways to address the issue of recidivism and adolescent literacy, there appears to be a need to implement more tailored research based pedagogy in detention facility literacy programs. Student-centered instruction such as Book Club is constructivist in the manner in which Vygotsky suggested as learners learn more by doing than by observing. Student-centered instruction capitalizes on instructional issues such as student active learning where students often solve problems in cooperative environments.

There is a growing belief among literacy educators outside of the juvenile correctional system that graphic novels can be engaging and help reluctant readers

Despite graphic novels becoming a more popular literary format that is seeing increased use in the classroom, there still is little empirical research that specifically documents their use with adolescents in correctional school settings. As Stanovich (1986) suggested in Matthew effects in reading when one group of students consistently performs less successfully than another group, particularly in an area such as literacy there should be concern.

Book Club participation provides an authentic literacy situation and offers the reluctant reader a forum for discussion by providing a social setting in which adolescents participants use writing and exchange oral communication within a community of peers to enhance learning and achievement. Given the serious nature of juvenile delinquency and its consequences there is a need to address the issue of literacy and recidivism and to improve the academic performance of this population by implementing interventions that take into account factors contributing to recidivism such as poor academic achievement.

Theoretical Perspective

The Vygotskyian theoretical framework maintains that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. Vygotsky (1978) concluded that social interaction precedes cognitive development. These social interactions involve learning behaviors, skills, attitudes, and perceptions that are influenced by what Vygotsky (1978) terms a more knowledgeable other within shared experiences (Crawford, 1996). Vygotsky (1978) further deduced that every cognitive function in a child’s development appears twice. Cognitive function first appears on the social level and then at an individual level. This first interaction is inter-psychological or between people. The next interaction is intra-psychological or within the individual and is where the student either embraces or rejects the input. It is during these interactions that the more knowledgeable others’ presence is important.

Bandura’s social learning theory is complementary to Vygotsky’s work on social development in that it emphasizes the idea of learned behaviors.

Social Learning theory claims simply that through watching others, observing their actions, and behaviors, learning is accomplished by proxy. It is such observational behavior such as attitudes and outcomes of behaviors that children start to imitate and model similar behaviors as they learn and develop. People construct their realities based upon how they interpret input based upon their prior experiences.

The interaction between people and observations of other people’s behavior promote cognitive development and thinking patterns that Bandura (1977) refers to as mimicking and reciprocal causation. We learn through observations of others performing behaviors and being reinforced for the behavior. The more the person modeling the behavior resembles us, the more likely we are to imitate it.

Graphic novel Book Clubs under the theories of Vygotsky and Bandura are socio-cultural by nature. They are collaborative environments in which students publically express their interpretations of text while at the same time express their ideas to influence the conversations with peers and teachers (Seidensticker, 2000).

Using a graphic novel under the Banduran perspective may act like a mirror or lens through which the reader is given the opportunity to observe behaviors, actions and
consequences as they might observing a real life person. This coupled with Vygotsky’s framework capitalizes on the social learning environment Book Club provides.

**Literature Review**

**Reading Motivation**

Reading motivation is defined as the desire to read without correction from an outside force. It is influenced by several factors. Those factors include self-efficacy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, difficulty of material, and purpose for reading (Baker and Wigfield, 1999). There is a relationship between intrinsic reading motivation, reading comprehension, and reading frequency (Guthrie, J., Wigfield, A., Barbosa, P., Perencevich, K., Tabaoda, A., Davis, M., Scafidi, N., and Tonks, S., 2004). Intrinsic reading motivation comes from within the individual and contributes more to the amount of reading done for pleasure than the amount of reading done for academic reasons (Guthrie and Cox, 2001). Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, and Cox, (1999) also pointed out that intrinsic motivation contributes to reading frequency and significantly predicts reading comprehension.

Intrinsic reading motivation is also impacted by the task to be accomplished. Tasks that are too easy or too difficult often work against a student’s intrinsic motivation and reading engagement because students do not perceive the task as being part of their overall learning. It is again reasonable to conclude that easy tasks are met by students with an “I know this stuff already” attitude. On the other hand, students may avoid the more difficult tasks because they perceive them to be too difficult, and they anticipate failure. Likewise, tasks that students perceive as “too easy” will also not be done because students will not take them seriously or perceive them as worthy of their time or attention.

The discussion to this point suggests that making learning experiences relevant to students’ expressed interests and capitalizing on what they already know may offset the fear of failure so they will attempt the more difficult tasks. This idea was advanced by Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez (1992) as using a students' fund of knowledge to advance academic achievement. Funds of knowledge are defined as “the historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for households or individual functioning and wellbeing” (p.133). Modifying curriculum and enhancing academic outcome can be greatly influenced by combining funds of knowledge or the skills, knowledge, expertise that result from cultural and family experience the student brings to the classroom with academics. Literacy or reading relevance therefore comes from being able to bridge students’ interests and prior knowledge outside of the classroom.

It should follow that teachers in correctional educational settings can give students these reading engagement opportunities through Book Clubs to express their ideas as to what is relevant and then use these ideas connected to the themes presented in the text as the foundation of instruction and meaningful literacy learning activities. Bringing what is relevant into the detention facility classroom keeps students connected to what is happening outside their detention facility and also gives them opportunities to reflect and comment on important issues. Integrating thematic issues such as social justice offers reflection and discussion on cause and effect. Discussions on the causes of poverty offer the opportunity to discuss the importance of education. Issues of adolescent health afford opportunities to discuss nutrition and chronic
diseases. Discussion of music open doors to dialogue about art. The discussions on delinquency provide a reflective mirror. Including these issues among others into the literacy instruction makes learning more relevant and can spur reading engagement.

Adolescents who are struggling readers often also struggle to express themselves in writing, especially in formal, academic settings. Improving students' writing can take a long time and is regarded as beyond the purview of the correctional facilities teachers because of time, shifting populations, and other restrictions. However, despite this limitation teachers in juvenile justice facilities can provide students with encouragement and feedback on their written work via the dynamics of Book Club.

What are those experiences in an individual's life that are so significant that they become pivotal in their perception of who they are what they will become in the future? The answer is complex. Much of our mental gymnastics are based upon the perceptions and reflections of other writers. These reflections and perceptions are based upon the written tradition as opposed to the oral tradition. The written tradition is a record to be analyzed and critiqued to fit the reality of the reader. Providing the opportunity to gain different perspectives through discussion of illustrations and text may increase comprehension and reading engagement that the graphic novel and Book Club offers.

It has been noted that any initiative to reform literacy, is only as good as its responsiveness to the needs of reader. As Brozo and Mayville (2012) pointed out, if all students were exceptionally high achievers, then there would be no need for reforms. Why the focus on reading engagement?

Reading engagement is pivotal. In general, reading engagement is the extent to which a person has a positive attitude toward reading, seeks out texts, and makes time to read. It is comprised of many variables that include interest, choice, and self-efficacy. Reading engagement has been found to be a critical variable in reading achievement (Brozo, Shiel, and Topping, 2007). Reading engagement differs from reading motivation. Guthire and Wigfield (2000) define reading motivation as a reader's personal goals, values and beliefs that affect reading process and outcomes. Reading motivation therefore is synonymous with purpose for reading.

**Recidivistic Youth and Link to Literacy**

Academic achievement and literacy have been linked to not only recidivism but also to juvenile delinquency (Archwamety and Katsiyannis, 2000). The arguments as to the role and the strength of this link between literacy and recidivism are discussed but not debated in great detail. It is generally accepted that there is not enough data to warrant a conclusion about causality to the argument but that there is some type of link (Archwamety and Katsiyannis, 2000).

According to the Office of Assessment, Ohio Department of Education, 2008 only 57% and 58% of seventh and eighth grade African-American students were proficient in reading. This compares to 60% and 65% of Hispanic students being proficient in reading at the seventh and eighth grade level. Only 70% of African-American students were consider proficient in writing in the eighth grade. This falls well below the required 75% mandated by the state and the 85% and 83% proficiency rating earned by white students in the seventh and eighth grade. Although other variables are involved in academic success, it is apparent that the poor academic success by students suggests a lack of literacy or reading engagement connection.
The data in the literature appears to be in agreement that youth that are incarcerated have lower academic performance. However, it also appears that the predominant philosophical position and direction of the justice system is to control behavior rather than educate (Rozalski, M., Deignan, M., and Engel, S., 2008). Reading interventions that focus on decoding and comprehension skills is a type of intervention that has been shown to help reduce recidivism in adult population incarceration. However, other factors are involved which limit the total effectiveness of this approach. These risk factors leading to incarceration are social, economic, and physical and should be considered when addressing reading remediation in the juvenile corrections educational settings (Christle and Yell, 2008).

These risk factors are categorized as internal and external. Internal factors include cognitive deficiencies where external factors involve, family, peers, school and other societal factors. The internal factors range from concentration problems to fear of taking risks. These internal disability factors listed as emotional and behavioral disorders account for 47% of the population of incarcerated youth according to (Christle and Yell, 2008).

The implementation of successful reading programs in public school education settings acknowledging these factors is well documented. By drawing on externally validated reading instruction conducted in non-correctional facilities, there is a better opportunity to develop a better understanding of those essential components of effective reading interventions that can be examined for adoption in juvenile detention educational settings.

**Visual Literacy and the Graphic Novel**

It is a generally held view that when people comprehend language, they create a mental representation of the text world. (Zwaan and Radvansky, 1998). Readers and listeners construct these representations by reactivating and integrating previous experiences distributed across multiple perceptual and motor modalities in the brain (Zwaan and Madden, 2005). Simply, this is visualization by the reader or the listener. Flynt and Brozo (2010) indicated that, in today’s society students are constantly exposed to visual images. As a result visual literacy becomes a complex and integral act of making meaning using still or moving images (Fisher, Frey and Lapp, 2009). Therefore, making connections, determining importance or relevance of information must be processed using both text and visual images.

Although theorists, teachers, and librarians tout the benefits of using graphic novels in academic settings, there is currently not a significant body of empirical research to substantiate their use as a primary reading tool.

**Reader Response**

From a traditional classroom perspective evaluation of the interpretation of what is read by the student often questions the student’s reproduction of the text to determine if the interpretation of the meaning is consistent with the author’s intention. To affix meaning solely on the author and the text or to assign meaning solely on the reader is too simplistic an explanation. There are issues of semantics and syntax so reading becomes a transactional give and take. Constructing meaning involves both the author’s text and what the reader brings to it (Rosenblatt, 1994). The reader’s attention to the text activates certain elements in his past experience, external references, internal
response that have become linked with the symbols on the page. Meaning emerges from a network of relationships among the things symbolized as he senses them.

At the fundamental level, reader response considers the reader vital to interpreting the meaning of the text (Tyson, 2006). The reader and author cannot be removed from comprehension and readers do not passively consume the meaning presented to them objectively. In short, readers actively construct meaning subjectively through what they find in the text.

**Discussion and Book Club**

Book Clubs are commonly seen as a group of people who meet on a regular basis to discuss books that they are reading. The literacy value of Book Clubs are embraced by both theorists and researchers (Paterson 2000; Raphael, 2001).

According to the National Education Association (NEA) when adolescents talk with one another, their discussion reinforces new information and help them to connect with existing ideas. Book Club conversations allow new ideas to be presented and build on students understanding. During a Book Club discussion, a student can try out his thinking on others and express his interpretation of a word or passage. His or her interpretation may be reinforced by others, or he or she may discover a new way of viewing the characters and events in the book.

Book Club, therefore builds from first understanding self to understanding others by promoting socially active literacy engagement with meaningful texts and activities (Raphael, Kehus and Damphouse, 2001).

Students discuss ideas, log responses, raise questions, clarify confusions, and often relate the discussions to personal experiences. Book Club from a social constructivist perspective embodies democratic processes and learning within a community. (Raphael et al., 2001). The graphic novel Book Club that capitalizes on text and illustrations may augment the traditional Book Club.

**Methodology**

**Introduction**

This proposed research uses mixed method to collect, equally weigh, and analyze both quantitative and qualitative information of participants in a graphic novel Book Club examining reading engagement, reading attitude, and reading comprehension over a 6 month period.

**Setting**

The setting is a juvenile detention facility in a metropolitan city in the Midwest. It is a forty-four-bed residential facility for felony offenders who would otherwise be sent to juvenile prison. The detention center is a mid-level correctional facility with a system based treatment approach that in part focuses on supporting academic and vocational achievement.

**Participants**

The participants are 25 adolescent, male, middle school to high school students, 14 – 17 years of age who have been identified as recidivistic offenders within the juvenile justice system. Each participant has varying reading skills.

**Data Analysis**

The data collected from each method source will be analyzed and coded in major categories including age, race, observations, test results, and student artifacts.
Research Questions
This research attempts to investigate the questions:

1. How do recidivistic youth discuss graphic novels in a Book Club?
2. Is there increased reading comprehension of recidivistic youth when reading graphic novels?
3. Is there improved reading attitude of recidivistic youth when reading graphic novels?

Conclusion
Reading engagement and reading motivation influence reading skills such as reading comprehension and reading attitude. This mixed methods examination of a reading intervention may discover ways to improve reading habit in this specific study population. This study asks the question how do recidivistic youth discuss graphic novels in a Book Club and what effect does that have on their reading comprehension and attitude toward reading. By examining this question the possibility of refining interventions to increase recidivistic youth literacy may add to the discussion on increasing reading engagement in recidivistic youth to positively increase reading comprehension and reading attitude.

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Librarians on the Loose: High Tech and High Touch
Research Assistance from Embedded Librarians

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Abstract

The concept of embedded librarians, where within a course or program, librarians serve as a point of contact for providing research assistance, has been around for about a decade. However, most of the emphasis has been on online courses and the development of online resources. FHSU prides itself on a “High Tech, High Touch” approach to higher education. Simply put, High Tech involves the use of the latest technology while High Touch means an emphasis on the human connection. The FHSU library has taken the High Touch theme to a new level by embedding librarians in on campus social science courses. This paper, describes an alternative embedded model, examines factors associated with the model’s success and finally identifies some of the requirements to sustain the model.

Keywords: embedded librarian, research assistance, graduate research methods

Technology has transformed modern life. Due to the ubiquitous presence of cell phones, payphones have all but disappeared. The Internet has monumentally impacted our lives as entire industries have either been eliminated or forced to significantly change as a result of people’s ability to access information. Examples are abundant as airline bookings, formerly a major segment of travel agents business have largely been replaced by online flight reservations, meaning that travel agencies have either gone out of business or been transformed into tour booking agencies (Grossman, 2007); online shopping is growing exponentially (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2014); and email and online billing/payments have substantially reduced the amount of “snail mail” thus significantly impacting the United States Postal Service (Nixon, 2014).

Arguably, the greatest impact of the internet has been in the “information” sector. The way that individuals access information has clearly been transformed, as the development of e-books has so changed the nature of book purchases that major book chains such as Borders have gone out of business (Sanburn, 2011), and some newspapers and magazines have either ceased publication or shifted to an entirely online presence (Gillin, 2014). These developments have created a view in the minds of many that libraries, as storehouses of knowledge, are obsolete. Such a view is reflected in a recent Bizarro cartoon in which a student, in a library, says to a librarian, “My history teacher assigned us to go somewhere historical” (Piraro, 2014). The attitude seems to be “with the Internet why would anyone go to the library?”

While the Internet is a tremendous potential source of information, the sheer volume of material available presents challenges. Famed movie critic Roger Ebert (1998) accurately summarized those challenges when he wrote “doing research on the Web is like using a library assembled piecemeal by pack rats and vandalized nightly” (p. 66). While the Internet contains vast data files, the challenge is being able find, make sense, organize, and evaluate those vast data files in order to obtain the accurate and credible information one desires. Simply having access to resources is not enough, if one does not know how to use those resources, then they have little practical utility. In order to know how to use resources, people need information literacy skills.

The goal of librarians, as articulated by the American Library Association (ALA), is for individuals to have both information literacy skills and information technology skills. The ALA (1989) defines information literacy skills as “a set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information” (p. 1). In order to locate the
In order to meet the changing needs of their various patron populations, libraries have evolved. One method of responding to changing patron needs has been the increasing use of embedded librarians (Kvenild & Calkins, 2011). Embedded librarians are described as “directly engaged in providing specialized services to limited client groups within their organizations” (Shumaker & Talley, 2010, p. 28). In the academic realm, within a course or program, embedded librarians serve as a point of contact for providing research assistance (Kvenild & Calkins). In attempting to distinguish categories of librarians, Shumaker and Talley found that neither location, funding patterns, or supervision constituted a significant difference between embedded and non-embedded librarians. They state that providing specialized services is the single criterion of embedded library services.

Embedded librarians have been around for about a decade, as 2004, was a pivotal year for program development. That was the year when versions of embedded librarians were independently developed in at least the following colleges and universities: Community College of Vermont, University of Wyoming, Middle Tennessee State and Framingham State (Schroeder (2011). Schroeder speculates that each program was unaware of what the others were doing, rather developing a program out of a common realization of the need to do something to provide greater assistance to their online patrons. Schroeder says that the term “embedded librarian” was suggested to her by watching accounts of “embedded journalists” during news coverage of the Iraq war. She felt that the program she was piloting at the Community College of Vermont where she and another librarian were placing themselves within on-line courses by providing assistance with research assignments had enough similarities with embedded journalists that use of the name was appropriate, as they were placing themselves where they were part of “the action.”

Both the early models of embedded librarians and continuing practice have been focused on the development of online resources and on-line courses. There are at least two common elements found in most embedded librarian on-line programs: (1) inclusion of a Discussion Thread of “Ask a Librarian,” where students can post research related questions which are responded to by a librarian; and (2) use of direct library related instruction via the use of recorded lectures by a librarian. The two most common topics are Internet searching and evaluation, and documentation styles (e.g. the American Psychological Association (APA) and the Modern Language Association (MLA) styles).

Practicality provides a ready justification for use of embedded librarians in online classes as librarians cannot offer face-to-face library instruction in online classes, and being embedded provides a convenient basis for contact. Typically, a librarian will be embedded in 1 to 10 online courses, while some are embedded in as many as 30 courses (Schroeder (2011). However, there is a tradeoff in that the more use that is made of a librarian’s services the fewer classes that librarian is able to cover. Overall, in their review of embedded librarian programs, Shumaker and Talley (2010) claim that the use of embedded librarians is “healthy and widespread” (p. 28) in online classes.
The same practicality which provides for the use of embedded librarians in online classes provides a challenge for development of such a program in face-to-face classes. Being embedded in a face-to-face class offers the obvious advantage of the librarian being able to develop a working relationship with students. However, there is the very real concern of librarians becoming overextended as there are practical limits on how many classes a librarian is able to attend.

**Purpose**

Shumaker and Talley (2010) claim “interest in the embedded services model is increasing, but there has been little systematic study of it. Not much is known about the factors that are associated with the model’s success and the requirements to initiate and sustain it” (p 27). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to first describe an alternative embedded model, next examine factors associated with the model’s success and finally identify some of the requirements to sustain the model.

**Alternative Model**

Fort Hays State University (FHSU) prides itself on a "High Tech, High Touch" approach to higher education: High Tech refers to the use of the latest technology, while High Touch refers to an emphasis on the human connection. The FHSU library has taken the High Touch theme to a new level by embedding librarians in selected on-campus social science courses. Currently, there are two Forsyth Library librarians participating in a pilot program providing this service. Following discussions of the concept of embedding librarians within on-campus classes during department meetings or consulting sessions, the librarians were approached by teaching faculty from two departments. As a result, one librarian is embedded within the English department and one within the Communication Studies department. These two disciplines had natural connections as the librarians are liaisons to those departments and had developed close ties with the teaching faculty in those departments. One of the librarians is also working with an on-line graduate level research methods class in Interdisciplinary Studies. That librarian also provides specialized assistance to the graduate research methods classes in the departments of Athletic Training, Communication Disorders, and Health & Human Performance. All of these classes, while not part of the social sciences per se, all use and teach social science research methodology and use social science databases (i.e. Communication and Mass Media Index, Psych Info, Sports Psychology).

In order to deal with the concern of becoming overextended by being embedded in on-campus classes and to provide maximum flexibility to the program, one librarian developed an embedded service option scale. Providing choices allows the librarians to offer the level of embeddedness that works best for the professor in a particular class, while at the same time is sensitive to the time commitments being made by the librarians. An explanation of each of the levels of services offered for on-campus classes follows:

**Level 1**
- Develop a discipline/course/assignment specific library research guide
- Supply library links within Blackboard for research assignments
- Collaborate with the professor in developing research assignments
- Become the personal contact librarian for the students in the class

**Level 2**
- The librarian will:
• Participate in all areas within level 1
• Participate in discussion board research related topic within Blackboard
• Attend 1-2 classes to teach about the resources the library has, tailored to the course. An additional third class could be scheduled for research time

Level 3 The librarian will:
• Participate in all areas within levels 1 and 2
• Attend 3-4 classes
• Teach one class about the resources the library has tailored to the course and a second one on critical thinking and evaluating skills
• Schedule department / class office hours
• Meet one on one with students either in library office / departmental office hours, email, phone

Level 4 The librarian will:
• Participate in all areas within levels 1-3
• Attend 5-10 classes becoming fully embedded in the class
• Participates in class discussion, team teaching of research skills, and grading library research related assignments.

All levels include individual research consultations and help for students and faculty via e-mail, phone, or by appointment.

Within the English department, each semester the librarian has been embedded in five Composition I and II classes. She is embedded at level 1 in four classes (one per semester) and at a level 3 in 1 Composition I (or II depending on the semester). The level 3 English class professor is comparing the grades and quality of research submitted by one of her Composition I (or II depending on the semester) class as compared to her other Composition I class which is at level 1. While English is typically considered as being in the “humanities,” students do have assignments which are social science focused. As an example, one embedded teaching assignment deals with researching and evaluating a product. Students use critical evaluation skills by applying them to a product they are interested in. Sample topics have ranged from a particular brand of toothpaste or coffee, to an entire clothing line (a particular designer). In order to complete the assignment, students must trace the history of the product and gather product reviews so that they can write a critical essay evaluating the product. Thus students are exposed to qualitative social science research methodology.

Within the Communication Studies department, one librarian is embedded at level one in 4 upper division classes each semester. They are Organizational Communication, Communication and Culture, Feature Writing, and Nonverbal Communication (fall) or Small Group Communication (spring). She is embedded within two graduate research methods classes at level 4. The fall graduate research methods class is a survey of research methods, while the spring class involves the completion of an entire quantitative research project. Attending all classes which are directly relevant to library research, means that in the fall she attends class at least once a week and in the spring at least once every other week. Each semester, she attends additional classes if there are student presentations or guest speakers. In the fall, where students are learning the research process by completing a limited research project, the librarian works closely with the students by focusing on research skills. She has individual research consultations with all of the students in the class at least once. Since there is
a large contingent of international students, there may be several additional consultations with small groups of students. In the spring where the research project is expanded into a complete study, the librarian will assist students by assisting them with a thorough search of the literature in order to obtain additional sources and by reviewing citations.

Within the on-line interdisciplinary research methods class, the librarian reviews assignments with the professor providing advice as to what resources are available, and assists the students with their research assignments by providing such services as identifying key words, assisting in locating resources, and refining research strategies. In addition the librarian will supply videos and tutorials dealing with research skills, along with providing a course specific library research guide. She works with the students within research related discussion sessions and is their chief contact relating to research skills.

Student / Faculty Feedback

There has been feedback from the professors as well as the students. Some of which are listed below:

- “Thank you so much for your help. I will admit that I have not had much on-line research experience or what I learned was over 15 years ago. Thanks so much for the help. I think I get it now!” ~ anonymous on-line student
- “That helps a lot! Thank you for the timely response!! The possible keywords will help tremendously!” ~ anonymous on-line student
- “This is great, because I was never really sure what databases included subject matter in my area.” ~ anonymous on-campus student
- “Powerful library tool,…inspired to take their research to higher levels of inquiry.” ~ English professor
- “This is so very helpful! … will benefit greatly from the wonderful resources…” ~ Communication Studies professor
- “Gets students involved, motivated, since you are in class they can see that you are there to help … creates an information culture.” ~ Communication Studies professor

Future Directions

The Kansas Board of Regents, the governing body for the 6 state universities and the 19 community colleges in the state, has called for the creation of a “New Literacies Alliance.” The goal of this program is to produce an information literacy MOOC (massive open on-line class) for use by all of the Regent’s universities. The MOOC will be produced via the collaborative efforts of librarians from all 6 state universities and instructional design personnel. The MOOC is envisioned to contain on-line modules which provide a series of lessons on learning library research skills that apply across all disciplines. The goal is to provide a means for students to learn to evaluate resources for a specific assignment. Potential units include: locating the best resources to use, evidence based evaluation, and the CRAAP test (currency, relevance, authority, accuracy and purpose). This multi-disciplinary program will be designed so that any department could assign students to complete the entire program or particular segments as a supplement to their class. Students will also be able to self-select segments they feel that they need. The initial program will be geared for undergraduate students. While multi-disciplinary in scope, the program will focus on disciplines which
emphasize research skills, e.g. history, psychology, sociology, and communication. The overall goal of the program is to insure that all students have access to the same resources whether they are on-campus or on-line.

Summary
While some view libraries as obsolete, the embedded librarian model is providing evidence of the continued utility of libraries. This paper has described an alternative on-campus, High Tech, High Touch embedded librarian model, described factors associated with the model’s operation and success and finally provided a glimpse into future of this program. The embedded librarian model has demonstrated that in spite of, or perhaps because of, the Internet libraries are here to stay.

References
Limitations of Communication

Alfonso Ippolito  
Tyler Junior College/University of Texas at Tyler

Robert L. Stevens  
University of Texas at Tyler
“No one would talk much in society if they knew how often they misunderstood others.”

John Wolfgang Goethe

As college teachers we have a responsibility to communicate to our students, not only for content which leads to understanding the subject matter we teach, but also to motivate and engage students to want to learn that content. Our student body is changing rapidly. Many of us teach not only “first generation” college students, but students that reflect our country’s diversity as well. To be more effective communicators we need to better understand the communication dynamics this change imposes on us. At the University of Texas at Tyler we keep data on our graduation rates for the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board. The data raises serious questions as to our institution’s effectiveness for the retention and graduation of minority students. (see Fig. 1)

There are many reasons that explain low graduation and retention rates not the least of which is economic. Students from disadvantage backgrounds remain a source of concern. In a recent article, (Stevens, 2013, p. 254) found that the disparity in test scores among minorities and poor students results from a history of underfunded educational programs at the Pre-K and elementary levels. In spite of remediation and intervention programs, students who enter high school unprepared will not achieve success on AP examinations. Robert Tai reminds us that using Advanced Placement programs as a means of achieving educational equity is similar to the approach taken by Affirmative Action. Stanley Arnowitz argued that “affirmative action,…has distracted the public from addressing the true problem: festering educational inequities (Tai, p. 42).” For many of our best students remaining in school is a constant struggle. But, we also believe that communication styles play a role in this problem. This paper will discuss the limitations to effective communication. Two areas: the human dimension and the technological dimension will be presented.

To begin, communication is the ability to communicate in a personally effective and socially appropriate manner or what we term communication competence (Ippolito, 2014). What we will address are the barriers to this positive definition of communication. Three barriers immediately come to mind: 1.barriers to listening, 2. barriers to accurate perceptions and 3.barriers to effective verbal communication.

Over 75% of executives believe that critical thinking skills will be more important to their organizations in the next three to five years (AMA 2010 Critical Skills Survey). CEOs surveyed by the American Management Association indicated that 81% considered innovation the single most important factor to ensure the future success of their business (U.S. Council on Competitiveness). “To succeed in college, undergraduates should be able to...listen with comprehension,” writes Boyer of the Carnegie Foundation (1987, p.73). Employers have identified listening as one of the top three skills they seek in job applicants, as well as a major determinant in promotion. In spite of these observations few undergraduates have the opportunity to develop listening skills as a fundamental ability for learning. Studies in the area of listening reveal just how complicated the task is. First, there is no agreement on what listening is nor is there agreement on how to teach it if you believe it is a skill. “In their key 1997 study, for example, listening experts Witkin and Trochim identified 15 separate groups of listening behaviors including such diverse variables as attention, analysis, auditory,
acuity, empathy, and information processing. No wonder, then, that is has been difficult for communication scholars to agree on a single definition of listening (Thompson, et al, 2004, p. 256).”

Groshek and Thompson, (1994) compiled a list of expectations faculty had of their students. We believe these expectations are based on assumptions that need to be questioned today.

Generally come to college equipped with foundational skills in listening.
Come to classes prepared to listen; that is, they have read the material, understand the vocabulary, and have a basic understanding of subject matter to be discussed.
Have conceptual skills necessary to fulfill such classroom expectations as analysis, problem-solving, and social interaction.
Are open-minded about subject matter and other’s perspective.
Have good observational skills of verbal and non-verbal communication and can record and report their observations accurately.
Are intellectually “present” throughout communication events in the classroom and remain focused on subject matter activities
Have the ability to “shift contextual gears”; they know they have to listen differently in philosophy class, versus listening in math class, versus listening in small group discussion class versus listening to friends at lunch.

It is no wonder our students don’t seem to hear what we are saying, and, conversely perhaps we don’t hear as well either. In addition, “add to this the complications of listening to knowledge, which is often abstract, and the fact that we are listening to people from a variety of cultures, and the stage may be set for more changes in our listening behaviors (Bentley, 2000, p. 130).” Not only are there impediments to listening but also there are limitations to student’s perceptions.

A.D. Smith reminds us in his article, Perceptions and Belief, that “In the normal course of things, perceivers tend to believe that the world is the way they perceive it to be (2001, p. 284).” In other words they believe that what they perceive is actually true. This position falls flat when we consider an optical illusion. A mirage does not necessarily imply that we will find water. In the same way that the medieval world believed that the world was flat was a perception not an objective belief any of our students as well as ourselves act according to what we perceive to be correct. This condition easily leads to stereotyping and generalization. The term “stereotype,” coined in 1798 by the French printer Dinot referred to a printing process to create reproductions. Walter Lippmann, a journalist used the term likened stereotypes to, “pictures in the head,” or mental reproductions of reality (Plous, p.1).” Many people upon hearing the stereotype Goth might immediately think of black clothes, black makeup, depressed or hated by society. This refers to an individual but we also have common stereotypes of a particular group of people or nation.

Stereotypes are not only harmful because they inevitable lead to prejudice and discrimination, but also because as a misperception it is incongruent with reality. A clear case of this is generalizing about Latinos as opposed to Mexican Americans. Cubans, Puerto Ricans, El Salvadorians, West Indians, etc. all have different cultural expectations and belief systems. By not understanding these subtle and not so subtle differences we fall prey to misunderstanding the students we teach.
Following the Holocaust, several theorists investigated the roots of racism, anti-Semitism, and prejudice. Theodor Adorno concluded that the key to key to prejudice lay in one’s personality; his description, the “authoritarian personality.” “Adorno and his coauthors (1950) described authoritarians as ridged thinkers who obey authority, saw the world as black and white, and enforced strict adherence to social rules and hierarchies (Plous, p.3).” In spite of criticism of their work, three elements were correct. (1) a politically conservative form of authoritarianism, known as “right-wing authoritarianism,” does correlate with prejudice. (2) People who view the world hierarchically are more likely than others to hold prejudices toward low-status groups. (3) Social dominance orientation tends to correlate with prejudice even more strongly than right-wing authoritarianism, and studies have linked it to anti-Black and anti-Arab prejudice, sexism, nationalism, opposition to gay rights, and other attitudes concerning social hierarchy.

Consistent with research on prejudice, psychological studies have found that stereotyping is a natural and common process in cultures around the world (Plous, p.14). Many studies suggest that stereotypes can powerfully affect social perception and behavior. People who are stereotyped face a threat that their behavior will confirm a negative stereotype. Steele and his colleagues describe this behavior as “stereotype threat” and state that it creates anxiety and hampers performance on a variety of tasks. (Steele, 1997) They provide several examples; Female math students taking a difficult test show a drop in performance when told the test reveals gender differences in math ability. Another study found that Asian women were made aware of their ethnicity, their math performance improved (in keeping with the stereotype of Asians as good at math) but when made aware of their gender, their math performance declined.

A troubling aspect of stereotyping is that it easily leads to discrimination. In spite civil rights legislation discrimination remains a serious problem. Here a few examples:

According to a review of more than 100 studies by the U.S. institute of Medicine, discrimination contributes to racial disparities in health care and higher death rates among minorities from cancer, heart disease, diabetes, and H.I.V. infection (Smedley, Stith & Nelson, 2002)
Hispanics and Blacks spend an average of over $3,000 more than Whites to locate and buy the same house (Yinger, 1998), often receive harsher criminal sentences than Whites for the same offense (Mauer, 1999), and are generally less likely to be hired than comparable White job applicants (Turner, Fix, & Struyk, 1991).
Women earn an average of $.76 for every male dollar (Bowler, 1999) and face employment discrimination of such magnitude that recent settlements have run into the hundreds of millions of dollars (Molotsky, 2000; Truell, 1997).
A U.S. Justice Department found that handicap –access provisions for disabled people were violated in 98% of the housing developments investigated (Belluck, 1997).

What strategies can we employ for our students to help them reduce their level of discrimination? First, we must recognize the difficulty in reducing discrimination. One of the major barriers to this is the difficulty people have detecting it at the individual level. It is difficult for us to serve as our own control group to test whether we would have received better treatment as a member of a more privileged group. It is much easier to
detect discrimination with aggregated evidence than a single case because single cases are more difficult to explain away. And, many of us may deny discrimination because we may not have any control of the situation. As a result of these and other reasons, women and minorities are more likely to perceive discrimination against their group than against themselves personally (Crosby, 1984; Taylor, Wright, & Porter, 1994). Now that we have presented a survey of the human dimension to communication, we will discuss implications for the technological dimension of communication.

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is defined as a “wide range of technologies facilitating both human communication and the interactive sharing through computer networks.” CMC is linked with digital literacy, asynchronous learning and the removal of face-to-face communication.

Notwithstanding the significant attention and literature devoted to technology and education, there appears to be comparatively little empirically sound research upon which policy makers might base informed decisions. By empirically sound we mean research that addresses testable hypotheses using experimental or quasi-experimental methods, subjecting the data to appropriate statistical treatment, and drawing conclusions consistent with the purposes and methods employed.

Computer-mediated world-wide networks have enabled a shift from contiguous learning groups to asynchronous distributed learning groups utilizing computer-supported collaborative learning environments. Although these environments can support communication and collaboration, both research and field observations are not always positive about their workings.

Collaborative learning leads to deeper level learning, critical thinking, shared understanding, and long term retention of the learned materials (e.g. Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). It also provides opportunities for developing social and communication skills (developing social and communication skills), developing positive attitudes towards co-members and learning material, and building social relationships and group cohesion (Johnson & Johnson, 1989, 1999).

[We] cannot truly transform educational practice for the better through utilizing new technologies unless we examine the roles computer (technology) can play in truly stimulating, supporting and favoring innovative learning interactions that are linked to conceptual development and improvements in understanding (Ravenscroft, 2001. P.134)

Gilbert and Moore (1998) argue that “social interaction between students and teachers and teachers between students and students can have little to do with instructional learning, but can help create a positive (or a negative) learning environment” (p.30). Similarly Northrup (2001) contends that through social interaction “the opportunity for learning more about peers and connecting them in non-task specific conversation is more likely to occur. Although social interaction may have very little to do with a course, it is still valued as a primary vehicle for student communications in a Web-based learning environment” (p.32). Rovai (2001) lent support to these hypotheses when he found evidence that “community was stronger in the program that provided learners more and diverse {non-task} opportunities to interact with each other and that the most important community components in which groups differed were spirit and trust” (105).
Interpersonal effects of using computer-mediated communication include (social psychological and organizational communications research report negative effects of CMC on impression formation and relational communication behavior) (e.g. Rice, 1993; for a review see Garton & Wellman, 1995; Walter et al., 1994). One of the factors contributing to impression formation is the exchange of nonverbal cues conveying socio-emotional and affective information. These cues are usually transmitted by vision (e.g. facial expressions, posture, gaze and gestures), olfaction (e.g. use of Cologne/perfume, body odor), and/or audition (e.g. voice volume, inflection and tone). Based on these cues, learners develop individualizing impressions of fellow group members. Since CMC is text based, it cannot transfer this kind of information. Short et al. (1976) note that in “most cases, the functions of the non-verbal cues have been some way related to forming, building or maintaining the relationships between the reactants. The absence of the visual channel reduces possibilities for expression of the socio-emotional materials and decreases the information available about the others self-image, attitudes, moods and reactions. So regarding the medium as an information transmission system, the removal of the visual channel is likely to produce a serious disturbance of the affective interaction…” (p. 59-60).

Students who have excellent teachers and adequate resources do indeed have a better chance for success. I begin each semester on the first day of all my Communication classes, albeit a course regarding the Fundamentals of Communication, Presentational Speaking for Business and Professional or an Introduction to Communication course with a bold and truthful statement. I actually make each student aware on the first day of class that they walked through the door of my classroom as fully skilled, competent and capable communicators. I explain that it is very obvious to me that they possess these practical communication skills or they would not have been able to select the course, register, find and be in attendance in the classroom at the designated time. Their communication skills have for all practical instances, up to this time, served them all well and good.

However, this chapter nor this course is not about what most students or you the reader assume what effective communication is really all about. Yes, they and you, are about to embark upon a journey to rediscover the significance and the value of communication. In order to demonstrate our approach we want you to hear what one of our Tyler Junior College students said about these principals. Sean Fitzpatrick, a sophomore wrote the following essay. We couldn’t have expressed it better.

**What I learned in Mr. I’s First Class**

**The 10 “I isms”**

The first things that Mr. I emphasized to the class and to myself is the fact that Mr. I is not my teacher but rather Mr. I is my coach. It appears to me that there are few things touching upon effective business communication in general and speech making/delivery that can be effectively taught; certainly general principles can be conveyed but the most effective way to learn is to do. In addition when a speech is given the experience has the potential to edify in more ways than merely the conveyance of information: first, it can bolster the confidence of the speaker insomuch as the realization that the occurrence is survivable; second, for those who witness the
oration can garner tips on how to improve their own technique; third, the constructive critique of the listeners is helpful for the speaker insomuch as to point out weaknesses and places of improvement that were heretofore unknown; and forth, the expert advice of the coach will offer the most amount of assistance for those of us with little or no practical public speaking familiarity.

**The second principle that I learned in Mr. I’s class is that he does everything for a reason and it is my job to discern what he is doing and why.** It occurs to me the reason for this exercise is to improve my observational and critical thinking skills. If I take note of something that is entirely outside the realm of my understanding, I am presented with a unique opportunity to strive fervently to achieve comprehension; allowing for the provision that Mr. I is acting purposefully.

**The third ‘I ism’ taught by Mr. I is that he does not like to assume (Ass-U-Me).** If assumptions are made, potential limitations are unjustly placed upon people and sources of information. If I assume I can limit my experiences and my own growth.

**The fourth principle that I learned in Mr. I’s first class is that he cannot make me happy, or sad.** This makes sense as these emotions are eminently transient and fleeting. Further to that notion, only the individual has the ability to achieve happiness or sorrow insomuch as they are reactionary emotions (e.g. a great experience or a personal tragedy) and even those are affected by how we chose to process each instance.

**The Fifth truth impressed upon me by Mr. I is that it is his job to see that I am successful.** This is the salient point of the entire class. Effective communication is essential in a myriad of professions and personal instances. Even if public speaking does not even enter into what is to be attempted in the future by me (notwithstanding that I expect that it will), learning how to properly communicate an idea to groups ranging from two to two-hundred will be invaluable to any achievement that I set out to accomplish.

**The sixth truth that Mr. I said in his first class was that to be an effective communicator I must have compassion, empathy, humility, and respect.** In regards to this class it makes sense to display all these attributes. We are to be compassionate insofar as we all need to be sympathetic to how nervous and uneasy people can get even addressing a small audience; empathic insomuch as we know that each of us has to do the same thing. We need to remain humble for our own sake, so as according to the well known proverb, “pride comes before a fall”, and for the sake of the others who will be speaking, so as to avoid causing unnecessary discomfort for those who are already scared enough. The last trait, respect, should remind us to show respect for our own efforts so as to give it all that we can and to respect the works of others and give them our full attention.

**The seventh “I ism” is to “Be Aware.”** Indubitably, I may be missing some deeper arcane meaning; however, whenever there is a question, always remember Isim number two, “Mr. I does everything for a reason...” The best I can recall in my understanding, to be aware is to further sharpen the skill of observation. This seems essential in both giving and listening to a speech. After all, if during your oration you fail to notice that you are boring your audience to death chances are you will fail to understand how you can improve and more effectively convey information. Also, if you
are not aware while observing someone else’s address, your chances of improving by example diminish dramatically.

**The eighth principle that Mr. I said is that he likes to “peal the onion.”** This form of examination is undoubtedly meant to encourage us to look deeper into subjects. That will help us form a more complete picture and a superior speech.

**The ninth principle underlined by Mr. I was the secret of public speaking was understanding power.** It occurs to me that power, in this instance refers to the potential that each one of us has to be a great orator.

**The tenth I’ism taught in Mr. I’s first class was that this class was all about me.** I am the only one who can accomplish victory. I am the only one who can achieve success. No one will do it for me.

Conclusions: Pointers for Future Research and Practice

It is clear from our research that we as teachers need to view our roles differently. We need to continue to teach our disciplines for content and analytical knowledge as we always have but we must also take into account the needs of our students as well. This will involve perhaps a different way of evaluating our performance to include more emphasis on rapport and engagement. And, finally with increased use of technology planning becomes essential.

Ronald Ferguson, of the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard and the late John Ogbu studied the achievement gap in suburban schools. Both researchers garnered similar results, though different in emphasis. “For Ferguson, the role of the teacher and the school is to encourage the individual student to meet the demands of academic work by changing classroom practices. For Ogbu, students will perform better and be more engaged in school if they are helped to modify parts of their collective identity that reject school success, through caring individual and institutional practices (Flaxman,).”

Following recommendations both researchers suggest “because students value and respond to encouragement, teachers need to provide it routinely and teachers need to recognize that their expectations have an effect on their student’s concept of themselves as learners and achievers and the internalization of negative or positive beliefs about their intelligence. Educational disparity may be a result of teacher’s attitudes and the pervasive influence of a history of segregation than of intellectual differences ascribed by some. In other words, we must invite all students into our classroom, expect high standards, and treat them with compassion, empathy, humility and respect.”
References

**Figure 1**

Percent of First-Time, Degree-seeking Freshman Who Earn a Baccalaureate Degree within Six Academic Years

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Metamorphism of Entrepreneurship to Establish Consumer Centricity

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Abstract:
The exposition of the paper examines the changing focus of the nature of entrepreneurship theory and in particular the examination of dynamic behavior leading to innovation in today's prevalent global scenarios. The prominent attributes and models of Entrepreneurship leading to the discovery of opportunities for creating social ventures are showcased using assorted patterns and emphasis on the perception of opportunities and creation of organizations to pursue them is evaluated. Finally, conclusions are drawn using different dimensions that help attain consumer centricity.

1. Introduction
Today's international entrepreneurship primary focus is to create value and organizations that involve innovative, proactive and risk-taking behavior in multiple countries. Entrepreneurship has always been associated with either the firms or the individuals but the focus on non-business entrepreneurship i.e., 'consumer' has been relatively uncharted. Growth and efficiency in the present economy is fuelled by information and communication technologies where there is need for consumers who exploit opportunities to produce and market products globally. By creating value using online communities consumers have utilized the opportunities and developed the managerial implications thoroughly.

Business has seen a paradigm shift from that of closed or enterprise-centric innovation to lead user or open innovation (Chesbrough, 2003). Age old perspective that organizations know everything is being gradually replaced by growing recognition that consumers are active and constitute to the development of innovations. This has given the consumers ample prospects to act as informal entrepreneurs in the global markets. Rise of internet based communication technologies and numerous platforms for online/virtual collaboration have enabled consumers co-generate, co-design, co-innovate and co-consume with others. Internet based communication technologies (like Skype, GTalk), online supporting infrastructures (like PayPal, Paymate) and online/virtual communities (Amazon, eBay) have all led to the emergence of consumers who have the proficiency in international business and entrepreneurship, economics and marketing networks.

2. Literature Review and Background
Unprecedented prospects for innovative consumers has been made possible due to externalization. The mobility of diverse resources that facilitate the interactive technologies have paved its way for individual consumers to stay in an interconnected world for free (Jeppesen & Frederiksen, 2006). In network economics we learn that the preference of the consumer depends on the preference of the masses. The increase in number of individual users joining a community such as Amazon for e.g., is directly proportional to the unification of the consumers who help in co-creating and co-producing opportunities and act as international entrepreneurs. This is a self-sustaining and self-reinforcing loop that upholds the increase in potential consumers.

In today's economy, businesses can gain more influence and control over the consumers consumption options by participating in the co-production and co-creation along with the consumers. By doing so, the bridge between the product and the consumer would not only be vanished but will assist the businesses influence their
strategies along with the preference of the community in the international market. Consumers believe that through sharing they can enhance product development and commercialization which can also be used for their personal consumption. Research shows that individuals are willing to help strangers solve technical problems in the online world (Constant, Sproull & Kiesler, 1996) on a user to user basis at no cost. Global entrepreneurship at the level of end user can be seen in this cyber culture that encourages co-creation and co-production of opportunities and values.

In order to widen market influence firms are in pursuit of strategies of externalization instead of internalization to build value. This can be established by consumers utilizing innovative technologies to bond with one another with the help of specialized competencies through deeds, processes and performances (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Research in entrepreneurship has always been ruled by established multinational companies and views the consumers in a conventional approach in the marketing literature. Thus, making the established organizations the episcope of global marketing. With changing times and the influence of the prevalent new economy, firms have started treating consumers as international entrepreneurs who discover, estimate and utilize prospects for both non-financial and financial reasons. Value conception using online/virtual communities will enhance the expansion of cross-border resource patterns that would help market products without pursuing venture creation across national borders. Consumers go beyond their limitations to dynamically innovate and then share or sell their innovation. Equipping consumers with online communities and technologies will give them the ability to trade and exchange not just domestically but across borders as well. High variety of demand with comparatively low opportunity costs for the consumer is giving the consumers an edge in the emerging market which is turbulent and uncertain (Shah & Tripas, 2007). For firms to ascertain consumer centricity they must understand the unique concept of consumers as global entrepreneurs whose conventional locus is on modernization, production and consumption.

3. Consumerism and sustainability
Consumers do not optimize the selection of markets based on costs and neither do they conduct strategic planning in the domestic or international markets for the rate of return on their investments (Dunning, 1988). According to Johanson and Mattsson (1988), network extension and integration occurs at the level of the consumers or communities and not at the business level. Consumers rely on the sources available and do not depend on external strategies nor are they confined to any limitations. Businesses concern is all about yielding profits and dealing with the enduring concerns of the buyers while the consumers on the other hand are much eager to engage in experimentation, changing the perceptions of the community and organizations, learning as well as building reputation in the community (Lakhani & von Hippel, 2003). Consumers follow informal entrepreneurship patterns rather than formal business entrepreneurship. Theories suggest that business entrepreneurs are driven by motives such as competency, productivity, resource planning, market capitalization, new ventures and strategic asset seeking for their business to survive the competition and grow profitably while the consumer entrepreneurs are driven by user entrepreneurship motives (Dunning, 1993).
The centralized notion in entrepreneurship draws its limits linking the roles of innovators, producers and consumers that allocates firms to innovative and produce offers that are later consumed by users. However, there is a shifting paradigm in the new economy that drifts from the businesses and entrepreneurs to consumers and communities who co-innovate, co-generate and co-consume. There has been constant internal and external gush of modernization between the organizations and the consumers ever since (Surowiecki, 2004). Due to the rapid boost of knowledgeable and well heeled consumers who play a proactive role via online and virtual communities, the conventional perception of low labor costs that drives overseas direct investment into developing countries needs to be reassessed. The new-fangled locus of modernization, generation and consumption has inclined to the consumers and individual users and communities instead of organizations.

The prevailing logic that evolve around co-creation and co-production of goods and services is implied to diverse economies across all borders. Value creation and service delivery can be established with the help of pervasive technology that can facilitate in marketing the product via digital media or by electronically storing and downloading the product which later can be uploaded and utilized. The basic principle concerning market in consumer entrepreneurship is to make sure that supply meets demand in a tangible market place. Markets exist in the form or 2-dimensional communities (e.g., Amazon, eBay), 4-dimensional virtual communities (e.g., Second Life) or collaborative communities (e.g., Linux). Manifestation of the new economies are these communities where the platform is in real time and the modifications in market information is instantaneous. These markets overpass information asymmetry and irregularities which makes them proficient (Burt, 1997). As the time span to build knowledge on the markets is minimal, the initial capital is low and lesser hurdles are faced in these instances as a result of which consumers entrust significant resources to online and collaborative market without confining to country boundaries. This allocates the consumers additional liberty thereby swaying towards customer preference structure where they learn and form preferences for the product and services (Nakamoto & Carpenter, 1994). This helps the consumers to act as entrepreneurs by determining the market and prevailing designs of technology.

4. Consumerism and Entrepreneurship

Metamorphism of entrepreneurship relating to consumer centricity relies on the consumers influence on other consumers or end users as well as on the organizations. These entrepreneurial acts substantiate the idea of consumers as international entrepreneurs. Manifestation of consumers as entrepreneurs can be described in considerations which deal with the supply side of the economy that have consequences on the marketing side of the economy. These variables i.e., supply and demand are consumer centric that reveal the interface of marketing and entrepreneurship.

The nature of entrepreneurship has its influence on the consumer preference patterns in diverse markets in order to benefit from different pricing for the same asset. This is well illustrated in the kirznerian view as an arbitrageur who identifies misalignment and by novel assumptions relations creates new value for the product (kirzner, 1998). Entrepreneurs who portray these attributes bridge the gap to overcome these differences with the help of their aforementioned skills to give stability to the economy. A
relatively different notion of entrepreneurship comes from Schumpeterian view as an innovator who develops new products, new sources of supplies, new ways to produce including new ways of organizing the inventory available (Schumpeter, 1934). These two styles of entrepreneurship harmonize one other and the value chain is allocated amid individual consumers.

Individual consumers play a crucial role in the financial markets as well who when required operate as online bankers or venture capitalists to offer business and personal loans using their own funds (Kupp & Anderson, 2007). These financers identify with the challenges to acquire funding from reputable organizations and associations by typical borrowers. Also, these entrepreneurial financers not just dwell upon to generate added revenues but also instinct for altruistic motives like supporting other peers who have ethical values (Humle & Wright, 2006). Emerging phenomenon of consumer centric entrepreneurship can be well ascertained with the breakthrough in innovation, valuation and exploitation of opportunities across domestic and international boundaries. The modern activities and practices of consumer centric entrepreneurship extends to individual consumers who enthusiastically participate in modernization, invention, distribution and utilization of products globally and also engage in unceremonious entrepreneurship for monetary or non-monetary reasons. We have to acknowledge the fact that consumers fade away the distinction between consumption, production and distribution which will pave way better incorporation of marketing principles with global organizations and entrepreneurs.

The ambiguity concerning the venture age is one of the unanswered queries in entrepreneurship and in order to ascertain a point of inception organizations should rely on supply and demand (Oviatt and McDougall, 1994). However, there is a contradicting disagreement by Vesper (1990) that materialization of venture can be progressively established only with increase in time span wherein the consumers widen their skills, network and supplies.

5. Conclusion

The cognitive capabilities of consumers are applicable not merely for the economic growth of organizations but emphasizes further on other non peculiar intentions as well. Micro and macro management perceptions can be applied to network economics to determine the sustainability of consumer centricity. A perception that large multinational corporations are booming than other smaller organizations is due to the fact that consumers are acting as informal entrepreneurs is being revealed as a pertinent reality as per recent studies and research. The performance of multinational corporations in today's prevalent competitive market is for the reason that the impact of consumers has drastically increased the productivity, efficiency, quality and sustainability that had led to externalization of firms. The prospects for network externality is interconnected to distributed intelligence that presents opportunities for maturity of theory and its refinement. There will be a considerable and momentous attention on the consumers and their communities in the years to come for them to act as informal entrepreneurs across national borders which would be the democratization of consumer entrepreneurship. As rightly said by Holcombe (2003), more entrepreneurial opportunities are formed upon by each entrepreneurial action.
Customer value and entrepreneurship play a arbitrating role of integrated market orientation and modernization that is correlated to organizations performance. For businesses to deliver value to consumers entrepreneurship plays an imperative role and firms need to widen market orientation that drives innovation. Also, businesses must to be proactive in clutching the opportunities in the market and investing their capabilities which helps them to deliver superior value to consumers. Businesses need to understand the fact that modernization of the market is more momentous to the organization's success than the product innovation which assists in attaining consumer centricity more affluently.
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The Impact of Social Media on Undergraduate College Students and the Workplace

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Purpose
This study was conducted at a Historically Black University in the Mid-Atlantic Region of the U.S. using “The Social Media Survey”. The purpose of this study was to explore undergraduate students’ perceptions of social media relative to educational outcomes. A secondary purpose of the study was to ascertain how social media affects employees in the workplace. The study also sought to better understand how social media affects undergraduates in both positive and negative ways. For this study, social media included Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, and other social media networks.

Background
Social networking allows individuals to build connections and relationships. Research findings on the impact of social media on undergraduate students is limited. Few researchers have studied the effects of modern social networking websites such as Facebook (Jordan, 2013). However, social networking has caused a fundamental and transformational shift in the way that people are connecting. Knowledge is being shared and information is flowing (Nolinske, 2013). The more that we know about how social media impacts college students, the more we can maximize their overall development and educational outcomes.

Literature Review: Academic Achievement
Most research on media use and academics has focused on adolescents rather than new college students or has examined a few forms of media (Science Daily, 2013). Karpinski (2009) in a pilot study found that there was a relationship with the use of Facebook and lower grades. Excessive media use in early adulthood may possibly get in the way of studying. Texting, Social Networking and other media use has been linked to poor academic performance (Science Daily, 2013). Researchers have also found that widespread use of social media can take an academic toll (Surcin, 2013).

Literature Review: The Workplace
While social media has changed the way we communicate, these applications present great opportunities for businesses in the areas of public relations, internal and external communications, recruiting, organizational learning and collaboration, however, the use of social media is not without risks. Employee use of these sites, whether for personal use or as an official part of the employer’s social media strategy, can open the door to certain liabilities (Ployhart, 2012). On the other hand, social media can be helpful to employees in the workplace relative to social acceptance, fostering better communication, job satisfaction, etc. (Munene & Nyaribo, 2013).

Hypotheses
The following are the hypotheses of the study:
1. There will be a negative correlation between academic achievement and social media.
2. What is the impact of social media in the workplace?
Methods

Participants
One hundred (100) Undergraduate students at a Historically Black University in the Mid-Atlantic Region participated in the study. Relative to gender, 79% of the participants were female and 16% of the participants were male. The breakout of students relative to classification was: Freshman (24), Sophomore (5), Junior (24), and Senior (47). Students with various majors participated, however, 72% were Psychology majors. Over half of the students had a GPA between 3.49 to 3.00. Table 1 includes the GPA demographics.

(See Table 1)

Data Collection Procedures and Instrumentation
Data were collected using the “Social Media Survey” developed by the researcher to measure student perceptions of their use of social media and the use of social media in the workplace. The survey included closed-ended questions on how often students used social media, which social media networks they used, and how they used social media in the classroom and in the workplace. Participants completed the surveys over the course of multiple weeks. The “Social Media Survey” included scales for Media Use overall, Social Media and Others, and Social Media in the Workplace. Demographics were included to gather information on gender, ethnicity, classification, major, and GPA.

Results

Descriptive Analysis – Academic Achievement
Descriptive Analysis confirmed that Facebook (35% used Facebook a few times per week) and Twitter (close to 30% used it a few times per week) were used less, however, Instagram was used most with over 50% of the participants confirming that they use it constantly.

(See Figure 1)

Other variables that were explored included the time that students spent in class on Facebook and Twitter; how often students checked their phones for text messages or notifications daily, and if students found it easy to use their phone and do homework at the same time. Sixty (60) percent of the participants confirmed that they spend a quick second on social media while in class, while close to 20 percent of the students confirmed that they spend most of their time in class using social media.

(See Figure 2)

Results confirmed that sixty-five (65) percent of the students checked their phone for test messages or notifications daily. Over fifty (50) percent of the students confirmed that they use their phone and do homework at the same time.

(See Figure 3)

Statistical Analysis – Academic Achievement
The first hypothesis stated that there would be a negative correlation between academic achievement and social media. The hypothesis was not supported using correlational
testing. It could not be determined that there was a correlation between GPA and the use of social media (Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram).

**Descriptive Analysis – The Workplace**

The second hypothesis sought to confirm the impact of social media in the workplace. Results confirmed that over forty (40) percent of the participants sometimes use social media on the job.

*(See Figure 4)*

Over thirty (30) percent of the participants confirmed that they used social media on the job because of boredom. However, seventy-one (71) percent confirmed that they do not express feelings about the workplace on social media. Less than fifty (50) percent of the participants confirmed that social media kept them motivated on the job.

**Discussion**

As a teacher, it is important to understand how social media impacts student academic achievement so that we can maximize educational outcomes to the extent possible. Once we have a feel for student perceptions of social media, we can use this information to implement some simple strategies to help reach more students, increase their conceptual understanding, and make a real difference in student performance, attitude, and self-confidence.

One of the limitations of the study was the sample size. There were only 100 participants for this study. A larger sample size would be beneficial for future studies. Topics for future research should focus on demographic differences including gender relative to social media and the positive and negative ways that social media impacts both teachers and students in the classroom and the workplace. It would also be beneficial to study how teachers can use social media in the classroom to maximize educational outcomes and what hinders or promotes success in the classroom relative to the use of social media.

In summary, this study is directly linked to improving the awareness of students’ perceptions of how social media impacts their lives. Increased awareness is expected to change their knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes about both the positive and negative impacts of social media. Further, this study has the possibility of informing teachers about student perceptions of social media and its potential impact on student academic achievement. These views can be considered when working toward improving achievement and motivation, and ultimately the academy and the workplace.

**References**


### Table 1. GPA Demographics

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### Figure 1. Instagram Use
Figure 2. Time spent in class on Social Media

Figure 3. Use phone and do homework at the same time

Figure 4. Use of Social Media on the Job
Stille Nacht, Joyeux Noel: Christmas in the Trenches

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Introduction

The year 2014 marks the centennial commemoration of the beginning of The Great War. This “greatness” is fitting for several reasons: the involvement of combatants from all five continents; the number of countries involved; the first widespread usage of sophisticated, mechanized instruments of transportation and artillery; the introduction of chemical weapons; the huge number of combatant fatalities; and the four-year, veritable stalemate of progress in resolving a conflict that never should have reached the level of a war.

Any or all of these are worthy of careful scrutiny. Yet one unintended event may be the most memorable occurrence of this four-year nightmare. One brief moment of peace, of humanity at its best, of opposing forces pausing to remember a shared religious heritage and compassion for their fallen comrades stands out. This was the Christmas Peace of 1914.

The Path to the Trenches

None of these young men realized that their leaders had lied to get them to fight in a war that did not have to happen.

Jim Murphy, The Truce

By 1914, all of Europe was a primordial soup of anxiety and distrust. On June 28 of that year, ethnic and political tension finally exploded in the form of gunshots when a young Serb killed Austria’s Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife on the streets of Bosnia-Herzegovina in Sarajevo. A month later, Austria-Hungary, issued Serbia an ultimatum containing fifteen demands for reparation. This document required the Serbs to accede to extremely harsh terms within 48 hours. Since none of the European countries expected Serbia to acquiesce, most of them began to exercise alliances and send troops to protect their borders in anticipation of the outbreak of war.

Serbia accepted all of the mandates but requested that The Hague, in neutral Holland, be the site of the judicial process. It appeared there would be no war. However, with promises of support from Germany’s Kaiser Wilhelm, Franz Josef decided to invade Serbia. When Kaiser Wilhelm studied the Serbian acceptance of Austria’s terms, he was amazed that war was imminent. “A moral success for Vienna; but with it every reason for war drops away...After such a thing I should never have ordered mobilization” (as cited by Stoessinger, 1985, p. 8-9). Wilhelm quickly sent a message to his foreign representative in Austria requesting stoppage of the hostilities, but his message arrived too late. Austria-Hungary began shelling Serbia on July 29, 1914 and the Great War began.

War!

Man’s inhumanity to man
Makes countless thousands mourn!

Robert Burns

Initially, many European citizens exhibited national pride and patriotism even in previously politically divisive countries such as Russia and Austria-Hungary. Most believed that economic dependency linked by international trade would preclude extended military activity (Wakefield, 2006, p. ix). Soon after the outbreak of hostilities, negative propaganda flourished as a form of misguided patriotic rhetoric. Most
participants sought to characterize their enemies as bullies, monsters, or vicious animals in news articles and political cartoons (Brown, 1994, p. 1-2).

The German battle plan was that of its former military commander, Albert von Schlieffen, which sought to avoid war on two fronts by capturing Paris and defeating France within six weeks before turning east to conquer Russia. The plan failed due to the tenacious resistance of the Belgian army, the swift mobilization of the Russian army, and the German failure to provide sufficient troops and supplies for a pincer maneuver through Belgium. After a war of movement in the west, the armies suddenly faced a stalemate along nearly five hundred miles of entrenched troops from the Swiss border to the North Sea.

Life and Death in the Trenches

_The spade will be as great a necessity as the rifle._

British Commander Sir John French

Some of the zigzagging battle works were only 60 to 100 yards apart and combatants could not only hear but also see their enemies. The fall and winter weather encumbered movement of supplies through knee-high mud and made life miserable for those consigned to the freezing, water-filled depressions. German artist Otto Dix described the ditches as: “lice, rats, barbed wire, fleas, shells, bombs, underground caves, corpses, blood, liquor, mice, cats, artillery, filth, bullets, mortars, fire, steel: that’s what war is. It is the work of the devil” (as cited in Weintraub, 2002, p. 2).

By December of 1914, war on the Western front was cold, dreary, and frustrating. Periodic artillery bombardment from miles behind the lines continued as well as ill-advised orders to “go over the top” and attack the enemy in their trenches. These raids were seldom successful and always costly in terms of casualties. Defenders were rarely surprised. Hasty retreats made recovery of the dead and wounded nearly impossible. Weary soldiers prepared for a long and arduous winter with no hope of victory in sight. In five months of the war, casualties included more than a million dead and many more wounded (Murphy, 2009, p. 45).

The soldiers of two armies commanded by grandsons of British Queen Victoria, Kaiser Wilhelm and George V, faced each other realizing they would celebrate a holiday, they all revered, at war (Weintraub, 2006, p. 1). Both sides shared common traditions of religious and secular celebrations yet their commanders ordered extreme vigilance lest they lose ground. As the last week of December approached the miserable weather discouraged aggressive activity. Indeed, though snipers were always functioning, everyday activities slowed to the maintenance of personal necessities, of shoring up collapsing trenches, burying fallen comrades, coping with dysentery, and caring for the wounded.

Occasionally bored soldiers would verbally mock each other or trade insults or taunts across the open area known as “No Man’s Land.” Some nights they even serenaded each other. A seventeen-year-old soldier wrote to his parents in London that, “We were so close, we threw tins of bully beef over to them or jam or biscuits and they threw things back. It wasn’t done regularly, just an occasional sort of thing” (as cited in Murphy, 2009, p. 49). Small-scale truces of several hours occurred allowing both sides to recover the dead and wounded trapped between the front lines. During these activities, it was clear that both armies were equally miserable (Wakefield, 2006, p. 2).
High-ranking Allied officers discouraged any fraternization and spurred their forces into action by ordering several full-scale attacks. The British mounted a hasty assault on German positions up a muddy hill near Somme in France. The attacks were "ill prepared, on too small a scale to be more than a gesture, and impeded by almost impossible ground" (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 41). This complete failure cost the British 400 casualties. Unfortunately, several days later, British newspapers carried fallacious versions of a total success (Murphy, 2009, p. 51). German troops retaliated by attacking British troops for four days near the North Sea along the French and Belgian border, resulting in thousands of casualties.

As Christmas approached friends and relatives sent holiday packages to encourage their brave troops and remind them of more pleasant holidays at home. The front lines were flooded with so many packages that it was difficult to deliver them. All British troops, some two and a half million, got a Christmas card from the King and Queen and a tin, pocket-sized, Princess Mary gift box containing a pipe, pipe tobacco, twenty cigarettes, a tinder lighter, a tiny Christmas card, and a photograph of the princess (Wakefield, 2006, p. 4).

Non-smokers received a tin box containing a packet of acid drops (candy), a khaki writing case with pencil, paper, envelopes, the Christmas card and the princess’s photograph (Wakefield, 2006, p. 5). Boxes for Indian combatants contained sugar candy and spices (Brown, p. 118). British supply officers complained that these packages were "a positive nuisance. Our enemy thinks of war, and nothing else, whilst we must mix it up with plum pudding" (as cited in Murphy, 2009, p. 54).

Their German counterparts suffered the same distractions. Kaiser Wilhelm sent his German troops cigars in a case engraved with “Weihnacht im Felde 1914” (Christmas in the Field 1914) and Crown Prince Wilhelm sent a meerschaum pipe with his own portrait adorning it (Brown, 1994, p. 118). Gifts from German families contained pipes, tobacco, puddings, and sausages in addition to thousands of “tannenbaum,” small Christmas trees decorated with candles (Murphy, 2009, p. 54).

The winter weather in northern Europe was horrendous. Lieutenant Sir Edward Hulse of the 2/Scots Guards wrote home about a soldier who got both feet stuck in the clay and when told to get up by an officer he “had to get on all fours; then he got his hands stuck in too; and was caught like a fly on flypaper; all he could do was look round and say to his pals, ‘For Gawd’s sake, shoot me!’” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 9). Second lieutenant Arthur Pelham-Burn said that he thought he knew what mud was, but he was wrong. “The mud here varies from 6 inches to 3 and 4 feet, even 5 feet” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 19.) E.E. Holdsworth wrote in his diary on Dec. 23, “Bit of luck. Dugout fell in just where I sleep. Was @ breakfast @ the time. No damage done” (sic, handwritten, 1914, December 23-26, Private papers, diary, IWM). Percy Hughes Jones remembered, “Everything was underwater, dug-outs collapsing and the parapet constantly falling in and having to be rebuilt. In one place the water was waist deep and crossed by a complicated and rickety system of plank bridges none too easy to navigate in the dark” (1914, December 27, p. 91 IWM).

A Sight One Will Never See Again
I shall never forget it. It was one of the highlights of my life.
Albert Moren, 2nd Queen’s Regiment near La Chapelle d'Armentieres
On December 23, both sides began a nightly serenade of Christmas carols in anticipation of the religious feast. On the morning of December 24, the temperature dropped dramatically and a light snow fell in many areas of the trenches. The ever-present snipers fired the only shots. On Christmas Eve, British Private Albert Moren wrote that he heard a commotion in the German trenches. As he glanced toward the enemy lines he was amazed to see a small cluster of lights glowing in the cold, moonlit night. “And then [the Germans] sang Silent Night!” (as cited in Murphy, 2009, p. 58).

Small Christmas trees, alight with candles, appeared on top of the German parapets accompanied by haunting, harmonious, and emotional singing. Franz Gruber’s 1818 hymn and Joseph Mohr’s lyrics, though little known to the British, were familiar to every German soldier (Brown, 1994, p. 57).

Rifleman Graham Williams wrote that the spectacle was so unusual, the British awakened their comrades and a choral interchange ensued. Each side took turns singing familiar carols until the British began O Come All Ye Faithful and the Germans immediately joined in with the Latin version of Adeste Fideles. “And I thought, well, this was really a most extraordinary thing – two nations both singing the same carol in the middle of a war” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 59). In several areas cautious soldiers shouted assurances of “no shooting” and ventured out of their trenches into “No Man’s Land” to shake hands, exchange cigars and souvenirs, and talk despite some language difficulties (1914, December 27, Memoirs, Jones p. 93 IWM). W. Tapp, an officer’s servant of the Warwickshire regiment, claimed in his diary, “I have 2 buttons, one cap badge and 2 cigarettes” (1914, December 24-26, diary, Private papers, p.10 IWM). J. Selby Grigg admitted trading some Christmas pudding and Maconochie’s stew for German cigars (1914, December 26, Private papers p.1 IWM).

Captain Sir Edward Hulse wrote in a letter that, when he walked out to meet a German, the fellow wrote out a postcard to his girlfriend in Suffolk and asked Hulse to post it to her, which Hulse did that evening (1914, December 26, Letters, p. 59 BL). Several of the members of the German 158th Regiment told Hulse that “they had no feeling of enmity at all towards us, but that everything lay with their authorities, and that being soldiers, they had to obey” (1914, December 28, Letters, p. 60 BL). Walther Stennes, a German soldier recorded in his memoirs, “I rushed out and saw a strange unforgot (sic) picture. On both sides the trenches had come to life” (1914 – September 1915, Memoirs, p. 1 IWM). Percy Hughes Jones wrote, “the ground between the two lines was simply swarming with little knots of Saxons and English...I spoke to and shook hands with scores of the enemy” (1914, December 27, Memoirs, p. 90 IWM).

At the Heart – Humanity

It was heartrending.

English Captain Giles Loder

There is some mention of a very humane reason for this short truce. The deceased trapped between the trenches commanded attention. One agreement between officers on Christmas Eve was the cessation of hostilities to allow collection and burial of the dead. This was a tenuous situation and both sides realized that it could end quickly. Both armies wondered what would occur on Christmas Day. Fearing a false sense of security, both German and Allied soldiers went to sleep with their rifles nearby.
The French held nearly four hundred miles of the front in December 1914. A French officer, Capitaine Rimbault, recalls gathering his men around him in the trenches to celebrate the traditional Christmas Eve midnight mass. They found candleholders, a missal, and an altar cloth in a nearby village. A young lieutenant said the mass for them not fifty yards from the German lines. “Throughout the entire ceremony, the Boches—Bavarian Catholics—did not fire a single shot. For an instant the God of goodwill was once more master of this corner of earth” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 73).

Vocal soloists brought cheer to weary and nostalgic troops in both camps. The January 1915 issue of the British magazine, The Lady, tells of the church bells of the Argonne Forest ringing at midnight followed by the clear voice of a soloist from the Paris Opera singing Minuit, Chrétiens, c’est l’heure solennelle’ (Cantique de Noël, the original French carol, O Holy Night). “The troops, French and German, forgot to fire whilst listening to that wonderful tenor voice lifted in harmonious sound above the snapping of the guns, and for a few moments all was peace” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 75).

Crown Prince Wilhelm of Prussia, who commanded the German Fifth Army in the Argonne, had a similar experience when visiting the front lines on December 24. Walther Kirchoff, a renowned concert vocalist and orderly on Wilhelm’s staff, sang Christmas songs to the German 130th Regiment in the front-line trenches on Christmas Eve. Kirchoff told Wilhelm that the French soldiers climbed up on their parapet and applauded until he sang an encore. “Thus amid the bitter realities of trench-warfare, with all its squalor, a Christmas song had worked a miracle and thrown a bridge from man to man” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 75).

A similar event appeared prominently in the widely acclaimed 2006 French film Joyeux Noel based on the Christmas Truce. Christian Corion, who wrote, directed and played the part of a British medical orderly in the film, realized that his poetic license produced a number of inaccuracies in the cinematic recreation of the 1914 event. He suggested that historians create a scholarly work to provide the true facts of this unusual occurrence and schedule its publication to coincide with the release of his film (Ferro, 2007, p. 3). As a result, noted historians Marc Ferro, Malcolm Brown, Remy Cazals and Olaf Mueller wrote Frères des Tranchées (2005) originally printed in French. The English translation of this excellent reference is Meeting in No Man’s Land: Christmas 1914 and Fraternisation (sic) in the Great War (2007).

In most areas, Christmas morning brought an unusual gift to both armies, silence. Lieutenant Edward Hulse wrote of the foggy dawn, “It was so quiet, it was uncanny. There were no planes overhead, no observation balloons, no bombs, no rifle fire, therefore no snipers, just an occasional lark” (as cited in Murphy p. 64). As the fog lifted, the Germans held up wooden boards in some areas featuring the words “MERRY CHRISTMAS” and “YOU NO FIGHT. WE NO FIGHT” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 82).

Twenty years after the event, a German officer described a burial service on Christmas Day 1914, ten miles west of Lille in Flanders. An English officer carrying a white flag approached the German lines and requested a short armistice to bury the bodies of their fallen comrades resting between the lines. Both sides agreed and arranged nearly a hundred bodies from both armies for burial. The ceremony that followed had to be one of the most unusual in history.

The British chaplain led a joint burial service as the English officers and men stood behind the graves of their dead facing the German officers lined up behind their
own fallen comrades. Chaplain Esslemont Adams led the service and read the twenty-third psalm in English followed by the identical words repeated in German by a young Saxon divinity student. After a moment of silence, the officers solemnly saluted each other and both sides returned to their trenches. As reported in the Regimental History of the 6/Gordons, "officers and men, bitter enemies though they were, uncovered, reverent, and for the moment united in offering for their dead the last offices of homage and honour" (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 90).

A Day Like Every Other

On both days of the Christmas festival the bloody game continued.

German 205th Reserve Regimental History

Though an unexpected Yuletide fraternization happened often along the front lines, there are many areas where it did not exist. One young German soldier wrote of his experience facing the French near the Belgian town of Roulers: "Our Christmas music was a horrible blending of the screams of the wounded, the whistling of rifle bullets, and the bursting of shells" (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 76). Near Ypres, the German 205th Reserve Infantry Regiment reported a continuous bombardment of French grenades for Christmas (Brown, p. 76). Far fewer instances of fraternization occurred between the German and French combatants due to a forty-year history of animosity dating back to the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 when Germany annexed Alsace-Lorraine and invaded Belgian and French territory. Affability between the two sides was nearly impossible.

In several areas that had suffered heavy attacks, the British disdained any German overtures of a temporary holiday respite. Many battalion unit histories record no change in the pattern of hostility. Artillery rounds, sniper shots, and machinegun fire continued as always, as did the constant personal irritation of dysentery and disease.

Christmas Fare

You ought to have seen our table when it was laid out on Christmas Day.

Rifleman A.E. Watts

Christmas dinner in the trenches consisted of the usual “bully” corned beef, and Maconochie’s stew (tinned potatoes, meat of an unknown animal, beans, and vegetables), plum pudding, and sardines with an occasional roast chicken, pig or turkey depending on the local livestock in the area. Dessert was dates, almonds, chocolates, raisins, figs, and cognac or rum (Brown, 1994, p.113).

There is much documentation of the exchange of wine, rum, cognac, and whiskey during the truce. Near Houplines on the Lys River, unarmed Saxons rolled out a barrel of beer into No Man’s Land. Captain C.I. Stockwell of the 2/Royal Welch Fusiliers met with a German Captain between the lines to warn him to have his men return to their trench. Stockwell explained that he was under strict orders to keep his men in their positions and not participate in any armistice. The German captain sent his men back to their trenches but told Stockwell to take the beer anyway. Two British soldiers rolled the barrel to their area and Stockwell presented the German captain with a large plum pudding. After much ceremonial saluting, they all returned to their own lines (as cited in Brown, 1884, p. 120).
Football

Some of us were trying to arrange a football match, but it didn't come off.

Rifleman Leslie Walkinton

There is no substantial confirmation of football taking place during the truce. It was undoubtedly the most popular game of that time and, had there been a ball present, there would have been many eager participants. However, the surrounding area was not a fit pitch. Artillery shell holes, frozen mud depressions, and grenade pits circled with barbed wire pockmarked the space between the trenches. Several accounts appear in letters about scheduling football matches between the two armies for Boxing Day, but by that day the war was once again in full force. There is some evidence of an actual game in memoirs written many years after the war but those too are questionable (Brown, 1994, p. 139).

Orders

War to the knife is the only way to carry on a campaign of this sort.

British General Sir Henry Smith-Dorrien

The higher commands of both armies had varying opinions on the short 1914 armistice. As recorded in their official reports, some commanders expressed anger and disgust while others recognized the value of even one day of peace to repair damaged areas and to reinforce inadequate defensive positions (Brown, 1994, p.158-162). However, both armies issued strong statements to prevent any further occurrences.

The Germans acted by December 29, 1914 confirming that they would consider any acts of fraternization high treason and that perpetrators were subject to execution. As a result the Saxon regiment opposite the 1/Hampshires near Ploegsteert Wood, in the Ypres salient, informed the British that the Germans would no longer come out of their trenches. However, the Saxon commander stated that, when ordered to fire, they would aim high (Brown, 1994, p. 169).

On January 1, 1915, the British issued a statement that anyone participating in fraternization would face a court martial (Brown, 1994, p. 163). It is widely believed that the high commands removed the German and British units that participated in the truce from the front lines as punishment. However, there is no record that ever occurred (Brown, 1994, p. 164-165).

1915

The lull is finished. The absurdity and the tragedy renew themselves.

The Daily Mirror, January 2, 1915

On the Western Front, 1915 arrived with the firing of a few celebratory noisy mortar rounds and accompanying shouts and singing. There are reports of some fraternization, but the recent admonitions of dire consequences discouraged a reprise of the Christmas armistice.

In the first days of January, letters describing the unusual holiday truce appeared in local British newspapers followed by amateur photographs documenting the phenomenon. There was no denying the validity of the occurrence when astonished family members flooded the papers with personal accounts. In fact, the newspapers relished carrying the remarkable stories on page one; however, those same papers also
provided columns full of resentment and invective against the enemy on subsequent pages (Brown, 1994, p. 174-175).

Eventually the press moved beyond the initial shock of the Christmas truce and offered editorial comments recognizing that soldiers fight because that is their job. In the everyday struggle to survive horrible, filthy living conditions, lukewarm or cold rations, inadequate rest, and the constant fear that your next breath may be your last, it is easier to label patriotism and loyalty to comrades as your motivation than it is to credit hatred.

The German press rarely mentioned the truce. Their few comments disputed the descriptions in the British press as exaggerations, though surely their troops sent similar letters home. The editorial comments that did appear maintained that it was unfortunate that the very few German soldiers who participated had momentarily forgotten their just cause (Weintraub, 2002, p. 159).

In some areas the truce, or a variation of it, continued into early spring. The opposing sides were tired of the sniper’s bullets, tired of the useless shooting, and tired of the war. When the news of impending inspections arrived, both sides sent messages to their opposition warning them of the charade of a serious attack while also assuring them that they would once again “aim high” (Murphy, 2009, p. 86).

However, as Weintraub (2002) notes, “The erosion of the 1914 truce as weather improved and unblooded units moved into the line had closed off the last practical opening for negotiating an abbreviated war” (p. 160). By Easter, the war once again consisted of heavy artillery fire, vicious sniping, and attacks and counter-attacks with little or no ground gained. This stalemated war continued for four more years and cost Europe the loss of an entire generation.

**What if...?**

These incidents seem to suggest that, except in the temper of battle or some great grievance, educated men have no desire to kill one another...

Captain Jack, 1st Cameronians January 13, 1915

After the war was over, the question of “What if...?” lingered in many minds and veterans of the conflict offered some interesting insights. Captain Tom Ingram, a medical officer attached to the 1/King Shropshire Light Infantry, stated, “all this friendly peace business at Christmas is rotten” (as cited in Brown, 1994, p. 191). He further commented that his unit treated those who fraternized as traitors. Fistfights broke out over the situation. Graham Williams said that it was fine to stop the shooting and meet the opposition, but there was never any question of wanting to go home without thoroughly beating the Germans. Besides, he added, everyone thought that the Allies would have the war won by the coming spring (Brown, 1994, p. 191).

In contrast, a British private stated, “If the truce had gone on and on, there’s no telling what could have happened? After all, they didn’t want war, and we didn’t want war and it could have ended up by finishing the war altogether” (as cited in Murphy, 2009, p. 98). Lt Col Rupert Shoolbred (1/16th Londons) wrote in a letter to his brother, who was in a German prisoner-of-war camp, that the truce enabled both sides to see that they are both simply human beings “and though now again we are doing all we can against each other, I hope many will do it without the same feeling of personal enmity that probably was in many cases present before” (as cited in Wakefield, 2006, p. 17).
Conclusion

An enemy had to remain a caricature if he was to be kept at a safe distance: 
an enemy should never come alive.
Graham Greene, The Human Factor

World War I involved thirty nations and lasted four years and four months. The
fact that it occurred at all will ever be a subject of heated discussion. Of the sixty-five
million men who bore arms, eight and a half million died and twenty-nine million suffered
devastating injuries, became prisoners of war, or were never found. The magnitude of
this war is nearly impossible to comprehend. One hundred years gives the opportunity,
or perhaps, the license to analyze the impetus, motives, execution, and outcome of a
war. It is not possible to predict what would have happened if the war had ended as a
result of that Yuletide spontaneous cessation of hostilities. However, “the more than six
thousand deaths every day over forty-six further months of war would not have
occurred” (Weintraub, 2002, p. 162).

There is no way of knowing what would have happened if Franz Joseph or Kaiser
Wilhelm had taken more time to consider the ramifications of a prolonged conflict or
even a disastrous defeat. As Christopher Clark states in his 2012 novel, “In this sense,
the protagonists of 1914 were sleepwalkers, watchful but unseeing, haunted by dreams,
yet blind to the reality of the horror they were about to bring into the world” (p. 562).
Early on, one young man destined for political prominence, did ponder the possibility of
an early end to the conflict. On November 23, 1914, Winston Churchill remarked to his
wife, “What would happen, I wonder, if the armies suddenly and simultaneously went on
strike and said some other method must be found of settling the dispute?” (as cited in
Murphy, 2009, p. 97).

Many historians have studied the incentives for this long and costly war including
the personalities of those in power, the pervasive atmosphere of envy and distrust, and
the desire for dominance. Stories of a World War I Yuletide Truce are often disputed
and ridiculed as myths or nonsense that has been blown completely out of proportion. It
is true that there was no change in some areas on the Western Front. The bloody war
continued as usual. However there is a plethora of evidence that just such an unusual
event did occur. The British and the Germans as well as the Belgians and the French
enjoyed a few moments of peace, and exchanged both gifts and pleasantries with their
opponents on Christmas Day.

In later years embellishments appeared in memoirs such as football games in No
Man’s Land. But what actually did happen needs no ornamentation. Soldiers who
shared the same religious and social background chose to honor and bury their dead
and pause for a time to share a few moments of kindness and compassion on a
mutually meaningful holiday. Perhaps one young soldier, Eugene Lemercier, said it best
at Les Eparges: “What an amazing night!—a night beyond compare, where beauty
triumphed, where despite its bloodstained feelings humanity showed the reality of its
conscience” (Ferro, 2007, p. 123). What a victory for humanity!
Resources

Special thanks to the British Library and Imperial War Museum staff, London UK.

British Library Sources

Imperial War Museum Sources
Appendix A

**World War I Timeline**

1914  –  28 June - World War I begins with assassination of Archduke Ferdinand
       –  28 July - Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia
       –  5 August - Austria declares war on Russia
       –  1 August - Germany declares war on Russia
       –  3 August - Germany declares war on France
       –  4 August - Great Britain declares war on Germany
           Germany invades Belgium
       –  23 August - Germany invades and occupies neutral Belgium
       –  25 December - Christmas Truce

1915  –  22 April - 5 May - 2nd battle of Ypres, Chemical weapons used for 1st time
       –  7 May - Sinking of the Lusitania
       –  12 October - Execution of Edith Cavell

1916  –  21 February to 18 December - Battle of Verdun, longest battle of the war,
       1 million casualties

1917  –  1 February - Germany resumes unrestricted submarine warfare
       –  6 April - US declares war on Germany
       –  7 November – Bolsheviks, led by Lenin, overthrow Russian Government

1918  –  21 March - Germans launch the great spring offensive
       –  18 July – German offensive fails
       –  November, Armistice on the 11th hour of the 11th day of the 11th month

Children’s Books on The Christmas Truce of 1914

A Study of Secondary Science Teacher Efficacy and Use of Constructivist Instructional Practice: Findings from a Statewide Survey

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the level of use of selected constructivist instructional practices and level of teacher efficacy in West Virginia secondary science classrooms. The study next sought to determine if a relationship existed between level of use of the constructivist practices and teacher efficacy. In addition the study sought to determine if differences existed in level of use of the selected constructivist practices and/or teacher efficacy based on selected demographic variables.

The study was a mixed-methods design. First, a researcher-developed survey instrument was used to collect data regarding the level of use of constructivist instructional practices. Efficacy data was collected using an adapted (with permission) version of the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tshannan-Moran, Hoy, and Hoy (1998). The study population consisted of secondary science teachers (middle, junior, and high school) in the state of West Virginia. The last survey question allowed educators to volunteer for a short follow-up interview to clarify the quantitative data.

Overall, West Virginia science teachers reported frequent use of the selected constructivist instructional practices. Few significant differences were found based on the selected demographic variables. West Virginia science teachers reported moderately high efficacy levels. Few significant differences were found based on selected demographic variables. A moderate but significant correlation was found between teacher efficacy level and the level of use of the selected constructivist practices. The follow-up interviews clarified concepts, and revealed barriers to implementation of new practices in the science classroom.

Introduction

Teacher efficacy and implementation of appropriate teaching practices play critical roles in the classroom and can have a powerful influence on student achievement in science. Teacher efficacy level may play a significant role in the selection of instructional practices and ultimately the success of science teaching standards. Consequently, differences in level of teacher efficacy and level of use of selected constructivist instructional practices in the science classroom are important.

Educators have a broad range of instructional practices from which to choose (Paek, Ponte, Sigel, Braun, & Powers, 2005). Traditional behaviorist practices may not be appropriate for all subpopulations. Yet, teachers may feel they are unable to execute constructivist practices as well as more traditional methods. Therefore, in order to improve science instruction for modern demands, we need to determine current levels of use of constructivist instructional practices in science classrooms, current science teacher efficacy levels, and examine relationships between the two constructs.

Teacher efficacy is the teacher’s belief in his/her ability to organize and implement actions in the classroom (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, teacher efficacy could play a significant role in the selection of instructional practices in the science classroom, which can significantly affect learning outcomes for various student populations. In addition, a sizeable population of low socioeconomic students (low SES) are part of the overall student demographic of the state and may require constructivist instructional practices for success. Teacher efficacy is positively correlated with instructional practice implementation in the classroom (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy 1998), and
consequently student achievement. The results of a study of West Virginia science teachers’ level of constructivist instructional practice implementation, and the relationship, if any, to teacher efficacy could be beneficial when choosing instructional practices to meet the standards and needs of a 21st century student population.

Framework: Traditional and Constructivist Instructional Practices

Instructional practices play an important role in every classroom and influence student learning in a variety of ways. Paek et al., (2005) described successful teachers as those who utilize a variety of instructional practices. These practices can be classified into two basic categories: traditional and constructivist. According to the authors, traditional practices stem from a behaviorist theoretical framework which contrasts sharply with the constructivist framework. Because the selection of appropriate instructional strategies is critical for student success, it is important to understand and characterize both theoretical frameworks.

Teacher Efficacy

Teacher efficacy is described as a teacher’s confidence in him/herself to promote student learning (Protheroe, 2008). Efficacy can be affected by prior teaching experience, training, and school culture and in turn influences teaching, instructor behavior, instructor attitude, and ultimately student outcomes (Bandura, 1993; Protheroe, 2008). Instructors with higher efficacy are more likely to be organized, plan more, try new programming, experiment, and are more willing to try new teaching practices to meet students’ needs (Protheroe, 2008). Trying a new strategy when old ones are not sufficient directly influences student learning and holds important implications for instructing a variety of learners in the science classroom.

Efficacy is related to school climate, administrative support, sense of community, and decision-making structure (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). The authors described two types of efficacy. Collective efficacy plays a role in how the staff works together and handles problems and/or change. Teacher efficacy can help mitigate the effects of certain student characteristics such as low SES. Stronger teacher efficacy may lead to stronger performance of low SES students even with many of the challenges already discussed. Unfortunately, the authors also reported that a low sense of efficacy can be contagious among staff members, undermining learning goals. If instructors do not believe an action will produce results in the classroom, they will not invest time, resources, or effort in the action (Bandura, 2002).

Teacher efficacy affects classroom behavior, teaching effort, and aspiration level (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). The authors proposed that teachers with higher efficacy are more willing to implement new methods to meet student needs and that teacher efficacy changes with context and can be specific to content (science) and other situations.

Teacher beliefs are also important in the selection of instructional practices in the classroom (Albion, 1999). Beliefs are particularly important when considering implementation of new instructional practices. Teacher efficacy has therefore become an important area of research in today’s science classroom. One science teacher’s belief about his/her ability to make a difference can have a profound effect upon dozens
of students over the years. Consequently, this study examines teacher efficacy in relation to practice.

Statement of the Problem
Research indicates implementation of constructivist instructional practices as a powerful way to meet the needs of diverse science student populations, particularly West Virginia’s large subpopulation of low SES students. In addition, more efficacious science instructors are more likely to implement these constructivist strategies. However, a discrepancy exists between research and practice. Appropriate instructional practices must be implemented to meet student needs. With the variety of instructional practices available, educators must select those they believe will be effective in the classroom. The selection of appropriate practices becomes more critical as Next Generation Science Standards are implemented. Because teacher efficacy level is so closely tied to level of implementation of instructional practices in science classrooms and, as a result, student outcomes, it is imperative to investigate differences between the two in West Virginia’s science classrooms where the stakes are high for both students and staff.

This study investigated current levels of constructivist instructional practice implementation in West Virginia science classrooms, current science teacher efficacy levels, and the relationship, if any, between the two. Secondarily, the study sought to determine if there are any differences in the levels of constructivist practice implementation and teacher efficacy based on selected demographic/attribute variables.

Research Questions
The following research questions were utilized in the course of the study.
1. What are West Virginia science teachers’ levels of use of selected constructivist instructional practices in West Virginia science classrooms?
2. What are the differences, if any, in the level of use of constructivist instructional practices based on selected demographic variables (years of teaching, Advanced Placement course instruction, SES level, class size)?
3. What are West Virginia science teachers’ levels of efficacy regarding teaching science in WV science classrooms?
4. What are the differences, if any, in West Virginia science teacher efficacy levels for teaching science based on selected demographic variables (years of teaching, Advanced Placement course instruction, SES level, class size)?
5. What is the relationship, if any, between teacher efficacy level for teaching science and the use of selected constructivist instructional practices in West Virginia science classrooms?

Significance of the Study
The results of this study added to the knowledge-base needed to continue providing challenging curricula for all students. Instructional practices utilized in science classes influence student mastery of curricula set forth in the Next Generation Science Standards. Expanding the knowledge base regarding level of use of instructional practices, teacher efficacy, and determining the relationship (if any) among these factors yielded information helpful to stakeholders as they construct methods of study designed to challenge and inspire today’s students. Few studies have examined the relationship
between teacher efficacy and instructional practice implementation in the science classroom, so the results of the study may lead to future avenues of research as well.

Delimitations of the Study
This study was limited to West Virginia science teachers in public schools at the middle/junior high, and high school level (grades 6-12). West Virginia had 55 county school districts in 2011-2012 with around 125 high schools and 156 middle schools.

Research Design
A mixed-methods design was used to conduct this study allowing collection of both qualitative and quantitative data. There are many benefits to a mixed methods design including clarification of results, lowering cost, shortening timelines, reduction in measurement error, and improving overall response rates (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Flexibility is another benefit of mixed methods designs (Patton, 2002). Initial quantitative data collection occurred via online survey in a one-shot cross sectional manner (Fink, 2003). The quantitative survey provided descriptive data for one point in time, the 2011-2012 school year. The second part of the study consisted of qualitative follow-up telephone interviews to triangulate findings from the quantitative study (Patton, 2009).

Instrumentation
Multiple instruments were utilized in this study. The quantitative online survey, the West Virginia Science Teacher Level of Constructivist Instructional Practice Survey (WVSTCIP) consisted of three sections, a demographic section, a section for level of use of selected constructivist instructional practices, and a section for teacher efficacy. The demographic section of the survey included basic questions with categories based on the Teacher Quality Survey (TQS, 2011) from Marshall University, and the WVSSAC classifications for the 2011-2012 school year. The second section of the quantitative survey solicited respondent information on the level of use of constructivist instructional practices in their science classrooms. Part three of the online survey focused on teacher efficacy and utilized a modified version of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy. The instrument provided a total score for efficacy and three sub-scores: Efficacy in Student Engagement (ESE), Efficacy in Instructional Practices (EIP), and Efficacy in Classroom Management (ECM) (Henson, 2001).

Qualitative data collection occurred via follow-up interviews with fifteen survey respondents. Respondents were contacted via self-reported contact information to participate in a short five-question follow-up interview. An approved interview protocol was utilized. Data were collected and analyzed for emergent trends.

Findings
Of 201 responses, 190 were deemed usable based on an 80% completion rate and the inclusion/exclusion question. The majority of respondents were high school (52.1%) general science teachers (51.6%). Thirty-seven respondents taught an AP or pre-AP course. The largest group of respondents had five or fewer years of total teaching (29.5%) and five or fewer years of teaching science (34.2%). Overall, respondents (58.5%) indicated large numbers of low SES students (more than 50% free and reduced
lunch). Most respondents (85.8%) worked in AA or AAA schools and taught in classrooms with 21 or more students (80%).

One sample t-tests were performed comparing the mean of each of the 16 individual constructivist instructional practices and the total level of use of constructivist practices score to a hypothetical normal distribution resulting in significance for each at the p<.001 level. Practices were also analyzed based on selected demographic variables. Two of the practices resulted in significant differences for school level (middle school vs. high school) and total years of teaching experience. One practice was significant based on years of teaching science, teaching AP/pre-AP courses, school size, and class size. No significant differences were found based on SES level. No significant differences were found for the total efficacy score based on any of the selected demographic variables.

One sample t-tests were used to compare the sample mean for each individual prompt, the total efficacy score (TE) and three efficacy sub-scores (ESE, EIP, and ECM) to the mean from a hypothetical normal distribution. Each score was significant at the p<.001 level. Teacher efficacy was examined with regard to the same demographic variables as instructional practices. For school level (middle vs. high school) only ESE yielded significance. No significant differences were found based on total years of teaching, years of teaching science, AP instruction, school SES level, or the number of students in the classroom. The relationships between school size, TE and EIP were significant.

A Pearson-Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was performed comparing the total level of constructivist practice implementation score with TE, ESE, EIP, and ECM as well as between each constructivist practice and the four efficacy scores. All relationships ranged from moderate to strong (Holcomb, 2006). Moderate relationships included the relationships between level of use of the constructivist practices and TE, EIP, and ECM. The relationship between constructivist practice use and ESE was moderately strong. Each individual constructivist practice was compared to TE resulting in eight moderate and eight weak relationships. Each individual practice was compared to ESE resulting in 14 moderate and two weak relationships. Each individual practice was compared to EIP resulting in 12 moderate and four weak relationships. Each practice was compared to ECM resulting in six weak and three moderate relationships.

Findings from the follow-up telephone interviews yielded additional data regarding the level of use of constructivist instructional practices. Dominant influences on practice selection included state CSOs, student strengths and weaknesses, time, and effectiveness. Benefits of using the practices included building excitement, motivation, increasing skills, and deepening understanding. Setting clear expectations, routines, rubrics, examples, and alternative assessments were listed as promoting success. Field trips, guest speakers, and role playing were not regularly utilized. Twenty-nine barriers for new practice implementation were identified.

In general WV science teachers described their level of use of constructivist instructional practices as frequent, with 10 of the 16 practices surveyed resulting in a level of use of 3.0 (Frequent Use) or greater on a scale of 1-5. Results from a one sample t-test were found to be significant for each of the 16 individual practices as well as a total practice score obtained by summing the individual items (p<.001).
In general, WV science teachers described their level of efficacy regarding teaching science as moderately high. Fourteen individual efficacy prompts had mean values of 7.0 or greater on a scale of 1-9. One-sample t-tests for each prompt, as well as a total efficacy score obtained by summing the prompts, and three sub-scores (Efficacy in Student Engagement – ESE, Efficacy in Instructional Practice - EIP, and Efficacy in Classroom Management – ECM) obtained by dividing the prompts into three groups of eight resulted in significance at the p<.001 level. Each individual prompt mean, the total efficacy mean, and each efficacy sub-score mean was significantly different from the mean for a hypothetical normal distribution.

Cronbach’s alpha resulted in a desirable level of internal consistency and reliability for the constructivist instructional practices (α = .88) and the efficacy portion of the instrument (α = .957) with values greater than .7 (Pallant, 2007). Cronbach’s α values for each of the individual constructivist practices and individual efficacy prompts also yielded acceptable internal consistency. Cronbach’s α was calculated for each of the three efficacy sub-scores and also yielded acceptable internal consistency (ESE α = .903, EIP α = .884, and ECM α = .940).

Conclusions: Levels of Use of Selected Constructivist Instructional Practices

Fourteen of the 16 constructivist practices and the total use score yielded a mean significantly different than that of a hypothetical normal distribution. Overall, West Virginia science teachers frequently used the selected constructivist instructional practices, with ten of the 16 practices used frequently.

Overall, few significant differences were found in the level of use of constructivist instructional practices based on the selected demographic variables for the individual and total use score. Only eight individual practices yielded significant differences for the demographic variables: two for school level, two for total years of teaching experience, one for years of teaching science, one for AP/Pre-AP instruction, one for school size, and one for average class size. Although there were significant differences in use level of constructivist instructional practices based on these six demographic variables, none of these differences were sufficient to conclude that there were differences in overall use based on the variables.

Overall, West Virginia science teachers’ indicated moderately high efficacy (7.12 on a 9 point scale) levels significantly different than the expected normal distribution (M = 5) for each of the individual efficacy prompts, each of the sub-scores of efficacy (ESE, EIP, and ECM), and the total efficacy score. Overall, West Virginia science educators believe that what they are doing makes a difference in the science classroom.

Overall, few significant differences were found in total efficacy (TE) or the three sub-scores (ESE, EIP, ECM). Only three significant differences were found in efficacy level based on a demographic variable. TE and EIP were found to be significant at the p<.05 level based on school size. EIP was significantly higher in A schools. ESE was higher for middle school. Although there were significant differences in efficacy level based on these three demographic variables, none of these differences were sufficient to conclude that there were differences in overall efficacy level based on the variables.

Overall, the relationship between teacher efficacy and use of constructivist instructional practices in West Virginia science classrooms is moderate but significant. The relationship between total level of constructivist practices implementation (TLCPI)
and TE, the relationship between TLCPI and EIP, and the relationship between TLCPI and ECM were moderate. The relationship between TLCPI and ESE was moderately strong. When viewed individually the relationships between the constructivist practices and TE, ESE, EIP, and ECM were weak to moderate.

Overall, West Virginia science teachers participating in the survey frequently utilized constructivist practices as part of the following activities: laboratory work, group work, presentations, and for advanced courses. Field trips, guest speakers, and role playing were rarely utilized by respondents.

The two most dominant factors influencing selection of instructional practices for respondents were the state Content Standards and Objectives (CSOs) by student background, achievement, or prior knowledge. Other factors included student strengths/needs/reactions and practice effectiveness.

Common benefits of constructivist instructional practices indicated by respondents included building student excitement, increasing motivation, building lab skills, and deepening understanding. Ten specific examples of activities instructors found to be particularly beneficial were provided.

Overall, the two aspects of constructivist instruction most commonly cited by respondents as promoting learning were routines and clear expectations. Other important aspects of constructivist instruction cited by respondents included: providing visual/concrete examples of concepts, use of rubrics, and providing alternative products/assessments for students with different learning styles.

Responses to this question were the most varied in the study. Twenty-nine different barriers were given, indicating that barriers may be situation specific. The two most common barriers given were lack of time and student apathy, followed by money, lack of materials at home/school, lack of parental support, difficulties/danger at home, differing expectations, and students from low SES backgrounds.

**Discussion and Implications**

The one sample t-tests used to compare the level of use means of each constructivist practice and the total level of use means for comparable hypothetical normal distributions revealed significant differences for the total use score for 14 of the 16 practices. Ten of the significant sample means were larger than the expected mean in the hypothetical normal distribution. Six of these sample means were greater than 3.5. These results indicate that the science teachers participating in the survey used the practices in a manner greater than expected in a normal population. This above average constructivist practice implementation is beneficial for West Virginia’s science students and provides the type of education researchers indicate meets student needs today (Barak & Shakhman, 2007). These results also suggest that West Virginia’s science educators are already using the practices necessary for successful implementation of Next Generation Science Standards (Next Generation Science Standards, 2011).

Surprisingly, no significant differences were found for the total use score based on years of teaching or years of experience teaching science. Overall these results agreed with the research indicating that years of experience was not a significant contributor to student achievement. Multiple researchers found that years of experience did not significantly influence student learning (Giglio, 2010; Jones, 2006). Again, more
research is needed in this area as numerous studies also found that years of experience significantly influenced student achievement (Clotfelter, Ladd, and Vigdor, 2007; Haimson, 2011; Holley, 2008; McCue, 2011; Rockoff, 2004).

No significant differences were found in the level of use of the 16 individual constructivist practices and total use score based on school SES level. These results were some of the most surprising of the survey as numerous authors have reported that poverty negatively influences student achievement (Holliday, 2011; Jensen, 2009; Payne, 2005). However, West Virginia’s student population is relatively homogeneous with a larger subpopulation of low SES students across the board. Additional research with a more diverse student population is needed for this variable.

No significant difference was found for the total level of use score based on the size of the student population or the number of students in science class. These findings were likewise surprising because many studies indicate that students benefit from smaller class size (Achi, 2011; Flowers, 2010; Picus, 2000). However, other authors (Whitehurst & Chingos, 2011) found that the effects of class size were minimal and benefits do not outweigh the financial burden.

The 24 efficacy prompts, the total efficacy score (TE), the sub-score for Efficacy in Student Engagement (ESE), the sub-score for Efficacy in Instructional Practice (EIP), and the sub-score for Efficacy in Classroom Management (ECM) were found to be significantly different than the hypothetical normal distribution for the applicable comparison group. Mean scores for each of the groups were well above the hypothetical mean for their group suggesting that the science teachers responding to the survey had moderately high efficacy levels with regard to teaching science. These results are also very encouraging for science education in West Virginia. If West Virginia science educators already have moderately high efficacy levels, they believe that what they are doing in the classroom promotes learning (Woolfolk, 2010). Teacher efficacy is positively correlated with instructional practice implementation (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998) so West Virginia science teachers are willing to implement new methods to meet student needs.

These results provide further information regarding West Virginia science teachers’ levels of efficacy. West Virginia science teachers had the highest level of efficacy with regard to Efficacy in Instructional Practice (EIP), followed by Efficacy in Classroom Management (ECM), and Efficacy in Student Engagement (ESE). The fact that Efficacy in Instructional Practice yielded the highest efficacy score of the three subcategories is also encouraging for West Virginia Science educators. These findings agree with Albion’s (1999) findings that teacher beliefs are important in practice selection, particularly choosing new practices for new situations.

Few significant differences in teacher efficacy based on school level were found for TE, EIP, or ECM. A significant difference was found for ESE based on this variable, with middle school teachers reporting higher levels of efficacy than high school teachers. These results suggest that middle school teachers have a higher belief in their ability to engage students than high school teachers.

No significant differences were found for TE, ESE, EIP, and ECM based on total years of teaching or years of experience teaching science. These findings correspond to the research indicating that efficacy is formed during the early years of teaching (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). The results agree with this research because, if a relatively
stable efficacy concept forms in the early years of teaching, few differences would be found over time.

No significant differences in TE, ESE, EIP, or ECM efficacy levels were found based on school SES level. These results are encouraging for West Virginia’s low SES students since the science teachers participating in the survey held moderately high efficacy levels regardless of school SES level. This population of low SES students benefit from science educators who believe that what they do in the classroom makes a difference in student achievement. These findings are important because teachers with high efficacy are more likely to implement new programming (Protheroe, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998) necessary to reach low SES students (Costello, Hollifeld, & Stinnett, 1996; Keller, 2005; McKinney, Flenner, Frazier, & Abrams, 2006).

No significant differences in ESE and ECM were found based on the size of the student population. Yet, significant differences in efficacy levels based on school size were found for TE and EIP. The lowest means for TE and EIP were reported by the AAA group and the highest mean was reported by the A group, suggesting the instructors in small schools possessed higher total efficacy and efficacy in instructional practice. When efficacy level was examined at the classroom level, however, smaller classrooms did not follow the pattern of smaller schools. No significant difference was found for TE, ESE, EIP, or ECM efficacy levels based on the number of students in science classes. The mixed results of school/classroom size variables indicate a need for more research.

These results of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) between the total level of use of constructivist instructional practices and each of the four efficacy scores indicate that the relationship between West Virginia science teacher’s level of efficacy and implementation of the selected constructivist instructional practices is moderate overall. These findings agree with the previous efficacy findings given the moderately high teacher efficacy scores (22 of the 24 efficacy prompts resulted in significant means greater than 6 on a 9 point scale). Teachers with higher efficacy are more willing to implement new instructional practices (Tshannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

Recommendations for Further Research
Based on the study findings, the following recommendations for further research are provided:

1. Expanding the study to other states and other subject areas would vary demographics and provide a useful comparison.
2. Further qualitative and/or quantitative work regarding barriers to increasing the use of constructivist instructional practices is necessary to clarify the relationship between practice implementation and barriers.
3. A longitudinal study following a cohort of science educators over multiple years would clarify the relationship between years of experience and teacher efficacy level.
4. A survey of administrator efficacy level and teacher efficacy level in relation to level of implementation of new practices could provide a clearer picture of school-wide efficacy and practice.
5. A study of instructor efficacy level and student achievement level could provide educators and researchers with valuable information on the relationship between educator efficacy and achievement.

6. A study seeking to find the relationship, if any, between constructivist practice implementation and type of assessment would also yield valuable information for educators in the classroom.

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Fourth and Fifth Amendment Decisions: Students and Constitutional Rights

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Fourth and Fifth Amendment Decisions: Students and Constitutional Rights

For several years, the authors of this paper have studied how the First Amendment was applied to situations involving students in secondary schools. And, for years, there has always been something new and exciting to discuss. An event earlier last year (2013), however, has caused us to broaden our horizons a bit. There are, after all, more amendments in the Bill of Rights than just the First. Our discussion will focus primarily on the 4th and 5th amendments, though by default, we will touch upon the 14th amendment, as well.

In February, 2013, Wes Little, the father of a fourth-grader at West Sabine Elementary School in Pineland, Texas, filed a law suit against the school district for allegedly conducting a search of students in violation of the Fourth Amendment (prohibiting unlawful searchers) and in violation of students' privacy rights. According to the lawsuit, employees of the school found fecal matter on the floor of the gymnasium several times. School officials had no evidence to indicate who was responsible. To try to determine who was responsible, the principal, Deborah Lane, separated the fourth-grade students into gender groups. Each group then was directed to lower their pants and underwear below the hips and to be inspected by the school nurse for feces on their person. According to court papers, the inspection by the administration did not shed any light on who was responsible for the original offense. Further, prior to the inspection, no parents were contacted and informed as to what was to happen. Are students as early as the fourth grade protected by the Fourth Amendment search and seizure provision?

The Fourth Amendment to the Constitution states:

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon Probable Cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

The U.S. Supreme Court has recognized the difference between 4th Amendment search and seizure issue regarding adults and students. Most often it will support a school’s search and seizure policies because of the unique nature of schooling. But, so oft quoted in Tinker, “students possess the same constitutional rights as adults and that these rights do not end at the school house door (Tinker).” In New Jersey v. T.L.O (1985) the court addressed the issue of whether a search by a school official is a “search” at all for Fourth Amendment purposes. It also considered whether the standard of probable cause should be modified to reflect the “special circumstances of public education.” Probable cause implies a higher standard since it relates a criminal offense. The Supreme Court instead used “reasonable suspicion” which afforded school administrators greater latitude in conducting searches. “The Supreme Court, in upholding the school administrator, did not require that the search be based on the higher standard of ‘probable cause’ necessary for obtaining a search warrant, reasoning to do so ‘would unduly interfere with the maintenance of the swift and informal disciplinary procedures needed in schools.’ Thus, the court struck a balance between the pupil’s ‘legitimate expectations of privacy’ and the need of a school to preserve a proper learning environment. (Essex, p.65)” Yet, in a 2009 decision, Safford v. Redding, the Court concluded that the Arizona school officials went too far in strip searching a 13-
year-old student who they believed might have provided ibuprofen to another student. The issue before us is, when do searches or drug tests of students in public schools violate their constitutional rights?

Do the same standards apply to students who wish to engage in extra-curricular activities? In a 1995 case, Vernonia v. Acton, the court considered the constitutionality of across-the-board searches not based on individual suspicion. Do school administrators have the right to require all students to submit to a urine test in order to play football, or for that matter any extra-curricular activity? In a 6-3 decision, the Supreme Court supported the Verononia School District’s drug policy. “The reasonableness of a search is judged by ‘balancing the intrusion on the individual’s Fourth Amendment interests against the promotion of legitimate governmental interests.’ School athletes who are under state supervision during school hours are subject to greater control than over free adults. We find it interesting that in a 1997 case, Chandler v. Miller, the court in an 8-1 decision ruled that Georgia’s policy of drug testing candidates for state offices violated the Fourth Amendment. In 2002, the parents of Lindsey Earl filed suit against Tecumseh, Oklahoma’s drug policy that required all students participating in extra-curricular activities submit to drug testing. The 10th Circuit Court of Appeals ruled that the policy was unreasonable. The U.S. Supreme Court, however, in a 5-4 decision reversed the 10th Circuit and upheld the school’s drug testing policy. (Board of Education v. Earls, 2002)

Search and seizure cases do not only pertain only to searches and drug testing but also to cellphone use as well. “A number of states have currently formulated policies prohibiting the use of cell phones and pagers in public schools and stated expected consequences for policy violators and exceptions granted for special use. School officials, however, appear to be moving toward relaxing policies that prohibit cell phone use (Essex, p.75)” The reasons for cell phone prohibition are legion. The National School Safety and Security Services, a Cleveland, Ohio based security firm cites the following reasons:

1. Cell phones have been used to call a bomb threats.
2. Students can potentially detonate a bomb if one is on campus.
3. Cell phone use can hamper, disrupt, and delay public safety personnel response.
4. Cell phones can impede public service response by accelerating parental and community arrival at the scene of an emergency during a time when officials may be attempting to evacuate students to another site.
5. Cell phone use typically overload during a real crisis as happened in the Columbine tragedy and the World trade Center attacks. (Essex, 76)

In addition to security threats cell phone use has been use for cheating on exams and taking photos of students in restrooms and disrobing in locker rooms, all prohibited by school policies. The courts have generally supported these policies based on the “disruption” standard and maintaining a safe environment to facilitate teaching and learning.

There are a growing number of school districts that are abandoning cell phone prohibition as educational uses of technology become more apparent. Text messages can serve as homework reminders and students can access the internet for information and email teachers for clarification of assignments. To date, a Fourth Amendment
search and seizure case has not come before the U.S. Supreme Court that involves a school policy. However, state supreme cases in California (People v. Diaz) and Florida (Smallwood v. Florida) have been decided that involve Fourth Amendment searches that involve cell phones. And, two additional cases, Riley v. California and United States v. Wurie have reached the U.S. Supreme Court. Combined, these cases involve a Fourth Amendment challenge which will have implications for education.

In the California case People v. Diaz, 51 Cal. 4th 84, 244 P.3d 501, 119 Cal. Rptr. 3d 105 (Cal. January 3, 2011. The Court held that police are not required to obtain a warrant to search information contained within a cell phone in a lawful arrest. On February 29, 2012 in United States v. Flores-Lopez, the 7th Circuit Court of Appeals upheld the warrantless search of a cell phone upon arrest with reasoning similar to People v. Diaz. These two cases were in some part determined by precedent. In three earlier cases, United States v. Robinson, United States v. Edwards, and United States v. Chadwick held that any object associated with a lawful arrest was subject to search. But this raises some thorny issues. The three cases cited were determined prior to cell phone technology. In fact in Robinson, the unwarranted seizure of a cigarette carton on Robinson’s body was valid. In the Diaz case Justice Werdegar in dissent argued that “containers” mentioned in the previous cases were not analogous to the cell phone. “which could potentially contain wealth of private electronic data (Minkevitch, p.1 ).”

On May 2, 2013, the Florida Supreme Court, in a 5-2 ruling, stated the police needed a search warrant to access the data stored on an arrested person’s cellphone. The case involved Cedric Smallwood who was involved in a 2008 convenience store robbery in Jacksonville, Florida. “Writing for the majority, Chief Justice Fred Lewis said that in Smallwood’s case, “a warrant was required before the information, data, and content of the cellphone could be accessed and search by law enforcement (Smallwood v. State).”

While the above cases all deal with search and seizure activities, another question arises as to how much protection a person has when making statements about their activities. Usually, when a student is being accused of inappropriate behavior, the first question is “did you do this” or “why did you do this?” Is the student allowed to not answer the question, if they feel doing so would expose them to disciplinary action? And, what if the answer to those questions not only exposed them to school disciplinary action, but also to possible criminal liability?

The Fifth Amendment to the Constitution reads:

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

Before examining this Amendment to see how it might apply to high school students, some unpacking should be done. Like several of the other Amendments, this one covers quite a bit of the landscape. First, it establishes that no one (with the exception of military personnel) can be tried for a serious crime unless they have been
indicted by a grand jury. It also establishes the concept of double jeopardy (not being tried twice for the same offense). It also is the first mention of the concept of Due Process (which is also a part of section 1 of the Fourteenth Amendment), or the right of an individual to be notified of charges against them, the right to contest these charges, and the right to appeal. The Fifth Amendment also requires that, in cases of eminent domain, just compensation is given for the taking of property.

When looking at the Fifth Amendment as it is related to high school students, however, the clause that is most pertinent is the phrase stating that no person “shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law”. It is from this clause that the idiom of “taking the Fifth” arose. The well-known “Miranda Rights,” (Miranda v. Arizona, 1966) which were the result of a 1966 Supreme Court decision stating that criminal suspects must be informed of their rights against self-incrimination before they were arrested, are perhaps the best-known rights in American culture.

The question of the right to not incriminate oneself in some cases is very straightforward. If the suspected crime is a felony and if conviction for this crime could result in a possibility of incarceration, the Fifth Amendment automatically applies. If the case would result in a civil, rather than criminal, action, the Fifth Amendment, which can still be invoked, does not carry the same weight. Where, in criminal cases invoking the right to not testify against yourself is not supposed to create a “presumption of guilt,” the Supreme Court, in Baxter v. Palmigiano, ruled that refusal to answer a question in a civil case does not forbid an “adverse inference” on the part of the jury.

While most of the appropriate clauses in the Fifth Amendment would be applied in a criminal case involving a high school student, by default, there are several issues related to the right against self-incrimination and due process that create a legal conundrum for both school officials and students. For example, the Fifth Amendment specifically states that no person “shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself.” Very few school disciplinary procedures rise to the level of “criminal case” and, even if one should rise to this level, the court proceeding would seem to be the place where the Fifth Amendment protection would come into play. There is no question as to whether the student could be forced to testify against himself, as the Fifth Amendment protections clearly apply in a court setting. However, a school official who interviewed the student and demanded that the student respond to the questions could be called to testify, thus allowing the student’s own words to be used against him.

Furthermore, over the years, the reach of the Fifth Amendment has been broadened by courts to include statements or testimony given in legislative hearings, public policy hearings, or before any other governmental agency. A major unanswered question relates to whether School Boards, or the administrators who are employed by these boards, are exempt from the requirements of the Fifth Amendment. Goodwin (1987) suggested using a three-prong analysis of the facts of any specific case, based on a 1985 Supreme Court case, New Jersey v. T.L.O. While this case was specifically targeted at questions related to the application of Fourteenth Amendment questions to public school, Goodwin suggests that the same reasoning can be applied to questions related to the Fifth Amendment, particularly those related to due process. This ruling provided a three step analysis in determining whether any part of the Constitution
applied to schools. First, a determination must be made that the particular amendment applies to public school officials. Next, the substance of the amendment involved must be examined to determine whether the school activity being considered is “within the scope of the amendment” involved. Finally, a determination must be made whether the “special relationship” between school officials and students makes application of the amendment inapplicable in the context of a school setting. (Goodwin, 1987)

It is well accepted that a violation of school rules or policies is not always a criminal act. For example, a student caught smoking in a non-smoking area of the school grounds has clearly violated a school rule, but there would be no criminal action. However, there are also times when violating a school rule also would be a criminal violation (e.g., assault on another student or teacher; or, bringing illegal drugs to the campus). Although case law does not address this specifically, a general rule would be that the Fifth Amendment would not apply when only school policies are involved, but would apply if possible criminal jeopardy was involved. (Goodwin, 1987).

To further confuse the issue, courts have not been consistent in their rulings regarding Fifth-Amendment rights for students. While several courts have ruled in favor of school districts claiming that the “special relationship” between schools and students outweighs the Fifth Amendment rights, other courts have held that the Fifth Amendment protections are paramount. Often times, the rulings against the protections are based on ancillary questions, such as whether a student being held in a principal’s office is “in custody” at the time of the questioning. In J.D.B. v North Carolina, for example, the U.S. Supreme Court refused to apply Fifth Amendment protections to a student who had been interrogated inside a school. The Court remanded the case back to the state court for a hearing to determine if the student was in custody at the time of his interrogation, even though the people interrogating the student at the school included police officers and school officials. This question is further complicated by the fact that many “school resource officers” are also sworn law-enforcement officers who are either working for the school district or who are assigned to the school from a local law enforcement agency. When a student confesses to an act which might not only be a violation of school rules, but also a violation of criminal law in the presence of a police officer, or member of another law enforcement group, it seems strange that the Fifth Amendment rights of the student are somehow mitigated based on the location of the interrogation.

However, in another case in Kentucky (N.C. v. Kentucky, 2013), the Kentucky Supreme Court ruled that a student’s confession to school officials and the School Resource Officer (who was a sworn sheriff’s officer) should not have been allowed in a later criminal case against the student. In this particular case, the student had been taken to a room in the school office, where he had been questioned in a closed setting by an assistant principal. The School Resource Officer later testified that he had been present throughout the questioning and that he had been wearing clothing (not to mention a firearm) that clearly identified him as a law enforcement official. In this instance, the Kentucky Supreme Court considered two major factors: 1) whether a law enforcement officer is present and takes part in the questioning; and, 2) was the individual being questioned being held in custody. Given the circumstances of the “confession,” the court held that the student had every reason to believe he was in custody and that he was being questioned by law enforcement officials.
Clearly, school disciplinary matters do not rise to the same level as criminal acts in most instances. However, when school disciplinary matters and criminal law overlap, there are typically three areas where the legal questions arise. First, where did the interrogation occur (was the student in custody)? Next, who participated in the interrogation? Finally, where was the crime committed and did this crime result in a direct threat to the school or to the students? (Lentini, 2012)

For the most part, courts have not equated “custody” with compulsory attendance, which means that, if the place of interrogation is on school premises, certain other factors had to be in place for a student to be considered “in custody.” The guiding question here is whether the student would feel free to leave the questioning. If the student felt constrained to the location where the interrogation was being done, and did not feel they had the right to leave, custody is established. In *J.D.B. v. North Carolina* (2011), the Supreme Court noted that juveniles, more so than adults, are more likely than adults to give in to pressure. (Lentini, 2012) Therefore, they would be more likely to provide a tainted confession than adults.

The questions related to the participants in the interrogation are somewhat murkier. In *S.E. v. Grant County Bd. Of Education, et.al* (2008), the court hearing allegations of violations of the Fifth Amendment regarding a student who was referred to legal officials by a school official after being accused of giving a fellow student an Adderall pill, found that the school principal who conducted the interrogation was not a law enforcement agent and, therefore, was not subject to rules requiring a Miranda warning. (Batterson, n.d.) However, in the aforementioned *N.C. V. Kentucky*, the Kentucky Supreme Court held that, because the assistant principal who conducted the interrogation was acting in concert with the School Resource Officer, the assistant principal was, for all practical purposes, a “state actor.” (Kentucky Supreme Court Rules, 2013)

The final question is concerned with where the crime was committed and whether or not the alleged crime posed a direct threat to the school or to the students at the school. While common sense clearly tells us that there are some conditions under which a student could be made to make incriminating statements (e.g., he is strongly suspected of being involved with a planned mass shooting), there are also many instances where the school clearly has no jurisdiction (e.g., a series of burglaries in homes near the school). On this question, though, the courts do not provide guidance. These issues have not been heard by courts and, thus, no guidance can be found.

An examination of court cases related to Fifth Amendment rights as applied to school students leads to the conclusion that there are more questions than answers currently available. And, where there are answers, they are often contradictory and provide little guidance. When lower courts disagree about application of a legal standard, the disagreements usually end up before the U.S. Supreme Court, where guidelines and directions are provided. To this point, however, the U.S. Supreme Court has not ruled on any of issues raised in this paper.
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Get Organized and Create!
Using Web 2.0 for Learning

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Introduction
Teachers and students are expected to integrate technology. The tools of technology are constantly changing. Therefore, teachers and students are expected to adjust to these changes. In addition, information is being added at such a rapid pace all stakeholders need to adapt to the changing demands. Web 2.0 tools allow for a new level of engagement with this information.

Review of Literature
The internet has evolved with time. Originally, the Web was used as a means to gather information (Huber, 2010). Web 2.0 “describes a new generation of Web services and applications that offer the opportunity to collaborate, share, and create content through social networking tools….In contrast to noninteractive Web sites where users passively view information that others have created, the Web 2.0 site enables users to interact with other users or edit content” (Huber, 2010, p. 43). Through the use of these tools, people can access the information and add their content and ideas to collaborate together.

The Web 2.0 presentation tools help “students to create individual or small-group presentations to document and display the results of research they have done and/or to practice making persuasive presentations” (Roblyer & Doering, 2010, p. 188). According to the International Society for Technology in Education Standards for Students, students should be using technology to communicate and collaborate as they create digital work. Students are not passive recipients of information, but rather co-creators of knowledge through the exchange of information and experiences (Orehovacki, Bubas, & Konecki, 2009).

Symbaloo and LiveBinders
Symbaloo and LiveBinders are two tools used to get organize. Symbaloo allows for the creation of a “webmix”. “It allows the customization and configuration of one’s own homepage-called webmix- by building it with visual blocks to access preferred services and bookmarks” (Martin, Salinas, & Benito, 2012, p. 5). These blocks are tiles which when clicked; take the user directly to the website. The tiles can be arranged by color-coding them, including an icon of the website, and labeling them. The format is similar to what used to be considered a “Hotlist”, but instead of listed the title of the website and the URL on a Word document, it is an interactive web 2.0 tool available at www.symbaloo.com.

LiveBinders is an online tool which allows users to collect resources in one location. By accessing www.livebinders.com, the user can create an online binder for content, similar to a system where portfolios were created. Rather than the old 3-ring binders, LiveBinders can be utilized to house binders from others who have public documents or create original documents. LiveBinders allows opportunities for collaborating and sharing information between various groups.

Once teachers and students are organized, then they are ready to create digital products. “One of the most powerful ways to encode information in long-term memory is through writing. Increasingly, writing is seen as a learning strategy that teachers should integrate across content areas” (Bean, Readence, & Baldwin, 2011, p. 53). The best
way for teachers and students to learn Web 2.0 tools is through authentic practice (Albion, 2008).

**Wordle**

Wordle can be used for more than a word cloud, which may be placed on a locker door. At the website [www.wordle.net](http://www.wordle.net), click on the tab labeled “Create”. In the area labeled “Paste in a bunch of text” write the words desired. For academic purposes, consider how important each word is related to the concept being taught. Select the words important to the concept being taught. Important words will appear larger because they are entered more often. Students then write a summary statement about the concept learned connecting the words displayed in the Wordle.

Students need to use both receptive and expressive forms of communication in developing conceptual understanding of content (Bean, Readence, & Baldwin, 2011). Students listen and see as receptive parts to communication and speak and write as expressive parts to communication. When the students are seeing words to select for their Wordle or viewing other constructed Wordles, students are engaged. Wordle is a great visualization tool. In addition, when students are writing their words for their Wordle or sharing the summary message from their Wordle, they are engaged in the expressive form of communication. Students can discover patterns within various texts. According to Solomon and Schrum (2010), Wordle offers a catalyst for discussion and insights as students have conversations.

**Timetoast**

Timetoast is an online tool that allows for the creation of timelines. It shows the sequential relationship between ideas and events considered in the presence of the passage of time (Bean, Readence, & Baldwin, 2011). Text and images are inserted and appear along the timeline. By clicking on the plus sign, more information can be found about the various points along the timeline.

Students create the timelines at [www.timetoast.com](http://www.timetoast.com). It is a great way to organize, understand, and remember the information. Teachers and students can share timelines on social networking services (Solomon & Schrum, 2010). One of the organizational patterns of text structure is to recognize sequence, which is time order (Tompkins, 2006). Sequencing provides a series, steps, or events in order.

**Smore**

Smore allows teachers and students to create interactive, online flyers. Text, photos, video, and sound can all be added to the flyers. These can also be linked to websites. The website, [www.smore.com](http://www.smore.com), has various templates and designs so the creation of the flyers looks very professional.

Smore can be utilized to describe, summarize, or identify the main idea in any content area. By explaining this information, students are able to write about the content that has been covered in the classroom. The process of restating the content in a succinct manner highlights the most important information. Comprehension is based on this process of summarizing (Marzano, 2010).
Prezi

Prezi is an online presentation maker. Students have described Prezi as “PowerPoint on steroids.” Most students appreciate the fact key information zooms into focus when it is presented. Prezi allows for sharing and collaboration to take place between students and teachers. Text, pictures, and videos are easily inserted to create the path along the various templates.

Prezi provides opportunities to make sense of connected text. Retelling, summarizing, analyzing, and generalizing are four after-reading strategies that can be implemented using Prezi to demonstrate reading comprehension.

Conclusion

As the push for technology integration continues to increase, the opportunities available also increase. Students need to have the opportunities to create, collaborate, share, and present using the latest educational technologies. Symbaloo and LiveBinders provide organization of websites and resources. Wordle, Timetoast, Smore, and Prezi offer opportunities for creating and collaborating. “Everyone learns more when they are actively participating rather than passively sitting and listening to a teacher lecture” (Careless, 2012, p. 46). Through the process of creating these digital products, students write the content and insert pictures and videos as they integrate information across different content areas.

References


Teaching Philosophy of God in a Religiously Plural College Classroom

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It is no surprise to learn that America’s cultural and religious diversity is reflected in its colleges and universities. What may not be so obvious is that this diversity is to be found even at religiously affiliated institutions of higher learning. I teach philosophy at a Catholic university which is one of only a dozen diocesan universities in the country, meaning that the school is under the direct authority of the local “ordinary,” or the Bishop of the diocese in which it is located (in our case, the Bishop of Erie, Pennsylvania). This fact might suggest—correctly—that the university has a strongly articulated Catholic mission and identity. But as is true of many Catholic colleges in the United States, Gannon University has in recent years experienced a large influx of international students bringing with them diverse cultural sensibilities and religious identities. A stimulating challenge is thus created for those of us in the disciplines most concerned with matters of religion and ultimate value, and which are charged most explicitly with articulating the Catholic mission and identity of the university. The task is to offer courses which are at once reflective of the Catholic intellectual tradition, and which have something to offer students from other or no faith backgrounds.

In what follows I will describe in more detail the situation I have outlined, and will then describe my experience teaching a course in the philosophy of God in a religiously plural—predominantly Christian and Muslim—college classroom. I hope that my admittedly limited experience demonstrates the rich opportunities for cultural exchange and mutual understanding which an increasingly diverse college environment provides.

At the recent Islamic Night on Gannon’s campus (now an annual event), the chairman of the Muslim Students Association noted the fact that Gannon’s Muslim population now makes up about 10% of the student body. This percentage is particularly striking when placed in the context of Gannon’s location in the moderately sized and not notably diverse city of Erie, Pennsylvania, and when it is also noted that the undergraduate student body is mostly drawn from western Pennsylvania, eastern Ohio, and western New York. But Gannon’s experience is by no means unusual at the present time. A 2010 article in the Chronicle of Higher Education remarked that (quoting the Washington Post), “Roman Catholic colleges have been ‘astonished and sometimes befuddled’ by an influx of Muslim students in the last few years. The article, citing UCLA’s Higher Education Research Institute, says that last year Catholic colleges had a higher percentage of Muslim students than did the average four-year institution.” Among other interesting illustrative details, the Chronicle article mentions that Georgetown University, a Jesuit institution, now has a full-time Muslim chaplain.1 A 2012 New York Times article notes that while “the flow of students from the Muslim world into American colleges and universities has grown sharply in recent years...interviews with students and administrators at several Catholic institutions indicate an even faster rate of growth there, with the Muslim student population generally doubling over the past decade, and the number of Muslim women tripling or more”2. And an Associated Press article in the same year singled out Gannon University by name as a school that has made notable efforts to welcome Muslim students, for example by dedicating a of a new “Interfaith Prayer Space,” where students from all faiths are able to pray and study in accordance with their religious traditions. The article noted: “In another expression of the school’s commitment to engage its Muslim population and improve its interfaith activities, during the ceremony
dedicating the new space, Rev. Michael Kesicki read from the Bible and a Muslim student read a passage from the Qur'an.”

The articles cite several reasons why Muslim students seem particularly comfortable at Catholic institutions. Some of these reasons, particularly for female students, have to do with the desire for gender-segregated housing, and with the expectation (realistic or not) that less permissiveness and a generally more conservative environment might be encountered at a Catholic school. But beyond reasons of this kind, Muslim students quoted in these features say they “prefer a place where talk of religious beliefs and adherence to a religious code are accepted and even encouraged, socially and academically.” (Richard Pérez-Pena, 2012).

Now, the problem is that the religious beliefs and the religious code institutionally embodied by schools like Gannon University (or Georgetown, or the University of Dayton, or Villanova, among Catholic schools cited in the articles quoted) are those of the Catholic faith, not those of Islam. What are some of the ways Catholicism shapes the curriculum and character of a school like Gannon? Apart from overt symbols like crucifixes in the classrooms, prayer led by a priest-chaplain at the beginning of community meetings and commencement, and prominent notices of liturgical events on campus, students encounter the Catholic identity very directly and in a sustained way through compulsory coursework in the core curriculum, which at Gannon is called the Liberal Studies program. Among the courses required of all undergraduate students regardless of major or religious affiliation are fifteen credits combined of theology and philosophy, including a three-credit freshman course on the Bible, and a three credit freshman course in introduction to philosophy. Upper division courses from which students may then select include courses in the history of philosophy—very much within the Western, Judeo-Christian tradition—and a course in the Philosophy of God, which is the particular focus of my discussion in this paper.

The Philosophy of God course is somewhat different from a typical course in what would be called the philosophy of religion. While philosophy of religion takes a fairly general view of religious concepts—the meaningfulness of religious language, the nature of religious experience, the logical problem of God and evil, and so forth—the Philosophy of God course is focused more specifically on theism, or the existence and nature of God as understood in the conceptual framework of Biblical religion. This focus might seem to narrow the course rather severely. What possible value could a course so conceived have for students who do not subscribe to the Christian faith—for students of no faith, or perhaps students of the Muslim faith?

For those students without religious affiliation the relevance consists in the fact that Biblical theism continues to be a potent cultural force. Biblical tenets or what are purported to be such play a significant role even in the platforms of political parties and in the laws and policies adopted by national and state legislatures, and an acquaintance with the philosophical foundations and framework of theism is a component of cultural literacy. In addition, popular writings as well as the web presence of the so-called “New Atheism” keep issues of the rationality of belief in God at the forefront of popular attention. I have found it to be a stimulating feature of the Philosophy of God curriculum to devote specific attention to the arguments of some of the “New Atheists,” particularly those of the Oxford biologist Richard Dawkins, author of the recent bestseller The God Delusion, and Sam Harris, the American philosopher and neuroscientist, and author of
several provocative bestsellers such as *The End of Faith*, *Letter to a Christian Nation*, and *The Moral Landscape: How Science Can Determine Human Values*. These writers (along with others such as Christopher Hitchens and Daniel Dennett) make a sharply articulated case for the irrationality and toxicity of religious belief, its power to foment violence, and its irrelevance to genuine human welfare and humane values. Engagement with these arguments is the business of apologetics, and in part the course as I have developed it is a primer in Christian apologetics, defending and justifying Christian truth claims against argumentative challenges. The debates between the New Atheists and Christian apologetics involve some of the most enduringly significant philosophical problems: what is the relation between morality and theism? Is morality possible apart from a theistic foundation? Can the worldview of modern scientific naturalism serve as the basis for a meaningful existence? And even more basically, what is a good argument? Can there be evidence for the unseen? And what role can or should reason play in religious belief?

The literature of contemporary Christian apologetics also provides common ground for Christians and Muslims, as indeed for Jews—the adherents of the “Abrahamic” faiths. William Lane Craig, one of the foremost scholars in the field of apologetics and natural theology at the present time, has revived an argument for God which has its origin in medieval Islamic philosophy and which forms the centerpiece of Craig’s own apologetic for theism. Called the kalam cosmological argument, from the Arabic word for “speech” (a shorthand term for the whole tradition of medieval Islamic philosophy) the argument has its origin in the philosophy of the 11th century Persian scholar al-Ghazali. Craig’s version of the argument is simplicity itself: first premise, whatever begins to exist has a cause; second premise, the universe began to exist, conclusion, the universe has a cause. Craig draws on the standard model of cosmology, the Big Bang theory, in support of the second premise, but he also draws on the mathematical argument of al-Ghazali, which establishes the impossibility of an infinite past due to the absurdity of an actual infinity of past events (Craig, 2008, p. 96).

Al-Ghazali is also of interest as a precursor of the famous “best of all possible worlds” theodicy popularized by G.W. Leibniz in the early 18th century and later satirized by Voltaire.

Another important apologetic argument for theism which resonates with Muslim students quite as much as with Christians is the teleological argument (or family of arguments), which points to evidence of intelligent design in the universe. A famous example of such an argument in Western philosophy is that of William Paley, with his analogy of a watch to a watchmaker as expressing the relation of the world to its supreme designer and fashioner. One Saudi student whom I have gotten to know well was excited to share with me verses from the Qur’an which, as he explained, make a similar point concerning the evidence of God’s handiwork in creation. Here are a few samples:

- “Indeed in the creation of the heavens and the earth, and the alternation of night and day, and the ships that sail at sea with profit to men, and the water that Allah sends down from the sky —with which He revives the earth after its death, and scatters therein every kind of animal— and the changing of the winds, and the clouds disposed between the sky and the earth, are surely signs for a people who apply reason.” (Qur’an 2: 164)
“Do they not reflect in their own minds? Not but for just ends and for a term appointed, did God create the heavens and the earth, and all between them…” (Qur’an 30: 8)

“Do they not observe the camel, how she has been created? And the sky, how it has been raised? And the mountains, how they have been set? And the earth, how it has been surfaced?” (Qur’an 88: 17-20)

These verses can profitably be related to a Bible passage such as Romans 1:20, which speaks of God’s invisible nature being manifested by the things he has made, thus illustrating a common scriptural insight behind the reasoning of the teleological argument.

The enthusiasm of the student who shared these verses with me corresponded inversely with his initial uneasiness at the prospect of taking a philosophical approach to matters of faith, an uneasiness which has been expressed to me by other Muslim students (and not a few Christian students as well). He told me that in his experience philosophizing about faith, asking questions, probing the rational basis for belief, and related activities was regarded as at best alien to the religious tradition, and potentially a threat to piety. For him and for other students sharing that reservation it comes as something of a surprise to see the rich tradition of Islamic philosophizing about God, even when they are familiar, as many are, with the intellectual contributions in other areas such as medicine of Islamic philosophers like al-Ghazali, Ibn-Sina (whom the Latins called Avicenna), and Ibn-Rushd (Latinized as Averroes). A parallel surprise awaits many Christian students formed in a scripture-centric background, some of whom tell me that they have never examined their faith in a philosophical way, and who likewise attest both to an initial uneasiness, and often to an eventual appreciation of the positive role philosophy can play in belief.

Some of the more interesting, because uninhibited, class discussions occur for me in the context of online discussion forums, which I make a regular feature of many of my courses. Some particularly lively exchanges have involved the question of whether life has any meaning or purpose from the standpoint of non-theistic scientific naturalism, and the moral argument for God, or the argument that, in the absence of God, morality is simply subjective. A provocative critic of this contention about morality is Sam Harris, for example in his TED talk of a couple of years ago, in which he argues that science provides a fully adequate basis for human values by defining the conditions for human flourishing. The video of Harris’ TED talk makes for stimulating viewing and discussion in class, particularly since Harris is outspoken in his criticisms of cultural practices associated with some Muslim societies, such as the full-body veiling of the burka (and in fairness he is equally critical of the commercialization of nudity in Western societies). The question of the theistic basis of morality has been an area in which Muslim and Christian students have found common ground, as discussion forum postings have plainly shown, and the more general question of whether morals have or require any sort of “objective” basis is one which is timely for all of us. And of course religious pluralism adds the difficult problem of competing codes of divinely sanctioned morality—although here, too, it has been instructive for me to see the commonalities of the most general moral precepts across religions. The Golden Rule as found in the Gospel of Matthew is stated quite as explicitly in the Torah, as indeed it is also in the Hadith.
Now the Philosophy of God course at a Catholic University cannot neglect the person of Jesus Christ and the apologetic arguments concerning Jesus’ self-understanding, the basis of confidence in our historical knowledge of Jesus, and the apologetic arguments concerning his resurrection. But even here, where confessional differences would seem most likely to divide students, if not alienate those of no faith commitment or of non-Christian commitment, I have found ways of sparking interest among a wide array of students. For one thing, the problem of the historical Jesus raises the problem of how we know anything happened in history. What are the methods used by modern historians to arrive at a knowledge of the past? Far from being a merely academic question, this problem has a profound contemporary significance in relation to Holocaust denial, and I have used the 2000 trial of David Irving, the notorious Hitler apologist, as a way of opening up these issues for students. And in addition, I have found it interesting to share with students an informative and civil video debate on the identity of Jesus between Christian apologist Mike Licona and Muslim apologist Shabir Ally, of the Muslim Information Center in Toronto (included in Lee Strobel’s *Faith Under Fire* video series). This video gives students exposure to the Islamic view of Jesus, and for many students from Christian backgrounds it is a revelation to realize that Jesus holds such a high and honored place in the Muslim faith, and that there is common understanding across the faiths of the facts of Jesus’ life, death, resurrection and second coming.

In closing, the changing demographic of our university has given me an opportunity to become acquainted not just with Muslim students personally, but with the common basis of philosophical theology which Christians and Muslims share. Even a course as important to Gannon’s mission and identity as Philosophy of God has shown itself to be capable of expanding beyond confessional narrowness and offering something of interest to both non-Christian (Muslim) and non-theistic (atheist, agnostic and indifferent) students. The dialogue of faith and reason (and of faith and faith) is indeed alive and well at Catholic universities, to our common enrichment.

5 This and subsequent translations from http://al-quran.info/
Communicating with Children about War and Terrorism: How Quality Literature Helps Promote Resiliency

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Constant media coverage in the immediate aftermath of war-related events and the continuing emphasis on terrorism has heightened children’s fears. Twenty-first century children have never lived in a world without war. Graca Machel (2001), author of *The Impact of War on Children*, documents the devastating, total impact, both body and soul, of armed conflict on children. When families, schools, and communities are shattered, children lose any sense of stability. Hostilities eventually cease, but the horrors of war continue to impact children through landmines, unexploded ammunition, the day to day instability of refugee existence, etc.

Reporting the results of a study undertaken with the support of the United Nations Centre for Human Rights and the United Nations Children’s Fund, Machel (1996) noted that

. . . millions of children are caught up in conflicts in which they are not merely bystanders, but targets. Some fall victim to a general onslaught against civilians; others die as part of a calculated genocide. Still other children suffer the effects of sexual violence or the multiple deprivations of armed conflict that expose them to hunger or disease. Just as shocking, thousands of young people are cynically exploited as combatants (p. 5).

Some 43 percent (157 of 366) of all armed organizations around the world--from Sierra Leone to Colombia, Sri Lanka to the Congo, Liberia to Sudan--use child soldiers, 90 percent of whom see battle. In the last decade, more than two million children have been killed in combat, a rate of some 500 per day (Singer, 2005).

Modern major armed conflicts spare nothing--not crops, not homes, not hospitals, not schools, not children. Machel (1996) reported an estimated two million children killed in armed conflict between 1986 and 1996 alone, with at least six million seriously injured or permanently disabled, many of them by landmines. Children around the world are slaughtered, raped, maimed, and exploited as soldiers and sex slaves every day.

Children have rights, and war violates every one of their rights—the right to a quality life, the right to live in peace with their families and communities, the right to health and protection. Many children today have no childhood; instead, from birth to early adulthood they are assaulted multiple ways. Their physical, emotional, moral, cognitive, and social development are disrupted.

. . . Distinctions between combatants and civilians disappear in battles fought from village to village or from street to street. In recent decades, the proportion of war victims who are civilians has leaped dramatically from 5 per cent to over 90 per cent. The struggles that claim more civilians than soldiers have been marked by horrific levels of violence and brutality. Any and all tactics are employed, from systematic rape, to scorched-earth tactics that destroy crops and poison wells, to ethnic cleansing and genocide. With all standards abandoned, human rights violations against children and women occur in unprecedented numbers. Increasingly, children have become the targets and even the perpetrators of violence and atrocities (Machel, 1996, p. 9).

. . . Involving children as soldiers has been made easier by the proliferation of inexpensive light weapons. Previously, the more dangerous weapons were either heavy or complex, but these guns are so light that children can use them and so simple that they can be stripped and reassembled by a child of 10 (Machel, 1996, p. 10).
The most serious crisis facing children today is Syria’s war; Syria has entered the fourth year of the war. Children make up half of all the Syrian refugees who have fled to neighboring countries and increasingly to North Africa and Europe (Schlein, 2013). The children arrive in countries of asylum traumatized, depressed, and angry. Syria is facing the problem of a lost generation. A review of the chart from the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (see below) documents armed conflicts worldwide in 2012.

(See Figure 1)

Parents and teachers recognize the impact of war on children in the United States, but many are not sure how adults should talk to children about war in order to help the children develop the resiliency necessary to cope with war. After the war in Afghanistan began in October 2001 and the war in Iraq began in March 2003, articles appeared in journals targeting how these wars might be affecting American children. Three strategies were suggested:

- Introduce the topic of war and talk directly with children using developmentally appropriate strategies.
- Wait until children themselves raise the issue of war.
- Tell children who raise the issue of war not to worry—war is for adults, not children (Levin & Van Horn, 2009).

Bibliotherapy can be used as a venue to introducing war and terrorism to children. Sharing quality children’s literature about these topics helps students build resilience to these traumas (McIntyre, n.d.). Bibliotherapy is defined as the use of selected reading materials as therapeutic tools people can use to address personal problems. As adults share the power of a story with children, the therapeutic reading helps children become involved with the characters in the story; they leave the story having gained new insight and ideas suggested by the adult. Bibliotherapy helps children overcome the pain of real-life problems as they discuss with others the resolution of the dilemma(s) presented in the story. Adults (parents and teachers) provide guidance in the resolution of personal crisis as children pass through three stages (¶ 3-5):

- **identification** (children identify with characters and events in the story),
- **catharsis** (children become emotionally involved with characters and events and share emotions with an adult in a safe environment through discussion or perhaps art), and
- **insight** (children realize that their problems can be addressed using strategies demonstrated in the book by the characters).

Besides bibliotherapy, what other strategies constitute effective interventions for reducing the emotional and cognitive impacts of traumatic events on children? Gangi and Barowsky (2009) suggest that simply glossing over the problems is not an appropriate solution. Bibliotherapy addresses the reality of the traumatic events. Bishop (1990) noted that adults need to select two kinds of books to use when conducting bibliotherapy: **window books** in which children see into worlds beyond their own and **mirror books** that reflect the children’s lives and the traumatic events the children have experienced: war, terrorism, and disaster. Discussing these two types of books with a trusted adult helps children feel less isolated and bond with others.

The level of children’s anxiety has increased as the level of media exposure to war, terrorism, and disaster have increased. The world is a scarier place for American
children, especially for children whose military parents have been deployed for active
duty in a war. According to Pentagon data, more than 800,000 children have had a
parent deployed in war since 2001, and about 43 percent of the Americans deployed in
Iraq and Afghanistan are parents (Glod, 2008, July 17). Millions of other children have
friends whose parents have been deployed.

What are children learning about violence and how countries deal with conflict? As
they watch television, where video clips about war, terrorism, and disaster are
ongoing news features, they learn that the world is a violent and scary place. Conflicts
are usually solved by people using violence. The United States of America uses
violence to solve conflicts. The current generation of American children is learning to
see violence as the normal, even preferred, way of solving conflicts (Grossman &
Degaetano, 1999) as violence in media conditions children to take it for granted as an
acceptable part of life and trains them to be successful instigators of violence. Violence
seems to make people powerful, while non-violent conflict resolution from the personal
to the international level can seem irrelevant. When parents and teachers are silent,
they fail to help children make sense of war, terrorism, and disaster.

In addition to bibliotherapy, other strategies suggested by the APA Help Center
(n. d.) include the following:

- Talk with children, answering their questions honestly, but simply. Leave
  them with messages of hope and encouragement, reassuring them that
  you will do whatever it takes to keep them safe.
- Make home a safe haven, providing lots of family time and spending more
time with the children.
- Limit children’s exposure to news media during times of war, terrorism, or
disaster. Do not hide what is happening, but do not expose children to
constant stories about scary events. Monitor children’s use of the Internet,
restricting gory or sensationalized websites about violence. Watch the
news with the children, discussing what they are seeing.
- Be prepared for children to respond to the stresses of violence with bad
  behavior. Be firm; emphasize the need for each child to do his/her best
- Parents should map out a routine and stick to it at home since it is
  reassuring for events at home and school to be constant.
- Caretakers need to take care of themselves. Otherwise, they may have
  less patience when children need it. Many people find turning to a higher
  power can help.
- Reassure children that they will be protected. Discuss the school and
  family emergency plans. Tell the truth about how long a family member
  will be deployed, where the family member is, and how and when the
  family member will contact them.
- Observe children carefully for signs of fear and anxiety that they may not
  be able to verbalize, such as a drop in grades, putting scary feelings into
  art projects, etc.
- Encourage every child to help around the house to contribute to the
  family’s well-being. Explain that everyone has a role to play, and each
  child can help.
- Explain to the children that all wars end. Point out the good times from the past and those you expect to have in the future. Teach children how to turn off negative thoughts and think positive thoughts, perhaps by singing a particular song.
- While adults can teach children resilience, this does not mean that children will never have bad times. Bad times hurt, and everyone has times when they are not happy.
- If adults need help teaching children resilience, they can consult a mental health professional for guidance.

The good news is that, just as a child learns reading and writing, he or she can learn the skills of resilience, the ability to adapt well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats, or even significant sources of stress (APA Help Center, n. d.). Webster and Harris (2009) suggest adults can provide children with support and help them develop resilience by acknowledging children’s feelings, creating home-school connections, helping children feel personally safe, attending to the needs of children who may feel isolated, and expecting and responding to changes in behavior.

Teachers need to develop strategies to help children in the classroom manage their distress when confronted with war, terrorism, and disasters (Berson & Baggerly, 2009). Focusing on read-alouds during bibliography and making accommodations for children’s individual needs helps children develop resilience. Talking about the events and the characters’ problem-solving strategies brings insight and gives children comfort. Bibliotherapy discussions should be incorporated as part of the normal, routine read-aloud activities. As adults lead bibliotherapy sessions, children are reassured that other people share similar feelings and concerns. “The most important words adults can say are those messages that convey a sense of hope for the future” (p. 379).

Many adults, both teachers and parents, would like to wash their hands of the study of war (Crawford & Roberts, 2009). However, it may be advisable to study the nature of war, its complications, and its consequences on the lives of those impacted by it. Such a study can help children learn to cope with the impacts that the threat and reality of war have on their lives and help them learn how to develop resilience. A vast number of American children have parents who have been deployed to war zones, while many others experience war vicariously. Adults would be remiss not to discuss war, terrorism, and disaster with children, even though the topics are complicated. Children can be invited to discuss these topics through picture books, many of which are developmentally appropriate for many different ages. In depth story lines and rich illustrations make picture books a compact and powerful resource for all ages. Incorporating picture books like Pink and Say depicting the horror of the Civil War and detention camps such as Andersonville follows the “exposure model”; children are exposed to the atrocities of war under the supervision of an adult who prompts children using thoughtful questions that lead to involved discussions. Though some people question the appropriateness of such text for children, advocates suggest that adults can no longer deny the existence of or postponing children’s confrontations with war, terrorism, or disasters.

Powerful books that can help children learn about war, terrorism, and disasters are listed in Gangi’s (2009) “Annotated Bibliography of Children’s Literature Resources...
Some of the author’s favorites are included in the following annotated list:


Coerr, E. (2004). *Sadako and the thousand paper cranes*. New York: Puffin. A young Japanese girl contracted leukemia as a result of exposure to the radiation from the atom drive dropped on Hiroshima. Languishing in the hospital, she makes paper cranes, setting a goal of 1,000. She completes only 644 cranes before she dies, but the rest are constructed by her classmates, and all 1,000 paper cranes are buried with her.

Collier, J. L., & Collier, C. (2005). *My brother Sam is dead*. New York: Scholastic Paperbacks. In a land torn by the Revolutionary War, a younger brother, Tim, looks up to his older brother Sam who is part of the American Revolution. Tim and his father support the British, while Sam is a staunch patriot. A time comes when Tim has to make a stand.


Forbes, E. (1987). *Johnny Tremain*. New York: Dell Yearling. This 1944 Newbery Award winning novel is a classic. Johnny, a young, boastful apprentice silversmith, is maimed in an accident and is forced to create a new life for himself. As a worker with the *Boston Observer*, Johnny gets involved in a spy network whose events lead to the Revolutionary War.


Lewis, J. P., & Kelley, G. (2011). *And the soldiers sang*. Mankato, MN: Creative Editions. Recognized as Best Picture Book in 2012 and receiver of the Boston Globe Horn Book Award, the book chronicles the 1914 Christmas peace on the trenches in World War I. Recommended for middle grade readers, the text is similar to blank verse, and the illustrations employ somber shades depicting the gloomy battlefield setting and mood.

Lowry, L. (2011). *Number the stars*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Books for Young Readers. When German troops begin to “relocate” all of the Jews in Denmark, the Danish Resistance smuggles almost the entire Jewish population in Denmark, almost 7,000 people, to Sweden. The heroism of the people in Denmark shone like a bright light during the darkness of the Holocaust.

students in Kennet, Missouri, write about the day after September 11, focusing on a message of hope that even after tragic events, life will go on.


Morpurgo, M. (1982). *War horse*. New York: Scholastic Press. Learn about the tragedy of World War I from both sides through the eyes of a horse who serves in the English cavalry, is a prisoner of war in the German army, is lost in No Man’s Land between the trenches, and is finally reunited with the boy who loved and cared for him when he was a foal.

Murphy, J. (2009). *Truce: The day the soldiers stopped fighting*. New York: Scholastic. This historical fiction book for young readers about World War I includes actual photographs, sketches, maps and political cartoons.

Park, L. S. (2010). *A long walk to water*. New York: Clarion Books. Vicious rebel soldiers attacked 11-year-old Salva’s school in Sudan in 1985. Living on the run, he endures heat and rain, bullets, crocodiles, before finally making it to refugee camps in Ethiopia and then Kenya. One of the lost boys of Sudan, Salva’s story intertwine when Salva returns to help his people and builds a well, saving Nya from walking eight hours a day to carry water for her family. Now Nya is free to go to school.


Walsh, B. (2012). *The poppy lady: Moina Belle Michael and her tribute to veterans*. Honesdale, PA: Calkins Creek Books. A school teacher from Georgia, Moina Belle Michael, almost on her own, established the red poppy as a symbol to honor and remember members of the military during World War I.

Winter, J. (2005). *The librarian of Basra: A true story from Iraq*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Books for Young Readers. The chief librarian in Basra, Alia Muhammad Baker, moved 30,000 books from the library to hidden areas in homes, restaurants, and safe havens only nine days before the library burned to the ground during the Iraq War. One person can make a difference, even during times of war.
Yolen, J. (2004). The devil's arithmetic. New York: Puffin. Hannah objects to celebrating Passover and remembering the Holocaust. Magically transported to a Polish village in the 1940s, she is captured by the Nazis and taken to a death camp. Befriended by another young girl who is chosen to die, Hannah sacrifices herself and is returned to her family in the present. Hannah learns why it is so important to remember what happened to people during the Holocaust.


References


*Figure 1.* Uppsala Conflict Data Program. *Armed conflicts 2012.* (Themner & Wallensteen, 2013).
M-Commerce: Market Segmentation

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Abstract:
Today’s consumers embrace constant upgrades and changes with regards to technology, marketing for such products has become even more challenging. Therefore it becomes necessary to ensure if you are delivering the right messages to the right people with the right channels. This paper takes us through the transformation seen in the advertising world, while analyzing the concept and strategies of market segmentation in regards to the global markets. The next generation in the advertising world will be the Mobile-Commerce industry, which is having a tremendous impact on marketing strategies.

The development in wireless technology has an increasing effect on the number of mobile device users and thus has paced up the expansion of e-commerce using these devices. The upcoming trend of e-commerce controlling transactions by means of mobile terminals is called mobile commerce. Mobile e-commerce, now-a-days referred to as m-commerce is the ability to purchase goods anywhere through a wireless internet enabled device. (Gibson,2011) M-commerce activities including include establishing and maintaining online relationship between an organization and its suppliers, dealers, customers and other agents related in the transactions. M-commerce is not always typical e-commerce. The idea of e-commerce is globally implicit while the idea of m-commerce is catching up at a basic level. Both modalities are computer-assisted and network-enabled. Each of these share some common facets, as well as possess their unique features which define their state and roles. The specific elements which gives m-commerce its uniqueness are ubiquity, convenience, localization and personalization. (See Figure 1)

Mobile Market Segmentation:
To establish mobile commerce within an organization needs a sound Mobile Strategy and a well-defined roadmap to ensure accurate items are prioritized from which actionable results can be obtained. In a world where consumers are exposed to marketing messages, it’s even more important to ensure you’re delivering the right messages, to the right people with the right channels. The growth in Mobile-Commerce industry has a tremendous impact on marketing strategies. In the last decade we have seen the rise in mobile applications and consumers growing interest towards the latest technology. Currently the research indicates that substantial investment is being done towards advertising dollar that is being devoted by using the M-Commerce industry. The importance of mobile marketing is clearly expanding, but there are still many obstacles to pass. It is vital that the consumer takes the initiative in all forms of mobile marketing and communication. It’s also important that the expectations are made very clear by marketers from the start. There are many ways to market the mobile consumer, from direct contact campaigns to applications and much more. Most essential is a careful selection of the correct communication channel and the right mobile marketing action in function of the target group. While considering global marketing, there are enormous differences in the use of mobile devices such as smart phones, depending on the country where the consumers live and other demographic parameters such as the age group. These regional variances apply for relatively new mobile applications such
as location-based services and mobile social networks, but also for older applications, such as text messaging. And finally there still are the variances depending on age group, types of applications etc. “Mobile segmentation is the difference between smart, informed marketing interactions and a “best guess.” (Askalani, 2013). By this she means that the market is unpredictable where anything can work, heavy marketing strategies or even a best guess. With the segmentation approach, we understand that which consumers are using mobile devices, that allows the mobile companies to respond effectively to the smart marketing sectors.

**Developing Mobile Strategy:**

**Roadmap Strategy**

Once a clear picture of vision and objective is sketched one can explore deeper into the insights of mobile specific requirements to initiate the process. The below diagram can be considered as a roadmap in preparation of implementation and optimization considering the key areas of mobile marketing strategy.

(See Mobile Strategy Figure)

The most important factor while planning marketing strategy would be- consumers. The lead to any good user experience strategy is to ensure that all interfaces are customized with a strong understanding of your consumer and their goals. Centralized user profile gives the consumers flexibility to use any device at any time. It is not unusual for one to start work on a laptop, continue it on the way home from a smart phone and finish it up using a tablet. This strategy helps in collecting all specifics about a user in a common place. In this virtual space of digital marketing content is the primary product which is being sold. Thus, it is very essential to design a well conceived content management system which ensures consumers to browse and utilize the content which is valuable to them. Technology today is ever changing and continuously improving. It is extremely critical to ensure that the data and content are feasible for usage in future. Creating applications in various formats and styles today can be subject to improvement in times ahead. It is important to have strategic methods of receiving and prioritizing input from Marketing, Sales, Technology and Customers which will impact both tactical priorities as well as strategic updates. To live up to the continuous improvement it is necessary to have a solid, extensible platform and a responsive IT team who work together to bring out excellent results for mobile sites and apps. Digital goods require a centralized entitlements engine which synchronizes in real time with all channels customers are using to provide an integrated experience while using multiple devices. All requirements and inputs are grouped into items, which are then prioritized and scheduled on the program roadmap. Many organizations have multiple roadmaps, one for each major product or channel that they support. When new items are added to the queue for implementation, they often have components that span multiple teams’ roadmaps (e.g. Marketing Roadmap, Platform/API Roadmap, Mobile App roadmap, etc. could all be impacted when a new feature is added to a mobile app). (Dann, 2011)

**Analytics of customer data:**

Centralized data: It is extremely important to recognize high-opportunity in customer segments. By using the graphical methods companies understand from the data and discover customer profile. One can successfully identify the profile
characteristics of the best-converting customers and use that gained insight for segmentation and target selection, and spot cross-sell opportunities.

Data exploration: It proves beneficial to understand your customer profile and how they behave across channels by using different techniques to let your data speak for itself—such as visual charting, trees, bubbles, data grids, etc. Companies should locate their most profitable segment of customers and make sure that it doesn’t overlap with untapped segments.

Best practice data mining: This technique teaches how to convert data into customer intelligence and discover their hidden patterns. Using techniques to learn what your most profitable customers have in common and monetizing this by finding common segments among your prospects and visitors gives you a wider perspective of the market. Customers who show similar response behavior can be considered into a target market. Enlightening such patterns helps companies design more profitable marketing programs across channels.

Customer prediction: Products can be offered to consumers by their preferred means of channels. Customers at risk should be detected and reached out to avoid any kind of loss. For example, optimize the marketing budget by offering selective on boarding discounts only to those online visitors or first purchase customers to create a buzz in the market.

Behavioral analysis: Companies can convert data into actionable profile indicators that can be used for segmentation and personalization. Through combining such individual behavioral metrics with purchase history completely new targeting opportunities can be exposed.

RE-TARGETTING:
Re-targeting is fundamentally done to get back a lost customer. For instance, those visitors who abandon their interests due to any reason (such as price, specification, color etc.) will be re-targeted. Consumers searching for specific product categories will receive tailored promotions. It's all about detecting customer intent and capitalizing on it.

MARKETING FATIGUE:
Many brands have no idea how many messages they send to customers. Target segments overlap and event-driven campaigns are triggered on an individual basis. This is the reason brands lose track of contact frequency. But it really does matter as customers will show their dislike by simply opting out. Simply define a maximal contact frequency per channel and assign priorities to your campaigns. The most important messages should be prioritized and sent across.

EXECUTE ACROSS CHANNEL
These are the promotion methods which can be used by mobile companies to launch their product across the market.

1. Social media: In today's world social media is the fastest and most convenient method to spread the word across. Facebook, twitter, YouTube, websites are some of the best channels to showcase your product.
2. Point of contact: Word of mouth publicity creates a strong impact with the customers. Representatives or sales person can be appointed for an in-person activity as part of your automated marketing program. This technique also gives you an on the spot feedback from the customers.
3. Customer feedback: A feedback form filled out by the customers gives an insight of the current scenario of the product in the market. This can be analyzed and worked upon if any flaws are mentioned in the forms. This gives the company a chance to improve the product and reach up to the customers’ expectations.

Marketing and advertising go hand in hand while selling any product. Whether a business is an established global brand or a start-up, effective advertising and marketing can be the key to its success. After an organization plans out the marketing strategies for a product the next step would be planning the advertising and promotion for its launch.

Advertising:
Mobile technology is surfacing faster than any technology we have noticed in the recent past. With growth in customer base it has also expanded and ventured to include mobile apps that are creating an impact globally. There was a lot of research done to innovate apps, when one realized that people today are spending more time on their mobile devices than on any other technology. With 2011, statistics in hand we see an average mobile order was $96.99 in comparison to an average desktop order of $95.19. (Faletski, 2012). Another interesting fact for the increase in mobile shoppers as compared to traditional search methods is the sense of urgency which automatically adds focus and is more result oriented. As reported by Microsoft, that about 70% of the PC searchers and shoppers take around a week to complete their order, whereas 70% of the mobile search tasks take about an hour to be completed. (Faletski, 2012). This information implies that mobile users are looking for something instant and are set for the purchase, whereas the PC users are usually seen browsing. Another important aspect that draws consumers towards m-commerce is the relevant information and time it takes to get the desired result. With a small lean device in your hand, the information that is required is only shown to the customer, without the ads and other irrelevant information that usually appears while browsing on a PC/Desktop, etc.

Another interesting from Google Mobile Ads, showcases that mobile users are active all throughout the day and topping at 9PM on online shopping websites as compared to PS/Desktop users, whose social media activities are restricted at work times. (Werther, 2011) With the growing innovation and technology, this has taken us one notch further into the world of M-Commerce. M-Commerce is the next big thing into the world of advertising, with a new range of digital and technological advancements it’s made advertising, shopping and everything related to this field compressed into one small technology in your hand. The latest feature to be added to this innovation is Mobile Image Recognition (MIR), which is gaining traction. (Dishman, 2013) It is as simple as liking something, taking a snap of it and your phone obtains for you sites from where you could buy it. One of the companies to kick start this idea is Amazon.com. Amazon added image recognition into its main IOS mobile App, where customers are now enjoying services ranging from groceries to video games, all in a click of a button. (Julie, 2014)

Mobile Apps are soon picking the market share and advertisers/marketers are investing in this culture big time. Mobiles are creating a new method of buying and selling for both buyers and sellers. With companies learning to face competition over selling through
mobile applications and executing exactly according to the buyers need with 100% satisfaction guaranteed, customers are noticing the change and are more interested. This cycle is creating a positive return on investment for the sellers along with growth and increased profit margins.

Another important aspect that has come into existence after the use of mobile is Location Based Advertising (LBA). Retailers have found a new way to engage with consumers, through their mobiles. These retailers have partnered with the mobile app companies and are allowed to send in push notifications to consumers. Thus, using this opportunity at the right time is important, when the customer is actually interested in doing that. That’s when location accuracy plays an important role and with a device (mobile) in hand, location is known. (Newman, 2013). It was noted by Digby in a mobile app study that around 22% shoppers responded to push notifications on being in or around the store. Among which, 57% made it to the store. (Digby, 2013)

There are many other sectors which are also increasing in usage apart from the mobile shopping app, such as mobile banking app, mobile weather app, Mobile news app, Mobile maps app, Fitness App, Social media App, etc. Smartphone users indulge in mobile applications for almost everything as there are instant information with instant delivery for the desired outcome. Below are some examples of the applications and their relation with the unique characteristics of m-commerce.

(See Figure 2)

Conclusion:
With mobile commerce rising every second, the predominance of businesses is quite predictable. M-commerce witnessed an 80% growth in 2011 which was overtaken to 105% in 2012. And now, it has been predicted that the industry will generate $119 billion to $1 trillion by 2014. Predictions for the near future of mobile commerce are made in respect to the rising growth rates of both the number of mobile devices and the number of adapting users. The revenue share is also expected to rise for 120% in 2013. Purchasing products and services via mobile devices will become a crucial and familiar aspect in the next one or two years. (Brindha, 2013) The increased usage of smartphone, tablets and similar mobile devices has made mobile marketing a must for many online businesses on a global platform.

References:


![Figure 1: Value Propositions of Mobile Commerce](image)

*(Journal of Business Strategies, Fall2008, Vol. 25 Issue 2, p41-57, 17p, 1 Diagram, 1 Chart, 1 Graph Diagram; found on p45)*
### Figure 2

**m-Commerce Applications**

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*(Dann, 2011)*

*Journal of Business Strategies, Fall 2008, Vol. 25 Issue 2, p41-57, 17p, 1 Diagram, 1 Chart, 1 Graph Chart; found on p49*
Negative Campaigning: What Is It, Why Do They Do It, and What Difference Does It Make?

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Introduction

This paper addresses negative campaigning: What is it? Why do candidates do it? What difference does it make?

During the 2004 presidential campaign, the Swift Boat Veterans for Truth sponsored an ad entitled, “Any Questions?” The ad suggested that John Kerry exaggerated his war injuries to qualify for medals and continued to exaggerate his war record for votes. The same year, an ad entitled “Windsurfing” used humor, classical music, and footage from an ill-conceived photo opportunity to make the point that Kerry was a “flip flopper” who followed political winds and changed positions frequently. In 1988, the “Tank Ride” ad used unfortunate footage of Michael Dukakis riding in a tank, smiling, and wearing an oversized helmet. Claims in the narration and scrolling text were misleading, but the visual images conveyed the impression that Dukakis was weak on defense. Also in 1988, George H.W. Bush ran an ad entitled “Revolving Door” and the National Security PAC ran one called, “Willie Horton.” Convicted rapist Willie Horton committed additional crimes while out of prison on a furlough program when Dukakis was Governor of Massachusetts. The clear implication was that Dukakis was “soft” on crime. But the ad neglected to mention that 40 other states and the federal government had similar furlough programs in place at the time. 1964 featured the famous “Daisy Girl” ad which, in a sense, started the modern age of negative advertising.

How do you feel when you see ads like these? Are they fair? Are they legitimate? Perhaps more important, are they effective? Many people complain about mudslinging and negative advertising in political campaigns. But more than 70% of all presidential ads in 2012 were classified as “negative.” Why are so many negative ads aired? Political consultants, campaign advisors, and candidates believe that negative advertising works! If such advertising did not work, it would not be used so heavily. People remember the messages conveyed by such ads.

But what do political scientists think about negative campaigning? A substantial body of scholarly literature on the topic has developed over the last 20 years examining the many facets and layers of negative campaigning.

Reviewing the Literature

Stephen Ansolabahere et al. published a seminal article in 1994. Their work posed the question, “Does Attack Advertising Demobilize the Electorate?” Their answer was a resounding “yes”! They used an experimental design in which advertising tone was manipulated. They found that exposure to negative ads dropped intentions to vote by 5%. Negative campaigns produced demobilizing effects and a reduced sense of political efficacy. Voters who watched negative ads became more cynical about the responsiveness of public officials and the electoral processes (Ansolabehere 1994).

Two years later, William G. Mayer provided an intriguing defense of negative campaigning (Mayer 1996). Mayer compared the 1960 presidential debates to the 1984, 1988, and 1992 debates. He observed that the 1960 debates seemed more civil, lacking the nastiness, evasions, and scripted one-liners of more recent debates. He cited critics who say that campaigns have become worse since 1960. For example, former Senator Howard Baker noted that smear attacks, most directly, victimize the target of the attack. But they do additional damage by undermining the integrity and credibility of the political system itself. While acknowledging Baker’s point, Mayer questioned easy assumptions
that negative campaigning is always bad. Maybe the problem is one of semantics. “Positive” campaigning dwells on a candidate’s own strengths, merits, plans, and policy proposals. “Negative” campaigning attacks or criticizes an opponent. It emphasizes the opposing candidate’s weaknesses, faults, and mistakes. But what is wrong, Mayer asked, with talking about an opponent’s flaws, weaknesses, and shortcomings, about problems they have not faced, about unrealistic promises they have made, and about issues they would prefer not to talk about? If a candidate’s message is that it is “time for a change,” it is first necessary to explain what is wrong with the status quo. Negative campaigning provides voters with valuable comparative information. The problem occurs when some ads are irrelevant, harsh, mean-spirited, or nasty. Some ads mislead, take actions out of context, or imply connections between events that may be completely unrelated. As such, Mayer cautioned, when we criticize negative campaigning, it is important to be clear.

In 1996, Joseph E. Harrington, Jr. and Gregory D. Hess investigated how candidates allocate resources between positive campaigning (which influences voters’ perceptions of the candidate’s own record) and negative campaigning (which influences voter’s perceptions of the opponent’s record) (Harrington and Hess 1996). They predicted that the candidates who are perceived as having less attractive personal attributes run relatively more negative campaigns and candidates who are viewed as stronger in terms of personal attributes run more positive campaigns. They estimated that roughly half of all political advertising entails negative statements about one’s opponents. They concluded that negative campaigning can be very effective. But they found that there can be a “backlash” effect too. Conveying negative messages about your opponent says something potentially negative about you too. As such, negative campaigning is a high-risk/high-reward strategy.

Two years later, Steven E. Finkel and John G. Geer evaluated and disputed the claim that attack advertising demobilizes voters (Finkel and Geer, 1998). They found that such advertising depresses turnout among some voters. But it stimulates others by increasing their store of political information about candidates, increasing the degree to which they care about the election’s outcome, and increasing their ties to their favored candidates. Further, the demobilizing effects of negative ads are weakest among individuals who are most highly attentive to the media and the campaign.

Several studies of direct interest were published the following year. Kim Fridkin Kahn and Patrick J. Kenney provided additional refinement (Kahn and Kenney 1999). They found that most people can distinguish between useful negative information and harsh mudslinging. Legitimate criticisms increase the likelihood of voting. Unsubstantiated, shrill attacks do the opposite. But the effect of such negativity is muted by virtue of the fact that it has the greatest impact on those who are already less interested in and knowledgeable about politics and who are less likely to vote to begin with.

Martin P. Wattenberg and Craig Leonard Brians provided additional scrutiny (Wattenberg and Brians 1999). They disputed Ansolabehere’s finding that negative advertising drives voters away from the polls. Wattenberg and Brians’ survey data yielded no evidence of a turnout disadvantage for those who recollected negative presidential campaign advertising. In short, the demobilization dangers of negative campaigning appear to have been exaggerated.
Richard R. Lau et al. challenged some conventional wisdom about negative campaigns (Lau 1999). First is the widely held belief that “nobody likes them but they work.” Second is the oft-expressed concern about the detrimental effects of such negativism on the political system itself. The study found that the data do not support either contention. Negative ads do not appear to be more effective than positive ads. Furthermore, they do not appear to damage the political system.

In 2001, Richard R. Lau and Gerald M. Pomper again asked whether negative campaigning demobilizes the electorate (Lau and Pomper 2001). They found that such campaigning has a curvilinear effect on turnout. Most negativism actually stimulates turnout. Only at extremely high levels of negativity does it suppress turnout. Second, it makes no difference whether the criticisms are person-based or policy-based. Third, partisans are stimulated by negative campaigning while Independents are discouraged or demobilized by it.

Similarly, Ken Goldstein and Paul Freedman also disputed the demobilizing effects of negative campaigning (Goldstein and Freedman 2002). Such campaigning, they found, is just as likely to engage potential voters as to demobilize them. Unambiguous evidence shows that exposure to negative campaign ads can actually stimulate voter turnout.

Shortly thereafter, Lee Sigelman and Martin Kugler posed the question, “Why Is Research on the Effects of Negative Campaigning So Inconclusive?” (Sigelman and Kugler 2003). It seems so obvious to many observers that negative campaigning works and that it has a corrosive effect on political processes. Yet this “truth” is far from obvious when it is subjected to systematic scrutiny. Why? The authors found that “negative campaigning” as described in scholarly literature differs from “negative campaigning” as perceived by ordinary citizens. The “disconnect” between conventional wisdom and scholarly literature is attributable in part to this lack of definitional clarity. Researchers should not rely solely on their own content evaluations of ads but must examine how citizens perceive the tone of campaigns.

James D. King and Jason B. McConnell provided an even more nuanced account (King and McConnell 2003). It is axiomatic that voters generally express distaste for negative ads and politicians generally think that such ads work. But is there a “boomerang effect” that leads to a backlash against the sponsoring candidate? A strong attack, if perceived by the audience as untruthful or unjustified may create more negative feelings towards the sponsor and can generate sympathy for the target. King and McConnell found an apparent gender gap at work here. Women are more responsive than men to negative attack messages, but they are more likely to blame the sponsor rather than the target of the attack. Going negative can be effective for a time. But repeated exposure risks a backlash, especially from women. There is a “parabolic effect” of repeated exposure to negative advertising that is gender specific. Among women, the sponsor initially benefits from an enhanced image but suffers a decline in image after repeated exposure.

In 2006, Deborah Jordan Brooks found that Ansolabehere’s initial conclusions regarding the demobilizing effects of negative campaigning were premature (Brooks 2006). Citizens appear to be more resilient towards the onslaught of negative campaigning than they were initially thought to be.
The following year, Peter L. Francia and Paul S. Herrnson examined the situation from the perspective of political consultants (Francia and Herrnson 2007). Conventional wisdom holds that political consultants encourage candidates to go negative and win at any cost. Some do, but others do not. Some campaign professionals draw ethical distinctions between different forms of negative campaigning.

In 2009, Richard R. Lau and Ivy Brown Rovner again asked the central question, “Does negative campaigning really work?” (Lau and Rovner 2009). They concluded that there is little scientific evidence that attacking one’s opponent is a particularly effective campaign technique. There is also little evidence that negative campaigning damages our system of government.

Two years later, Yanna Krupnikov focused on the effects of timing and found that timing matters (Krupnikov 2011). Negativity can only demobilize when two factors are met: (1) a person is exposed to negative ads after selecting a preferred candidate and (2) the negativity is about this preferred candidate. Such voters can be convinced that their selection is no better than the alternative candidate whom they already know they do not like. Previous literature suggested that candidates should target the undecided voters because those who have already decided won’t change their minds. Krupnikov, however, found that even decided voters can be influenced: they can be derailed, demobilized, and persuaded to stay home by negative ads.

In sum, research has been somewhat inconclusive, providing mixed evidence about the effects of negative advertising.

History
Negative advertising is not new. The practice is as old as elections themselves. Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, and others were targets of attacks that would make contemporary claims seem tame by comparison.

Consider this one: The candidate is a white male accused of keeping a black mistress and fathering several children by her. The opposition has attacked him as a fanatic, a revolutionary, a personal coward, and a “howling atheist.” They predicted that if this man were elected, God’s vengeance would be visited upon the country which would see “dwellings in flames . . . , female chastity violated, and children writhing on the pike.” I’m describing the first contested presidential election of 1796. Who was the target of these charges? It was Thomas Jefferson (Johnson 1993).

In 1828, Andrew Jackson opposed the incumbent, John Quincy Adams. Adams represented the old seaboard colonial elite. Jackson was a rough-hewn son of the frontier, slayer of British soldiers and scalper of Indians. Adams’ supporters portrayed Jackson as a bloody-handed frontier ruffian, a dueler, brawler, gambler, hard-drinker, and adulterer. The trouble for Adams was that when his supporters depicted Jackson as a rough, tough Indian killer, horse racer, and so on, they were describing the kind of man that many voters in the South and West admired greatly! The image turned out to be a positive, not a negative. If you wanted the vote of the common man, you had to give them Jackson types whenever available – frontier military heroes (Johnson, 30-31).

Fear, even more than smear, has always been the greatest resource of the negative campaigner (Johnson, 33). Political ads using fear as a vehicle are almost always memorable. The best known scare tactic spot is probably the aforementioned “Daisy Girl” ad run during the 1964 Johnson-Goldwater contest. By design, the ad aired
only once: on NBC’s *Monday Night at the Movies* of September 7. It set the media buzzing for days, often being rebroadcast without charge on newscasts as a legitimate news item. The script never mentioned Sen. Barry Goldwater directly, but the implication was so strong, the imagery was so emotionally charged, and the point was indelibly made: Goldwater was portrayed as an irresponsible, trigger-happy nuclear cowboy. The “mad bomber” image remained with him for the duration of the campaign.

To re-cap: negative campaigning is roundly condemned by the public. Negative campaigning is not new. Many candidates and consultants think that negative campaigning works.

**Distinguishing “Legitimate” from “Illegitimate” Negative Campaigning**

Joseph Napolitan, campaign manager for Hubert Humphrey, argued that there is a line that can be drawn between legitimate attacks on an opponent’s record and insidious attacks skillfully designed to appeal to the voters’ worst instincts in a highly emotional manner (Napolitan 1989). Some negative charges are fair and appropriate. These are based on factual, documentable evidence and address what a candidate has said and done in his public career.

**The Legitimate Negative Ad.**

- **The candidate’s public record:** A candidate’s statements, votes, positions, and promises he has not kept are suitable subjects for criticism.
- **Embarrassing statements or votes:** Candidates have said and done things, important or trivial, that they wish voters didn’t know about. If they are on the record, they can be used.
- **Campaign promises impossible to fulfill:** Unrealistic promises to expand programs while cutting taxes are subject to legitimate criticism.
- **Refusal to take a position:** If a candidate ducks, dodges, hedges, or flip-flops on controversial issues, he is fair game for criticism.
- **Refusal to make a financial disclosure statement or reveal the source of campaign funds:** Many candidates have stumbled here.
- **Callous indifference to real problems:** Such attacks work best when the candidate can be labeled a hypocrite for talking one game while playing another (e.g., calling for a improved educational performance while cutting school funding).
- **Positions on controversial issues:** Whenever a candidate takes a position on a controversial issue, some voters will disagree. Criticisms are legitimate.
- **Catching an opponent in an outright lie:** If your fact checkers catch your opponent in a lie, it is legitimate to attach his credibility.
- **Acceptance of funds from organizations which can benefit from the actions of his office:** These attacks work best if the candidate used his office to help contributors.
- **Membership in restricted clubs:** If a candidate belongs to clubs that don’t admit women or minorities, criticism is legitimate.
- **Also legitimate opportunities for criticism:** refusal to debate; criminal record; dishonorable discharge from the military; lack of qualifications for office sought; lack of relevant knowledge; inconsistencies; residency (“carpet bagging”). The bottom line about negative advertising is that it should be honest, and it should be fair (Napolitan, 18-19).
Consider the following examples from 2012. Republican Senate candidate Todd Akin said that “legitimate rape” can’t get women pregnant. U.S. Rep. Paul Broun called evolution a lie from the “pit of hell.” Arkansas State Rep. Jon Hubbard wrote a book called *Letters to the Editor: Confessions of a Frustrated Conservative* in which he asserted that slavery “may have actually been a blessing in disguise” for black people because after it was over, they were “rewarded with citizenship in the greatest nation ever established upon the face of the earth.” John Sununu, former N.H. governor and a leading surrogate for Mitt Romney, said that President Obama should “learn how to be an American,” called the President “lazy,” and said that Colin Powell’s endorsement of Obama could be explained partly by the two men’s shared race. Indiana’s Republican Senate candidate Richard Mourdock said in a debate that when a woman becomes pregnant from being raped, “that … is something that God intended to happen.” He said this one day after he began running a TV ad featuring Romney’s endorsement of Mourdock for the U.S. Senate. When candidates say things like this, it is legitimate for an opponent to criticize them and hold them accountable for what they or those close to them have said.

But what about “insidious” negative advertising? Napolitan described such ads as harmful but enticing, deceitful, treacherous, and seductive. When most of us think of objectionable, negative campaigning and mudslinging, this is what we have in mind.

**Insidious Negative Imagery.**

- *Insidious ads are seldom on a substantive issue:* The subject is peripheral to the campaign. Ads contain an element of truth that is magnified and blown out of proportion. Charges are sometimes implied rather than stated.
- *Insidious attacks often use symbolism in patriotic and moralistic terms:* Recall Bush’s charges against Dukakis in 1988 concerning Dukakis’ opposition to a Massachusetts bill that would have required teachers to lead the Pledge of Allegiance in class. Dukakis opposed on constitutional grounds but Bush called into question his patriotism, taking an incident and blowing it out of proportion, magnifying its importance and significance.
- *They make it appear the subject of the attack has control over a situation when he does not:* Dukakis did not control the reciting of the Pledge of Allegiance in Massachusetts schools.
- *They use guilt-by-association and loaded-terms techniques:* They capitalize on words or phrases that have negative connotations among some groups: “ultra-liberal,” “card-carrying member of ACLU,” “right-wing extremists,” etc.
- *Facts are distorted in insidious spots:* If the spot works, it will stay on the air even if refuted. If facts are not refuted, the spot will run forever.
- *Insidious ads capitalize on the theory, where there’s smoke, there’s fire:* Many voters are ready to believe the worst.
- *Invidious attacks are seldom made directly by the candidate himself:* More often, the charges are made by some third party, perhaps without the campaign’s consent. Responsibility for vicious attacks can be denied by the candidate and his advisers.
- *Direct mail at the very end of a campaign can have a powerful impact:* Misleading messages designed to hit at the last minute can be influential (Napolitan, 20).
Some examples from the 2012 presidential campaign follow. Obama’s team failed to disavow a negative ad produced by Priorities USA Action in which a steelworker, Joe Soptic, attributed his wife’s death by cancer to a decision by Romney’s investment firm, Bain Capital, to close his plant, ending his health insurance. The implication was misleading. Soptic had lost his job years before his wife became ill (Rutenberg 2012). Another Obama ad earned a “pants on fire” (POF) rating by the nonpartisan web site, Politifact. The ad accused Romney of backing "a bill that outlaws all abortion, even in cases of rape and incest." There was no such bill and Romney had stated that abortion should be allowed in cases of rape, incest, or to save the woman’s life (Jackson et al. 2012). The Romney campaign earned its own POF distinction for running an ad that falsely claimed that Obama planned to do away with work requirements for welfare recipients (Rutenberg). Romney also falsely stated in a TV ad that Gregory Friedman, an inspector general for the Department of Energy found that stimulus contracts “were steered to friends and family” (Jackson). Romney surrogate, John Sununu, had another dubious contribution to this list. Referring to the July 2012 launch of a Russian Soyuz spaceship that carried U.S. astronaut Sunita Williams to the International Space Station, he stated that President Obama “outsourced a major portion of the U.S. space program to the Russians.” Sununu overlooked the fact that it was President Bush who announced a “new vision” for NASA in 2004 that included ending the Space Shuttle program without having a replacement vehicle for at least four years (Jackson).

Here are two more ads that attracted attention. First, an Obama ad played a recording of comments that Romney made at a fundraiser: “There are 47% of the people who will vote for the President no matter what . . . who are dependent upon the government, who believe that the government has a responsibility to care for them, that they are entitled to health care, to food, to housing . . . and they will vote for this president no matter what. And so my job is not to worry about those people. I’ll never convince them that they should take responsibility” (Brazile 2012). Are these remarks unfairly taken out of context or are they reflective of Romney’s beliefs? It is left to the voters to decide. The second example is a Romney ad: It began with energy, music, and in-color photos of Barack Obama with Ellen DeGeneres, with Jimmy Fallon, Obama wearing sunglasses, smiling, laughing, and having a beer. But the text read as follows: “Four years ago, America elected the biggest celebrity in the world. America got one cool President . . . But after four years of having a celebrity president (switch to black and white photos of depressed-looking college students) ... 1 in 4 recent college graduates are jobless or underemployed. 85% are moving back in with their parents. Student loan debt exceeds one trillion dollars. After four years of a celebrity President, is your life any better?” Here the ad ended. Was this ad fair? Was it effective? Did the conclusion (college students are in dire straits) follow from the premise (because Obama likes to laugh with Jimmy Fallon)? Once again, voters decide.

What should a candidate do when confronted with negative campaigning? Napolitan had some advice.

Defending against Attacks.

• Reaction must be strong and immediate: Counterattack immediately. Hold the opponent personally responsible for the attacks. Use credible surrogates to
respond for the candidate. For example, during the 1992 campaign, President Bush questioned Governor Clinton’s patriotism. During a debate, Clinton responded by telling Bush that his own father, Prescott Bush, had stood up to Joe McCarthy and would be ashamed to see such tactics used by his son. Another example: during a 1996 debate, Senator Dole raised questions about President Clinton’s character. Clinton responded that no negative attack ever created a job or educated a child.

- **Always conduct negative research on your own candidate as well as your opponent:** Anticipate. Prepare answers in advance. Do not deny the truth. Do not lie about yourself. Know what skeletons are hanging in your own closet in case your opponent finds them.

- **Try to take a known negative and turn it into an asset:** If your candidate lacks experience, present him as an outsider with fresh ideas; if your candidate is not telegenic, have him make self-deprecating jokes (e.g., Ross Perot saying “I’m all ears”); if your candidate lacks scholarly credentials and intellectual depth, stress his common sense, level-headedness, and decisiveness.

- **Be combative:** Never let insidious attacks go unchallenged. Commenting on the negativity of the 1988 campaign, Howard Kurtz of the *Washington Post* advised that an attacked candidate should not “do a Dukakis,” passively ignoring an opponent’s allegations (Napolitan, 20-21).

**Conclusions**

In 1651, Thomas Hobbes described life in the state of nature as solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.” The 2012 campaign was nasty, brutal, and long! (Jackson) The language of combat dominates our national campaigns with talk of war rooms, battleground states, and attack ads (Greene 2014). PAC money is abundant and unregulated, as long as advertising is not coordinated with the candidate’s campaign leading to what Peggy Noonan has called, “the Golden Age of Mudslinging” (Greene). Pragmatists observe that a candidate cannot accomplish anything worthy if he does not get elected in the first place. Do the ends justify the means? What harm is done? The harm is that it is difficult for a candidate to shift from “eye gouging and groin kicking,” to rinse off the mud, and govern as a statesman after Election Day. Voters may become increasingly disillusioned with campaigns and their trivial and often unfair attacks. A candidate who uses any means necessary to win may indeed become president, but then he has to lead a nation that has turned “darkly cynical about the entire process” (Greene).

In 1776, John Adams expressed fears that the Continental Congress’ decisions would be dictated “by noise, not sense; by meanness, not greatness; by ignorance, not learning; by contracted hearts, not large souls.” Continuing, he wrote, “There must be decency and respect and veneration for persons of authority of every rank or we are undone. In popular government, this is our only way” (Greene).

During their town hall debate on October 16, 2012, Governor Romney admonished the President of the United States, saying to Obama, “Wait your turn, I’m talking!” Later, Romney walked over to the President, stood inches away, and said patronizingly, “Let me give you some advice about pensions.” Was this the “decency, respect, and veneration” that Adams valued?
John Cook and Stephan Lewandowsky explain that debunking myths can be difficult (Cook and Lewandowsky 2012). When people acquire information that turns out to be false, it is difficult to remove the influence of the misinformation. Attempts to debunk the misinformation can inadvertently reinforce it. Repeating the “myth” can strengthen it in people’s minds, making matters worse. Avoiding this “backfire effect” requires care. First, the refutation must emphasize core facts rather than the myth itself. Do not repeat the myth in your headline. Second, precede any mention of the myth with an explicit warning that the following statement is false. Finally, be sure to provide an alternative, simple explanation. Less is more. Three arguments are better than 12.

There is an old saying that “mud sticks.” Going negative is not new. It appears to be here to stay. We have it because, mixed evidence from political scientists notwithstanding, candidates and their advisors think it works.

Appendix: Links to Some Relevant Web Sites

- The Living Room Candidate http://livingroomcandidate.movingimage.us
  *The Living Room Candidate* contains more than 300 commercials, from every presidential election since 1952, when Madison Avenue advertising executive Rosser Reeves convinced Dwight Eisenhower that short ads played during such popular TV programs as *I Love Lucy* would reach more voters than any other form of advertising. This innovation had a permanent effect on the way presidential campaigns are run.

  This site rated and ranked 2012 ads by most negative and most effective.

- FactCheck.org http://www.factcheck.org
  This project of the Annenberg Public Policy Center is designed to hold public officials and candidates accountable for their statements.

- PolitiFact.com http://www.politifact.com/
  This site, dedicated to “sorting out the truth in politics,” is a nonpartisan, Pulitzer Prize winning service of the *Tampa Bay Times*

- Project Vote Smart http://www.vote-smart.org
  At a unique research center located high in the Montana Rockies and far from the partisan influences of Washington, the staff, interns, and volunteers work to strengthen the most essential component of democracy – access to information. Project Vote Smart is a non-partisan, nonprofit educational organization funded exclusively through individual contributions and philanthropic foundations.

- Match Candidates with Vote Help http://www.votehelp.org
  Vote Help was a nonpartisan 2012 presidential candidate calculator quiz that compared the respondent’s views to those of Obama v. Romney, helping voters decide which candidate to support.
References


Skin Color as a Factor in Racial Identification of African American School Children

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Abstract

This study examined the level of racial identification among African American school children of different ages, skin tones, and gender. Data was collected from 50 children, ranging from six to eight years of age. These participants completed a modified version of the Doll Test (Clark & Clark, 1940) as well as answered additional questions in order to better understand the underlying reasons behind participants' quantitative scores. It was hypothesized that African American school children today would be able to racially identify themselves by their selection of a black doll over a white doll. It was also hypothesized that racial identity would be influenced by the age, gender, and skin tone of the participant. The analytical test used by the researcher in the present research was the cross-tabulation analysis. Most importantly, systematic inquiry questions were asked to give meaning to the quantitative scores. The results showed that there are still issues with racial identification overall, more so among females, and more so with children classified as the dark skin tone.

Introduction

Over the years, studies have been conducted to examine various factors and how they affect racial identification (Clark & Clark, 1939, 1940, 1947, and 1950; Horowitz, 1939). There are several problems with these studies. One problem was that they did not have a clear way of interpreting their results. They were left to assume the implications of their findings without a qualitative analysis. More knowledge needed to be acquired on this particular subject because times have changed and the world around us is seen differently than decades ago. The original study was done more than 70 years ago. Children are raised differently and the environments in which these children grow up in are not as racially secluded as they were back then. The present study attempted to determine the relationship between skin color and racial identification as it relates to African American school children today.

The present study was an extension from Clark and Clark (1939), which made clear the additional factors that directly related to racial identification. In addition, this study examined the relationship between skin color and racial identification (Clark & Clark, 1940) and served as a better understanding of the factors that contributed to racial identification in African American preschool children. Another study done by Clark and Clark (1947) assessed the problem of developing racial identification and its effects on ego development and self awareness in African American children. The results determined the level of understanding of the racial differences between each doll, the racial identification of the child, and if they were knowledgeable of what category of color they most closely represented. Adding to the previous factors, Clark and Clark (1950) examined the racial attitudes in African American children as it pertains to racial identification. The researchers also examined the shade of color used and the pressure applied when asked to color in a picture of themselves compared to how they colored the other items given.

The purpose of this research was to re-examine the relationship between skin color and racial identification among African American school children. The researcher intended to find not only if there was still a preference for the white doll over the black doll, but also what influenced the child’s preference. In addition, demographic factors influencing the level of racial identity in African American children today as opposed to 50 years ago will be addressed. The current research differed from previous studies in
that it included a series of systematic inquiry questions that would assist the researcher in determining the logic behind answers given to various questions relative to racial identity. Racial identification was operationally defined as the choices children made in determining the color of doll they chose and how the child sees his or herself in regards to race and what qualitative meaning children attribute to being black. For the purposes of this study, skin color was assessed by two levels of black: light and dark. An outside observer classified each child into the light or dark category. The procedure believed to be the most reliable was the Doll Test (Clark & Clark 1940). The author used the same technique by Clark and Clark, (1940). The following reviews of literature will support the hypotheses and other variables not examined in the present study.

**Review of Literature**

Racial identification is an issue that has been studied for decades, and is still being studied today. It appears to be a complicated concept that has several other factors proven to be directly related. In the original study, Clark and Clark (1939) included age and the process of development, elaborating on the three stages of development given by Baldwin (1897). In essence, not only was the factor of racial identification examined, but also the stage of development each child learned to identify their specific group, black, and differentiated their group from another, white. It was found that the critical stage of this development was at the age of two, with continuous growth throughout life. The procedure used by the researcher was a modification of the Horowitz (1939) technique. Three sets of line drawings were used, which included four white boys and four colored boys in total. Materials were presented to each subject and they were asked a list of questions individually which required them to select one of the pictures presented. Racial identification is not only the acknowledgement of self and what specific group one belongs, but also knowing how to differentiate oneself from other specific groups, (Clark & Clark, 1939).

In a research study done by Clark and Clark (1947), the two variables being examined were racial identification and preference. Racial identification, the independent variable, is defined as the specific group to which one identifies with, specifically, black or white. This relates to the dependent variable, preference. Preference is operationally defined as the choice one makes between white and black dolls according to their own specific race, (Clark, & Clark, 1947). The current study measured skin color not only with regards to black and white, but also the shades of black using three levels: light, medium, and dark. The subjects varied in ages from three to five and only used males. The procedure used in this study was the doll test. The light children chose the black doll 36.5%, the medium children chose the black doll 52.6% and the dark children chose the black doll 56.4% of the time. These results indicate the relationship between skin color and racial identification which show that there was a significant difference between the shade of the black boy and what doll, between the black and white dolls, they chose. The results indicated that there was a clear knowledge of racial identification and racial differences.

In another study performed by Clark and Clark (1939), the development of consciousness of self and the emergence of racial identification were the two variables being examined. The development of consciousness of self was defined by the three stages of development, (Piaget, 1932). According to his works, there are stages in
terms of age when we learn various concepts about the world around us. This development begins at the age of two, and continues through the life span, (Clark & Clark, 1939). The emergence of racial identification was concerned with the knowledge of oneself and specifically differentiating their group from another.

In relation to the present study, a previous study done by Clark and Clark (1940), skin color was examined in relation to racial identification in African American preschool children. Skin color, as the independent variable, was broken down into four levels: white, and black (light, medium, and dark). Each skin tone was examined and correlated with the dependent variable, racial identification. Again, racial identification refers to the knowledge of one’s specific racial group and differentiating their group from another. Results found that when children were separated by race they felt a sense of inferiority which led to self-hatred among African American children. This finding was instrumental in the decision to desegregate the schools in the Supreme Court ruling in Brown v Board of Education (1954). It stated that race awareness is the conscious of self as belonging to a specific group, that group being the color of one’s skin. There were two groups to choose from, black or white. The development pattern of these children was determined that it stemmed from the knowledge of racial discrimination against their own specific group. The procedure used was the doll test. In this test, the subjects were given four dolls: two dolls were brown with black hair, and two dolls were white with yellow hair. Each doll was presented the same way, only wearing a white diaper. The subjects were then asked a series of questions which required them to choose one of the four dolls presented to them.

Research carried out by Clark and Clark (1950), added emotional factors into the equation. Racial identification, the dependent variable, was again operationally defined by the acknowledgement of one’s specific group. Preference, in addition to emotional factors, were the two independent variables examined. The specific problem with this study was the lack of analysis on the dynamic of racial attitudes in African American children, (Clark and Clark, 1950). Researchers examined the differences between northern and southern children in the consciousness of racial differences (Clark & Clark, 1950). The procedure used in this study was the Coloring Test. Authors found that preferences differed as the child aged, from four years to seven years. Moreover, the type of responses given, (i.e. reality response, fantasy responses, and irrelevant responses) found that children tend to color themselves a lighter shade than they actually were. All of these factors were included into the further examination of racial identification and the additional factors related to it.

More recently, Moore (1970) examined the relationship between racial preference and attitudes of preschool children. In this particular study, the race of the experimenter was manipulated with three white experimenters and three black experimenters. Moore observed the attitudes of 42 black male and female children as related to racial identification. The doll test from the Clark and Clark (1947) study was used. The results indicated that the black students preferred the black model, and they were not influenced by the race of the experimenters.

In 1991, Baldwin, Brown, and Hopkins studied the concept of self of African Americans in conjunction with the teachings of European society beginning in childhood. The authors believed that Western psychological literature was unable and incapable of defining black culture and how we see ourselves. Their study closely
examined theoretical models of black self concept and other racial preference studies. They concluded that African Americans harbor feelings of self-rejection because of the racism experienced in society and western psychological literature denying the existence of a distinct African American culture as the only means of explaining, defining, and understanding black behavior. It clearly stated that black self-concept was deficient in comparison to their white counterparts, which we know not to be true. Included were the works and findings of Mead and Cooley (1902), the social looking class theory. This theory found that the individual’s perception of him or herself is based on interactions with other members of society making up his or her significant social circle.

Going deeper into racial identity, in 1998, Chavous, Rowley, Sellers, Shelton, and Smith formulated the classification and conceptualization of self. In this research, the authors focused on the qualitative meaning of “being black” with an emphasis on our unique cultural and historical experiences. In addition, the authors separate the identification of black and African American people. The findings in this research have renewed the interest in racial identity and the various factors children attribute to their identity whether that be from what they are taught or their feelings derived from what society and the media teaches them.

In the present study, the author examined the relationship between skin color and racial identification. It was hypothesized that African American preschool children would choose an African American doll over a European American doll when given the option of choosing one or the other. The researcher also believed that demographic factors would directly influence racial identification in African American school children.

Method

Participants
A total of 50 students, ranging from six to eight years of age, served as participants in the present study. The sample of students was collected from an elementary school in the Southern United States. Each student was in the first or second grade. There were 27 males and 23 females. There were 21 six year olds, 12 seven year olds, and 17 eight year olds. A total of 56% of students were classified as dark skin tone and 44% of students classified as light skin tone.

Materials
Informed consent forms and child assent forms were used in this study. The researcher used dolls to represent males and females for visual aids. There were two female dolls, one white and one black, and there were two male dolls, one black and one white. All four dolls were fully clothed with shirts, pants, and shoes. The female dolls wore pink and white, and the male dolls wore blue and white. The skin tone of the black dolls was a fair tone of brown. Other than having on different color clothes, each doll was identical. The questionnaire used in the current research was the self-concept questionnaire. The questionnaire included demographic questions, mode of stimulus questions, and systematic inquiry questions.
Procedure

A consent form was sent to the principal of school where the research was conducted. Then, the students were each given an assent form before participating in the study. The children were called from four different classrooms and escorted to the auditorium. There were chairs and a table set up for five children. The children were called in groups of no more than five and were of the same sex. Depending on male or female participants, a set of dolls was placed on display. The dolls were numbered according to their race: white dolls were #1 and black dolls were #2. The questionnaire requested each student to choose one doll out of the two choices. Each child was instructed to select either the black doll or white doll from the questionnaire the researcher handed out. They were asked to answer each question as open and honest as possible. The systematic inquiry questions were at the end. These questions asked the child to choose a doll, between the black and white dolls, however this time they had to write white or black in the space and explain why they chose which doll. As each child completed the questionnaire, an outside observer classified each child as either light or dark.

Results

The scores from the self-concept questionnaire were totaled and scored on a scale of 11 to 22 using SPSS software. Higher scores denoted a higher level of racial identity. The lowest score calculated was a 12 and the highest score calculated was a 19. The researcher conducted a cross tabulation analysis to find the percentage of children whose scores denoted that they had a high preference for the black doll over the white doll. Results showed that males were better able to racially identify themselves with a score of 48.1%, while the females scored 26%. There were no significant findings in regards to the age of the participant. Results did show that the children classified as the light skin tone were better able to racially identify themselves with a score of 40.8%, while children classified with the dark skin tone scored 35.7%. On average, the children scored a 16 on the 11 item scale.

Discussion

The results indicated that African American children, overall, still struggle with racial identity. More males than females chose the black doll over the white doll, which shows that males better racially identify themselves than females. Age was not shown to be a factor in racial identification because the scores for the three different ages were close in calculation. There were no differences to be noted in regards to age influencing racially identity. Skin tone was found to be a factor in racial identity. The results showed that the children classified as the light skin tone chose the black doll more often than the children classified as the dark skin tone. The responses from the inquiry questions gave some insight to why the child chose which doll. Female responses were based on the look of the doll. Some responses given were, “I chose the white doll because she has on make-up”. This was in reference to her rosy cheeks. Other responses from the female participants were because they liked what the doll was wearing even though each doll was clothed identical. The male participants gave their reasoning for choosing the doll based on who they believed were good in sports, specifically basketball and football, and who they believed had a lot of money. There
were a few responses to the inquiry questions that were not answered fully or in a way that the researcher could decipher the meaning.

This study was conducted in a very short time period. With increased availability of time and resources, the methodology, population sample, and analysis could be improved. Additionally, the outside observer could be briefed prior to the experiment to have a set criterion when classifying the skin tone of the children. This study was based on a small sample size and did not have equal numbers for gender, age, or skin tone. The researcher believes with a larger representative sample, the results will read better on what factors are significant in racial identification.

For future research, a larger sample of at least 150 children with equal numbers for gender and skin tone is suggested. It is also suggested that a larger range of children be used so that the findings for age will be more significant. If time permits, the researcher would also like to conduct a longitudinal study to see if racial identity increases overtime.

References
APPENDIX A

Gender: ____ male  Age:_____  Grade:_____  Skin Tone: ____
____ female  School Attended (2011-2012): _____________________

Self-Concept Questionnaire

1. Which doll looks pretty?      ______
2. Which doll looks friendly?      ______
3. Which doll is a nice color?      ______
4. Which doll would you like to be your friend?    ______
5. Which doll plays sports?      ______
6. Which doll you think is smart?      ______
7. Which doll has a lot of money?      ______
8. Which doll do you think fights?      ______
9. Which doll makes good grades?      ______
10. Which doll looks like you?      ______
11. Which doll would you like to be your sister?    ______

A. Do you have any dolls at home?    Yes [   ]  No [   ]
B. Do you have any brothers or sisters?    Yes [   ]  No [   ]
C. Does your sister or brother have dolls at home?  Yes [   ]  No [   ]
D. What color dolls do your parents buy the most?   ______

Review Questions
Which doll looks like you? Response: ______________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
Which doll is a nice color? Response: ______________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
Which doll looks pretty? Response: ______________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
Which doll would you like to be your sister? Response: ______________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX B

Gender: _____ male  ____ female  Age:_____  Grade:_____  Skin Tone: ___
School Attended (2011-2012): _____________________

Self-Concept Questionnaire

12. Which doll looks handsome? ______

13. Which doll looks friendly? ______

14. Which doll is a nice color? ______

15. Which doll would you like to be your friend? ______

16. Which doll plays sports? ______

17. Which doll you think is smart? ______

18. Which doll has a lot of money? ______

19. Which doll do you think fights? ______

20. Which doll makes good grades? ______

21. Which doll looks like you? ______

22. Which doll would you like to be your brother? ______

E. Do you have any dolls at home? Yes [ ] No [ ]

F. Do you have any brothers or sisters? Yes [ ] No [ ]

G. Does your sister or brother have dolls at home? Yes [ ] No [ ]

H. What color dolls do your parents buy the most? ______

Review Questions

Which doll looks like you? Response: ______________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

Which doll is a nice color? Response: ______________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

Which doll looks handsome? Response: ______________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

Which doll would you like to be your brother? Response: ______________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX C

The author will also include visuals of the following:

- Black female doll, wearing pink clothing
- White female doll, wearing pink clothing
- Black male doll, wearing blue clothing
- White male doll, wearing blue clothing
Comparing Genders and Top versus Middle Management: Psychological Profiles of Romanian Leaders

Cosmina Noaghea
Central European Media Enterprises
Abstract
This study explored the psychological profile of Romanian leaders on a sample of 378 top and middle managers using Hogan Personality Inventory HPI; Hogan, 10992), Hogan Development Inventory (HDS; Hogan, 1997) and Hogan Motives and Values Inventory (HMVI; Hogan, 1996). The results showed that men had higher scores for adjustment, ambition, inquisitive compared to women. They tended to seduce others and women to intimidate others. Men valued commerce while women had higher scores for social interests and aesthetics. Top managers had lower scores for adjustment, ambition, prudence and higher scores for intimidation behaviors and being imaginative compared to middle managers. Entrepreneurs had lower scores for ambition, adjustment and seduction derailers than the multinational company managers, but higher scores for intimidation derailers.

Keywords: leaders profile, gender differences, top versus middle management, entrepreneurs versus multinational company managers and local companies managers

Leaders’ Psychological Profile
Kaiser et al. (2008) acknowledged that leaders are influential in determining the fate of their organizations through their decisions, strategies, and influence on others. In a review of leadership theory and research, Dinh et al. (2014) found that between 2000 and 2012 there were 752 leadership research articles published in 10 journals, most of them (442) being published in The Leadership Quarterly. The authors have shown that there was a growth of emerging leadership theories such as neurological perspectives and a continued proliferation of theories relating to leading for creativity and innovation, toxic/dark leadership, and strategic leadership. At the same time, several established leadership theories continued to capture the interest of the field including ne-charismatic, information processing, trait, leader-follower exchange theories.

Dispositional/trait theories, based on the coding scheme realized by Dinh et al. (2014), looked at the individual differences in leaders and investigated specific traits, abilities or clusters of abilities that contribute to leadership effectiveness. They include the traditional trait approach, as well as other new approaches like nature of managerial traits, managerial attributes, skills and competence, situational relevance of skills, and leader motive profile theory.

Judge et al. (2002) reviewed the leadership research that is included in the trait theory and conducted a meta-analysis. They used the Big Five framework and included in their meta-analysis 222 correlations on 73 samples. Overall, the correlations with leadership were the following: Neuroticism = -.24, Extraversion = .31, Openness = .24, Agreeability = .08 and Conscientiousness = .28. The results showed that there were correlations between Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeability and Conscientiousness and leadership in 90% of the studies. Extraversion is the factor that correlated consistently with leadership and with the evaluation criteria set for leadership (leadership emergence and leadership efficiency). Based on the results of the meta-analysis, extraversion had the highest number of correlations between leadership out of the five personality factors. The highest correlation between leadership and other derivate personality characteristics was with dominance.

In line with the Big Five model, Hogan developed Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI; Hogan, 1992) that assesses personality and predicts performances. It is designed primarily for use in personnel selection, individualized assessment, and
career-related decision making, as well as a research instrument. It provides detailed information regarding the "bright side" of personality characteristics that appear in social interaction and that facilitate or inhibit a person’s ability to get along with others and to achieve his or her educational and occupational goals. This Inventory measures the most observable part of personality, that which is known by others, i.e., a person’s reputation.

Hogan and Blake (1996) regard needs, values, and interests as closely related concepts. Distinguishing among them seems to be a matter of semantics and personal choice because the terms have been used interchangeably in the field of psychology. The Hogan Motives Values Preferences Inventory (HMVI, Hogan, 1992) looks at people’s core values essential for organizational and cultural fit.

**Destructive leadership**, in line with the coding scheme realized by Dinh et al. (2014), encompasses cases when leaders misbehaved, abusive leadership, toxic leadership and followers’ susceptibility and destructive followership as well. Following on from Sigmund Freud, Alfred Adler, Karen Horney, and H. S. Sullivan who all studied self-defeating behavior, Hogan developed the Hogan Development Survey (HDS; Hogan, 1997) that assesses personal characteristics associated with derailment and managerial dysfunction. It is designed to assess eleven common dysfunctional dispositions that are caused by people’s distorted beliefs about how others will treat them and negatively influence people’s careers and life satisfactions. Dotlich and Cairo (2011), in “Why CEOs fail” emphasized that the tendencies towards dysfunctional behaviors have a negative impact on the executives if these / such tendencies become a pervasive pattern. All leaders are vulnerable to these leadership derailers that influence their leadership style and their actions especially under stress and pressure, when self-control decreases. The average person has two or three derailers. CEOs are more vulnerable than other leaders to the derailers because of the pressures that confront the leader at the high end of the pyramid. All the pressures and the responsibility and the complexity of their activity can activate derailers. In addition, the authors outlined that the higher somebody goes in an organization, the less likely other people are to tell that person about their failure-producing behaviors. Show, Erickson and Harvey (2011) proposed a taxonomy of the destructive leaders and they mentioned that most of them are not “completely destructive”, but display one or two extreme behaviors. Micro-management tendencies, excessive control and manipulation behaviors are the most frequent ones. Schyns and Schilling (2013) conducted a meta-analysis on destructive leadership and found negative correlations with positive followers’ outcomes and behaviors (attitudes toward leader, well-being, and individual performance) and positive correlations with negative outcomes (turnover intention, resistance towards the leader, counterproductive work behavior). The highest correlation occurred between destructive leadership and attitudes toward the leader, followed by that between destructive leadership and counterproductive work behavior. Lee, Yun and Srivastava (2013) used survey responses of 203 subordinate-supervisor dyads in South Korea and through hierarchical regression analysis demonstrated a curvilinear (inverted U-shape) relationship between a supervisor’s abusive behaviors and an employee’s creative performance. Employees exhibited more creativity when abusive supervision was at a moderate level rather than at very low or very high levels.

**Diversity and cross-cultural leadership theories** focus on domestic and cross-cultural issues of leadership, based on the coding scheme realized by Dinh et al. (2014). Diversity theories investigate the experiences of women and minorities in
leadership positions, and of diverse followers within domestic borders. The cross-cultural thematic category includes research comparing the leadership process of one culture to another, or looking at leadership in non-US populations to discern if European/Us leadership theories apply in such settings/culture, country and attributes of leadership, university, cultural and institutional change, differences in leadership across cultures, leadership in multinational firm, and the GLOBE project.

Romanian Psychological Profile

Vasilescu (1997) conducted a field study on a sample of 2,069 people from all areas of Romania using the Berkeley Test. The results showed that in terms of Expressive Style, the Romanians across the country are open, outgoing and energetic. They aspire to be even more sociable. In terms of Interpersonal Style the Romanians proved to be warm and understanding, careful and considerate. More than a quarter of the Romanians showed high scores that indicated a selfless behavior. Their ideal interpersonal style proved to be in agreement with their own interpersonal style. The scores registered for the third factor, Work Style, showed that the Romanians are efficient; they tend to focus on tasks and meet their responsibilities. They would like to be even more efficient. In terms of Emotional Style, the Romanians showed a state of stress and tension. They would like to be able to express their emotions to a higher extent than they usually do it. The results for the Intellectual Style of Romanians indicated openness to new things and to change. Most of them are satisfied with their openness.

Gender Differences

Vinkenburg et al. (2011) examined in two experimental studies whether gender stereotypes about the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles constitute an advantage or an impediment for women’s access to leadership positions. Investigating the descriptive gender stereotypes, the authors found that the participants accurately believed that women display more transformational and contingent reward behaviours, and fewer management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviours than men. Investigating prescriptive stereotypes, the authors found that inspirational motivation was perceived as more important for men than women and especially important for promotion to CEO. Individualized consideration was perceived as more important for women than men and especially important for promotion to senior management. Vinkenburg et al. (2011) suggested that women interested in promotion may be well advised to blend individualized consideration and inspirational motivation behaviours.

Keoning et al. (2011) examined through a meta-analysis the extent to which stereotypes of leaders are culturally masculine in three paradigms: Shein’s (1973) think manager-think male paradigm, in Powell and Butterfield’s (1979) agency-communion paradigm and in Shinar’s (1975) masculinity-femininity paradigm. The authors concluded that all three paradigms demonstrated overall masculinity of the leader stereotype. They also indicated that this masculine construal of leadership has decreased over time and was greater for male than female participants. Research also portrayed leaders as less masculine in educational organizations than in other domains and in moderate- than high-status leader roles.

Muller-Kahle and Schiehll (2013) used archive data and explored whether female CEOs possess as much structural power as male CEOs and what demographic characteristics are essential to female CEOs to have in order to increase their structural power in their firms. Their findings showed that female CEOs do not possess as much structural power as male CEOs as proxied by attaining a dual CEO/chair role in the firm. Female CEOs were more likely to gain a structural
powerful role of CEO and President. They were more likely to gain structural power if they were entrepreneurs, worked in large companies or possessed an elite education.

Fitzsimmons, Callan and Paulsen (2014), through a comparison of the life and career trajectory of thirty male and thirty female CEO of large organizations, found gendered patterns in the accumulation of career relevant experiences stretching back to birth into working lives that created significant and cumulative limitations upon the ability of women to access CEO roles and the types of CEO appointments available to them.

**Top versus Middle Management differences**

Carmeli, Schaunbroeck and Tisher (2011) used a sample of 82 top management teams and through structural equation modelling found support for a mediation model in which CEO empowering leadership is positively related to the top management team behavioural integration, and, in turn, it enhances top management team potency and firm performance.

Caughron and Mumford (2012) found that a leader’s superior can influence their leadership behaviours in a complex manner. Participant sense-making was higher when their superior emphasized low levels of individual (or personal) consequences. Participative leadership was higher when the supervisor framed organizational level consequences as being high. Findings suggested that one’s superiors can promote or hinder confidence in a variety of situations.

Sosik, Genty and Chun (2013) examined behavioural manifestations of the character strengths of integrity, bravery, perspective, and social intelligence as influences on executive performance in the context of top-level executive leadership of for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. This study found positive relationships between direct reports’ ratings of executive integrity, bravery, and social intelligence and bosses’ and board member’ ratings of executive performance. Among the character strengths examined, integrity was found to have the most contribution in explaining the variance in executive performance via relative weight analysis.

Gentry et al. (2013) conducted a study with the purpose of extending the integrity research in organizations into the ranks of middle management. Their results of hierarchical regression analysis indicated that direct report ratings of a middle-level manager’s integrity were positively related to boss ratings of that manager’s performance. They also showed that integrity was relatively less important to middle-level managers’ current performance compared to other character strengths (like social intelligence). Integrity was relatively more important for the performance of top-level executives.

**Entrepreneurial leadership** encompasses the convergence and intersection between the leadership and entrepreneurship literature and how each stream of research can inform the other. It also includes research exploring specific components of entrepreneurial leadership process, such as entrepreneurial leadership vision and behaviours. Ruvio, Rosenblatt and Hertz-Lazarowitz (2010) found that in business enterprises, vision directly predicted only a differentiation strategy, which also mediated the relationship between vision and the ventures’ performance and growth. In contrast, a wide-range strategy in these organizations actually reduced growth. The literature on entrepreneurial vision generally focuses on its importance for the venture’s creation and growth. Fable and Larwood (1995) showed that entrepreneurs scored higher on risk taking and proactive adoption and lower on vision formulation compared to non-entrepreneurs. Fable and Larwood (1995) found significant differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs.
in terms of exercising control, with entrepreneurs exercising more control. The results for control that an executive would like to exercise were reversed. There were significant differences with non-entrepreneurs desiring more control. The authors also showed that entrepreneurs had served longer in their present top positions than non-entrepreneurs. The results for agreement of their vision with creativity also showed significant differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs with entrepreneurs indicating more personal identification with creativity. Finally, there were significant differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in the size of their top management team with entrepreneurs having fewer team members.

The Present Study

This study is a quantitative leadership study that was conducted in order to draw the psychological profile of Romanian leaders and to show several diversity characteristics.

Objectives

1. Identify the Romanian leaders personality profile, leadership derails and values
2. Identify the differences depending on gender, level of management and company type and gender

Hypothesis

1. The Romanian leaders might display average scores for most of their personality characteristics and a high score for ambition.

   Based on Judge et al. (2002) review and meta-analysis, Extraversion was the factor that correlated consistently with leadership and with the evaluation criteria set for leadership (leadership emergence and leadership efficiency). Hogan describes ambition as measuring the degree to which a person seems socially self-confident, leader-like, competitive, and energetic. One of its subscales is Leadership and it correlated .55 with Extraversion.

2. Under pressure and crisis, the Romanian leaders might be likely to show moderate risk “seduction behaviors” (bold, colorful, mischievous, and imaginative).

   Shaw, Erickson and Harvey (2011) proposed a taxonomy of the destructive leaders and they mentioned that most of them are not “completely destructive”, but they have one or two extreme behaviors. Micro-management tendencies, excessive control and manipulation behaviors are the most frequent ones. Given the fact that based on Vasilescu’s (1997) research the Romanians proved to be outgoing, energetic and warm, it would be likely that their leaders would rather display seduction behaviors under stress and pressure than intimidation.

3. The Romanian leaders might most value power.

   As Hogan describes in the HMVI Manual (1996), the power motive is clearly aligned with Holland’s enterprising type. This type seeks leadership positions, values freedom and ambition, and has as a life goal being in charge. Holland describes enterprising types as power-seeking, dominant, enthusiastic, and energetic.

4. Men would tend to have higher scores for adjustment, ambition and commerce whilst women would score higher for social interests.

   Vinkenburg et al. (2011) by investigating the descriptive gender stereotypes, found that the participants accurately believed that women display more transformational and contingent reward behaviours, and fewer management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviours than men. Investigating prescriptive stereotypes, the authors found that inspirational motivation was perceived as more important for men than
women and especially important for promotion to CEO. Individualized consideration was perceived as more important for women than men and especially important for promotion to senior management.

5. Top managers might have higher scores for leadership derailers compared to middle management.

According to Dotlich and Cairo (2011), in “Why CEOs fail”, the average person has two or three derailers. CEOs are more vulnerable to derailers than other leaders because of the pressures that confront the leader at the high end of the pyramid. All the pressure, the responsibility and the complexity of their activity can activate derailers. In addition, the authors outlined that the higher somebody goes in an organization, the less likely other people are to give them feedback on (tell to that person about his or her) their failure-producing behaviors.

6. Entrepreneurs would register lower scores for seduction leadership derailers compared to multinational company managers and higher for intimidation derailers.

Fable and Larwood (1995) found significant differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in terms of exercising control, with entrepreneurs exercising more control. The results for control that an executive would like to exercise were reversed. There were significant differences with non-entrepreneurs desiring more control. The authors also showed that entrepreneurs had served longer in their present top positions than non-entrepreneurs. The results for agreement of their vision with creativity also showed significant differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs with entrepreneurs indicating more personal identification with creativity. As they identify themselves with the business they build and with the organizational culture they create, it is likely to be more cautious and to display less seduction leadership derailers than non-entrepreneurs.

**Method**

**Procedure**

The data collection was done by the Romanian company owning the rights for distributing Hogan Inventories in Romania (HART Consulting, http://www.hart.ro/en/) with the support of a Business School (ASSEBUS). The inventories were applied online.

**Participants**

378 Romanian top and middle managers were tested using Hogan Inventories. The group of participants was composed of:

- 214 females, 164 men
- 158 top managers and 210 middle managers
- 51 entrepreneurs, 34 managers working for multinational companies, 293 managers working for Romanian private companies (pharmaceutical and medical, banking, FMCG, IT, constructions, services)

**Measures**

Psychological testing using Hogan assessment tools:

- Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI; Hogan, 1992) that assesses personality and predicts performances. *(Insert Figure 1 here)*
- Hogan Development Survey (HDS; Hogan, 1997) that assesses personal characteristics associated with derailment and managerial dysfunction. *(Insert Figure 2 here)*
• The Hogan Motives Values Preferences Inventory (HMVI, Hogan, 1996) looks at people’s core values essential for organizational and cultural fit.

(Insert Figure 3 here)

Results

Romanian Leaders Personality Profile

The average scores of the Romanian leaders (N=378) for their personality characteristics were between 36 and 65 percentiles, therefore in line with the average range for the Romanian population. The score for ambition was the highest, but still within the average percentiles range.

(Insert Chart 1 here)

Romanian Leaders Derailers

The average scores of the Romanian leaders (N=366) for their leadership derailers were in the “low risk area” (between 41 and 70 percentiles). They had the highest scores for colorful, bold, mischievous (seducing others behaviors), plus leisurely.

(Insert Chart 2 here)

Romanian Leaders Values

The average scores of the Romanian leaders (N=363) for their values were between 36 and 65 percentiles for all values, therefore in the average range of the Romanian population. The score for power was the highest, but still within the average percentiles range.

(Insert Chart 3 here)

Gender Differences

Men (n=>155) had higher scores for adjustment t (376) = -2.651, p=.008, ambition t (376) =3.394, p=.001, inquisitive t (376) =-4.586, p=>.000. They tended to seduce by displaying excitable behavior t (364) =2.479, p=.014, mischievous behavior t (364), p=.002 and women to intimidate by displaying a cautious behavior behaviors =2.731, p=.007. They had higher scores for commerce t (361) = -3.054, p=.002 and women (n=>198) for altruism t (361) =5.373, p=>.000 and aesthetics t (361) =2.864, p=.004).

(Insert Chart 4 here)

Top versus middle management differences

Top managers (n=>198) had lower scores for adjustment t (366) =-2.668, p=.008, ambition t (366) =2.772, p=.006, prudence t (366) =-3.058, p=.002 and higher scores for intimidation behaviors - cautious t (354) =2.005, p=.046 and leisurely t (354) =2.600, p=.048 - and imaginative behavior t (354) =2.237, p=.026) compared to middle management (n=158).

(Insert Chart 5 here)

Entrepreneurs’ versus multinational and Romanian company’s managers differences

Entrepreneurs had lower scores for adjustment F (2, 354) =3.736, p=.003 and ambition F (2, 354) =2.514, p=.030 compared to multinational and Romanian company managers. The Romanian company managers had higher scores for inquisitive F (2, 354) =2.410, p=.036 than entrepreneurs and multinational company managers.

(Insert Chart 6 here)

Entrepreneurs had lower scores for seduction derailers - bold F (2, 354) =2.663, p=.022 - compared to multinational and Romanian company managers and
higher scores for intimidation derailers: cautious $F(2, 354) = 2.566, p = .027$ and excitable $F(2, 354) = 2.648, p = .023$.

(Insert Chart 7 here)

Entrepreneurs had lower status interests – power $F(2, 354) = 2.533, p = .029$, recognition $F(2, 354) = 2.667, p = .022$ - compared to multinational and Romanian company managers. Romanian company managers had higher commerce scores $F(2, 354) = 3.284, p = .007$ compared to multinational company managers and entrepreneurs.

(Insert Chart 8 here)

Discussion and conclusions

The Romanian leader's personality characteristics were average, with highest scores for: ambition, prudence, learning approach, adjustment. They did not show moderate or high risk leadership derailers. The derailers, in the low risk area, that might occur in their behavior especially under pressure and stress were mostly seduction and leisurely behaviors. They had average scores for values, with the highest for status and social interests.

Men had higher adjustment, ambition, inquisitiveness compared to women. They tended to seduce, while women to intimidate. They valued commerce, while women had higher social interests and aesthetics. These gender differences largely followed the usual pattern and with Vinkenburg et al. (2011) findings that showed that the participants in their studies accurately believed that women display more transformational and contingent reward behaviours, and fewer management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviours than men. Investigating prescriptive stereotypes, the authors found that inspirational motivation was perceived as more important for men than women and especially important for promotion to CEO. Individualized consideration was perceived as more important for women than men and especially important for promotion to senior management.

Compared to middle managers, top managers registered lower scores for adjustment, ambition, prudence and higher scores for intimidation behaviors and imaginative. As Dotlich and Cairo (2011) emphasized in “Why CEOs fail”, CEOs are more vulnerable to the derailers than other leaders because of the pressures that confront the leader at the high end of the pyramid. All the pressure, the responsibility and the complexity of their activity can activate derailers and in addition to that, the higher somebody goes in an organization, the less likely other people are to provide feedback on their (tell to that person about his or her) failure-producing behaviors.

Compared to multinational and Romanian company managers, entrepreneurs registered lower scores for ambition and adjustment and lower scores for seduction derailers (bold) and status interests (power, recognition), but higher scores for intimidation derailers (cautious, excitable). Romanian company managers had higher scores for inquisitive and for commerce than entrepreneurs and multinational company managers. In order to interpret these findings we could use Fable and Larwood’s (1995) explanations that the entrepreneurs exercising more control, that could explain their tendency toward a cautious behavior. Non-entrepreneurs are willing to have more control, which is maybe why they would like to build their reputation displaying ambition and adjustment and under stress a seduction behavior (bold). In the study conducted by Fable and Larwood (1995) entrepreneurs indicated more personal identification with creativity and with the culture that they create, so that is why probably they do not feel much pressure to prove themselves and have lower status interests compared to multinational and Romanian company managers.
Implications
This study aimed to answer a practical question about the profiles of Romanian leaders and to show some diversity features. It achieved that, but it is a simple static approach whilst leadership is a dynamic process, therefore it is important to see the leader in relationship with his / her subordinates and upper echelon. In the future, the Romanian leaders profile should be placed in the context of their organizations and their personality, derailers and values should be correlated with their performance and with the results of their organizations.

References


Figure 1
**HPI Scales**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale:</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Avg</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjustment</td>
<td>Stress management, self-acceptance</td>
<td>Leader-like, competitive, energetic, and results focused</td>
<td>Ability to open relations, impact and influence of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambition</td>
<td>Development of relations, tactful, confrontation style</td>
<td>Planful, organized, conforming, reliable</td>
<td>Creative and resourceful when problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>Inquisitive</td>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prudence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inquisitive</td>
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<td>Approach</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2
**HDS Scales**

- Excitable
- Skeptical
- Cautionous
- Reserved
- Leisurely
- Bold
- Mischievous
- Colorful
- Imaginative
- Diligent
- Dutiful

- Intimidation
- Seduction
- Control Staff/Please authority

Figure 3
**HMVI Scales**

- Recognition
- Power
- Hedonism
- Altruistic
- Affiliation
- Tradition
- Security
- Commerce
- Aesthetics
- Science

- Status Interests
- Social Interests
- Financial Interests
- Decision Making Style
Chart 5
*Top vs middle management differences*

![Chor 5](chart5.png)

Chart 6
*Entrepreneurs vs multinational and Romanian company managers HPI*

![Chart 6](chart6.png)

Chart 7
*Entrepreneurs vs multinational and Romanian company managers HDS*

![Chart 7](chart7.png)

Chart 8
*Entrepreneurs vs multinational and Romanian company managers HMVI*

![Chart 8](chart8.png)
Impact of Food Security On Agri-Business In India

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Globalization is an opportunity thrown at India to prove her competence in the area of International Trade, but I personally feel it is very difficult to make globalization work for India, especially rural India, in which agri-business is an important component. By this statement people may attribute some kind of pessimism to me, but believe me, I am an optimist and we take solace from what Winstan Churchill said “a pessimist sees difficulty on every opportunity, an optimist sees opportunity in every difficulty”. I have already stated that Globalization is an opportunity to India.

My optimism is supported by the relevant data. The liberalization of Indian economy and its integration with the global economy have helped to step up GDP growth rates from 5.6 per cent in 1990-91 to the peak level 7.78 per cent in 1996-97 and by 2011-12 it is 7.5 per cent. A Global comparison shows that India is now the fastest growing economy just after China. Consequently India’s position at the global level has improved from 8th place in 1991 to 4th place in 2001 and 3rd place in 2011 when GDP is calculated on a Purchasing Power Parity basis. All is well accepted.

Now the pertinent question is whether this increased GDP and the resultant developmental fruits are been percolated to rural India and agri-business?. Are there trickle down benefit effect at the desired fastest rate to show a positive impact on agri-business? Had it been “yes”, there would not have been 28.3 million rural population below the poverty line as estimated by NSSO in 2004-05. That is why we want to admit we are little critical about the impact of globalization on agri-business.

In order to investigate the issues related to the process of globalization and GATs and its impact on agri-business and agricultural sector, the paper is divided into five parts. The first part is a brief review of literature, the second part spells out the objectives of the paper, part-III gives a brief introduction about agri-business and tries to throw light upon the lopsided administrative policies of Indian Government towards the unorganized sector i.e., agriculture and the impact of the inclusion of environmental issues in AOA on Indian agri-business. The conclusions and findings are outlined in part-IV and finally part-V concludes with some suggestions and policy implications.

Review of Literature

To find out the relevant answers about the impact of globalization on agri-business and agricultural sector we made a humble effort to go through the three books of Joseph Stiglitz, “Globalization and its Discontents”, “The Roaring Nineties” and “Making Globalization Work”. Joseph Stieglitz, being a humanist, is very sympathetic to the position of developing nations and brings forth the differences and ills in the perceptive of developed nations towards globalization. Also the similar work carried by Paul Krugman and Jagdish Bhagwati enumerates the endless innovative mechanisms which the developed counties have initiated to deny the free and fair trade for countries like India and unfair policies put into practice to harm the agri-business of the poor farmers in India.

B.S. Hansa and K.Vijaya Raghavan in their work entitled “Agri-business and Extension Management” gives a detailed account about the problems of market extension and accessibility of Indian agricultural production due to the major lacunae in agreement on agriculture.
Objectives of the Paper

The main objective of this study is to find out whether the process of globalization and GATS are instrumental for rural development and agri-business? In addition to this the following objectives are also framed.

1. To study the impact of the inclusion of environmental issues in AOA on Indian agriculture and agri-business.
2. To study about the rationale behind the inclusion of sanitary and phyto-sanitary conditions in the agri-business by the developed nations.
3. To study about the policies of the domestic Government towards the major growth engine of the economy i.e., agriculture.

We would like to bring few of such policies (into the kind notice of this gathering of high erudition). Since, I firmly believe that even today agricultural sector is the main growth engine of the economy feeding 100 and odd million of Indian population and provides livelihood for 60 per cent of the rural population. Agriculture and agri-business are instrumental to rural development. Therefore, we will touch upon few policies of globalization that affect agriculture directly and agri-business indirectly in a negative way.

Before that let us, given a chance to express what is agri-business from our perceptive?

Agri-Business

Agri-business includes all operations involved in the manufacture and distribution of farm supplies. These are production activities farm and storage processing and export and distribution of farm commodities. The ultimate purpose of Agri-business is catering or satisfying the food, nutritional, fiber and flori-culture needs of consumers in the changed socio-economic conditions both domestically and globally also. We know, as the signatory to GATS, India has to adjust our trade and other policies of agriculture as per the GATT round.

In this context this paper brings to light how irrational and lopsided administrative policies of the Indian Government and the lobbying of issues of environment into agreement on agriculture. The WTO agenda influenced by developed nations has created technical barriers to market accessibility to Indian agricultural products in the global trade thus having a very bad impact on the agri-business in India.

When GATT was transformed into GATS, India as a signatory in WTO, was promised free and fair trade without barriers and an assurance was given to India for the market accessibility of developed countries for the goods in which India can enjoy comparative cost advantage. India enjoys such an advantage in the production of agri-products and agri-business. AOA a part of Dunkel draft with it’s 21 articles was signed by India at Morakkses. AOA has 3 broad areas namely market access, domestic support and export subsidies. We are going to concentrate only on market access.

If at all AOA was religiously followed with fortunes by the developed countries, globalization policies would have been bought fortunes for rural development and agri-business in India. But unfortunately it did not happen.

Environment is a non trade issue, but today it is dominating WTO Agenda. Developed countries in general and European Union in particular have insisted for the
incorporation of sanitary and phyto-sanitary conditions to create technical barriers to trade to the developing countries in the place of maintaining environmental quality of the globe. This has led the, so called, market accessibility of AOA a myth for India’s agri-trade, where in we have a strong comparative cost advantage. The SPS and TBT agreements demand a number of countries to adopt food quality management system called HACCP (Hazard Analysts and Critical Control Point) in their food processing units. HACCP is a system recommended by CAC (Codex Alimentations Commission). CAC is a Commission established by World Health Organization and Food and Agricultural Organization to design the international quality standards for food products to be exported. Can Indian small and marginal farmers adopt HACCP in their processing units? Thus these agreements have given an unquestionable opportunity for developed countries to deny market access to our farm products where we have comparative cost advantage. Based on SPS and TBT we are facing import alerts on shrimps by USA, fish by EU, Saudi Arabian ban on fish products, use of pesticides in mangoes, bananas, grapes and potatoes. Restrictions on tea by EU and Japan, (regulations on Sesame, Tobacco and Milk products by E.U). Thus the sanitary and phyto-sanitary standards as technical barriers to trade have paved the way for the developed countries to maintain their supremacy in the international markets and denied market access to Indian farmers on scientific grounds. When the majority of food industry of rural areas in India is small and unorganized can we make this kind of unfair globalization policies work for rural development? WTO has failed in it’s twin objectives as professed at it’s establishment and forced the developing economies to lose faith in globalization.

This is at the international level. Let us see what has India done to the rural economy at domestic front in the wake of globalization?

Food grains production during 1980-81 to 1990-91 has increased from 129.6 million tones to 176.4 million tones. In the thirteen years of reform period the increase in food grains production is from 176.4 million tones in1990-91to 212.0 million tones by 2003-04.

The annual growth rate is more than the growth rate of population during that period.

Total investment in agriculture as a per cent of GDP in 1990 was 2.2 per cent. In 2003-2005 it has declined to 1.9 per cent. According to Sisodaya Committee Report, Andhra Pradesh State, has allocated a negligible 0.4 per cent in their budget to agriculture and allied sectors.

Why this kind of a step-mother treatment by the government to a sector which provides food security to more than 100 millions of populations and which supports 60 per cent of rural population?

The answer is, Intune with the provisions of WTO, the state started changing the new development mantra in which, obviously, and there is no place either to farmers or to the common man. Yes we all agree that to be in the global race, India needs to adopt massive industrialization, growth in urbanization and extensive mechanization.

But Indian state’s developmental mantra is industrialization and urbanization with the establishment of Special Economic Zones (SEZs) with illegal land acquisitions from small and marginal farmers without rehabilitation support and selling away the
community resources to MNCs without second thoughts. Extensive mechanization aims at supplementing labour force. All this is at the cost of rural economy.

If WTO is infavour of EU and America being unfair to developing economies Indian government is not less than that.

Just see how the irrational and lopsided administrative policies of the government went against the rural economy’s welfare. Here, there is every need for the Government of India to give due importance to rural economy for a overall development of the nation.

Observations and Findings
1. There has been no evidence of positive impact on agricultural sector in the wake of globalization.
2. As the signatory in AOA, the domestic government failed to make Indian agriculture competent enough to face global markets.
3. Inclusions of environmental issues as the main agenda of W.T.O. do not promise free and fair trade to (developing economics) India as far as agri-business is concerned.
4. Technical barriers of trade are imposed by developed countries on Indian agricultural products in order to wipe away the comparative advantage she enjoys and deny the market accessibility.

Suggestions and Policy Implications
1) Public policy support and funding for research and development should be continued and strengthened.
2) Agri-business has to be managed through suitable technocrats and managers.
3) Prepare the farming community to face the competitive pressure.
4) There is need to set up agri-business centers.
5) Agro-industrial complexes should be set up country wide for linking production processing and marketing.
6) Support for marketing information and intelligence has to be streamlined.
7) Promotion and maintenance of quality standard and packaging in conformation with sanitary and phyto-sanitary regulations should be given top priority.
8) India should be encouraged and assisted to get Hazard Analysis and Critical control Point (HACCP).
9) Better infrastructure has to be provided to promote agri-business such as cool chains, processing and packaging units, roads, regulated markets. These are required to cope with future export demand.

Conclusion
None of the above mentioned suggestions is rocket science. However, the government needs courage, benevolence and honesty to implement them. That is at the domestic front. At the international level India and third world countries needs to raise their voice against the irrational trade policies of developed countries.
We can say that India’s gains or losses from trade liberalization depends on utilization of the opportunities available for the development of agri-business. We may differ from Gandhiji. But we cannot altogether drift away from his model of rural development either with globalization or minus globalization.

Bibliography

Understanding How Three Key Events Impacted the Presidential Legacy of Millard Fillmore

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Introduction

This paper discusses the three key events that impacted the presidential legacy of Millard Fillmore who became the 13th president on July 9, 1850 after the death of Zachary Taylor. First, this paper outlines the Compromise of 1850 and focuses on the enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 by President Millard Fillmore. Second, this paper takes a closer look at the deployment of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in 1852 by President Millard Fillmore and focuses on the Treaty of Kanagawa. Third, this paper recalls the main business at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 and focuses on why the 296 voting convention delegates did not nominate President Millard Fillmore as their presidential candidate. Lastly, this paper concludes with an analysis of how the Compromise of 1850, the deployment of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in 1852, and the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 impacted the presidential legacy of Millard Fillmore.

Compromise of 1850

The Compromise of 1850 was introduced by Democrat Senator Stephen Douglas (IL) in five separate bills after the Senate did not pass the Omnibus Bill version of the Compromise of 1850 introduced by Whig Senator Henry Clay (KY). During floor action in the Senate there was a debate between southern legislators for slavery and northern legislators against slavery over every word of the five separate bills. According to the article, *The Compromise of 1850 and the Fugitive Slave Act* (2013), all five separate bills were passed by both houses of Congress and then signed into law by President Millard Fillmore in September of 1850.

- It admitted California as a free and 31st state.
- It divided the Mexican Cession won after the Mexican – American War (1846-1848) into territories of New Mexico and Utah without restriction on slavery by allowing the voters in each territory to decide the slavery question according to popular sovereignty.
- It settled a border dispute between Texas and New Mexico and compensated the State of Texas for lost lands.
- It ended the slave trade (not slavery) in Washington, D.C., but Congress declared that it had no power to ban slave trade between slave states.
- It included a Fugitive Slave Act that placed federal officers at the disposal of slave-owners that were seeking their escaped slaves.

*Enforcement of Fugitive Slave Act of 1850*

According to Robert Rayback (1959), the political philosophy of President Fillmore on slavery was that (1) the country had slavery because slavery was protected by the constitution, (2) there would be a slave rebellion unless slavery was outlawed and eliminated, and (3) the strict enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 was necessary, proper, and constitutional. The 15 southern slave states favored the strict enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 and used secession threats to put pressure on the federal government to enforce the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850. So President Fillmore responded to the pressure and secession threats of the 15 southern slave states by strictly enforcing the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850. The 16 northern free
states opposed the strict enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 and passed laws prohibiting the enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850. Also the state legislatures in several northern states responded to the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 by passing personal liberty laws that prohibited state judges to assist slaveholders and that extended to blacks the right to trial by jury in these disputes (Grayson, 1981).

The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 required that all citizens had to help the government catch runaway slaves. People who let fugitive slaves escape could be fined $1,000 and jailed for six months. Law enforcement officers were required to arrest anyone suspected of being a runaway slave on a claimant’s sworn testimony of ownership. Special courts were set up to hear runaway slave cases. Judges earned $10 for sending someone accused of being a runaway slave to the South and $5 for freeing someone accused of being a runaway slave. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 was opposed by many anti-slavery northerners who believed this to be an unjust law that forced them to catch runaways and participate in the slavery system. The enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 offended many anti-slavery northerners and thus convinced many northerners that slavery was evil (The Compromise of 1850 and the Fugitive Slave Act, 2013).

Impact on Presidential Legacy of Fillmore

Since President Millard Fillmore signed the Compromise of 1850 into law and strictly enforced the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, he gets credit for keeping the 31 states united because (1) he prevented the secession of the 15 southern slave states, and (2) he prevented a civil war between the 16 free northern states and 15 southern slave states. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 was one of the five pieces of legislation of the Compromise of 1850 and President Fillmore ordered that it be strictly enforced by law enforcement officers. The strict enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 was favored by the 15 southern slave states and opposed by the 16 northern free states. Basically, most of the northern Whig delegates at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 opposed President Fillmore as the party's presidential candidate because (1) he signed the Compromise of 1850 and (2) he strictly enforced the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850.

Deployment of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in 1852

In 1633, the Tokugawa Shogunate (Japan’s ruling family from 1600 to 1868) enacted a Japanese isolationism trade policy that (1) closed their ports to all Westerners (white people from Europe and North America), (2) allowed one ship a year from the Dutch East India Company to trade at the port of Nagasaki, and (3) held shipwrecked sailors who washed up on their shores as prisoners. American merchants wanted Japan to open their ports to trade and shipwrecked oil workers (whalers) held as prisoners wanted to be allowed to leave Japan. President Fillmore wanted Japan to open their ports to American ships going to China and Southeast Asia because Japan had the supplies and the coal resources needed to resupply American steam-powered ships. According to the article, A Brief Summary of The Perry Expedition to Japan in 1853 (1953), it was therefore important to President Fillmore for the United States to be the first of the Western nations to access the coal resources of Japan.
So in November of 1952, President Fillmore sent Commodore Matthew Perry with 800 men and four ships (two sail ships and two steam ships) to Tokyo Bay to present a letter to Japan Emperor Komei asking Japan to (1) open their ports to American merchants, (2) allow American shipwrecked oil workers (whalers) held as prisoners to freely leave Japan, and (3) allow American ships access to the supplies and coal resources of Japan. According to the article, *A Brief Summary of The Perry Expedition to Japan in 1853* (1953), Commodore Matthew Perry was authorized by President Fillmore to use force if the Japanese refused to let him present the letter to the emperor. On July 8, 1853, Perry reached Tokyo Bay and the Japanese refused to let him present the letter from President Fillmore to Japan Emperor Komei. On July 14, 1853, after a show of force the Japanese allowed Perry to present the letter from President Fillmore. Perry then left Japan for China and promised to return to Japan the following year for an answer.

*Treaty of Kanagawa*

On February 11, 1854, Commodore Matthew Perry returned to Tokyo Bay with 1,600 men and seven ships (four sail ships and three steam ships). After a show of force, Perry was allowed to enter into trade talks on March 8, 1854 in order to negotiate a trade treaty with the Japanese officials. On March 31, 1854, Matthew Perry signed the Treaty of Kanagawa on behalf of the United States and then left Japan for the United States. According to the article, *Treaty of Kanagawa, March, 31, 1854* (1942), the Treaty of Kanagawa was the first treaty between Japan and the United States and it was ratified on February 21, 1855 by the United States Senate.

- The treaty opened two ports (Shimoda and Hakodate) in Japan to the United States in order to (1) provide supplies and coal (fuel) for steamships from the United States, (2) allow for the American citizens to be given freedom of movement within the treaty ports, and (3) allow for trade between the Americans and Japanese to be conducted in the treaty ports.
- The treaty gave shipwrecked sailors (especially the whalers) the right to get assistance, the right to be released from prison, and the right to return to the United States of America.
- The treaty provided for a United States Consul to be stationed at a United States Consulate in Shimoda.

*Impact on Presidential Legacy of Fillmore*

Since the deployment of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in 1952 was the work of President Millard Fillmore, he gets credit for ending the Japanese isolationism trade policy dating back to 1633 with the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854. So, President Fillmore gets credit for getting Japan to open two ports (Shimoda and Hakodate) providing supplies and coal (fuel) for steamships, freedom of movement for American citizens, and trade between the two nations. President Fillmore also gets credit for getting the Japanese to agree to provide help to and protect the rights of the shipwrecked sailors (especially whalers) from the United States. Furthermore, President Fillmore also gets credit for getting Japan to agree to allow for a United States Consul to be stationed in Japan for the very first time at a United States Consulate in Shimoda.
National Whig Party Convention of 1852

The 1852 National Whig Party Convention was the 4th National Whig Party Convention and it was held from June 17, 1852 to June 20, 1852 in Baltimore, Maryland. There were 296 party delegates from the 31 states in attendance at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 because each state was awarded the number of party delegates equal to its number of electoral votes in the Electoral College. The party delegates at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 adopted their party's platform and nominated their party's candidates for President and Vice-President. The party delegates at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 were divided on the issue of slavery because the party delegates from the northern states favored the Wilmot Proviso of 1846 (which banned slavery in any territory acquired from Mexico) and the party delegates from the southern states favored the strict enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850. According to the article, Whig National Convention of 1852 (2013), the following statements are summaries of three key positions of the National Whig Party Platform of 1852.

- That the National Government of the United States of America should stay free of all entangling alliances with foreign countries.
- That the revenue sufficient for the expenses of the National Government in time of peace ought to be derived from a duty on imports and not from direct taxation.
- That the Fugitive Slave Law must be maintained with strict enforcement until further legislation is necessary to guard against the evasion and abuse of the law.

Nomination of a Candidate for President

The 296 convention delegates at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 were divided on their party's candidate for President because most of the convention delegates from the northern states favored General Winfield Scott of New Jersey and the most of the convention delegates from the southern states favored President Millard Fillmore of New York. After 53 ballots, General Winfield Scott of New Jersey had 159 (53.72%) votes, President Millard Fillmore of New York had 112 (37.84%) votes, Daniel Webster of Massachusetts had 21 (7.09%) votes, and 4 (1.35%) delegates did not vote. The 53 ballots were needed before one of the candidates received 149 convention votes (a majority of the convention votes) because most of the 41 convention delegates from the 6 New England states supported Daniel Webster of Massachusetts. According to the article, Whig Party Platform of 1852, June 17, 1852 (2013), Winfield Scott was finally nominated after 53 ballots because several convention delegates from the 6 New England states and Virginia switched their support. In the 16 northern free states (176 votes), Scott had 142 votes, Webster had 21 votes, Fillmore had 11 votes, and 2 convention delegates did not vote. In the 15 southern slave states (120 votes), Fillmore had 101 votes, Scott had 17 votes, and 2 convention delegates did not vote. Basically, on the second ballot the 296 convention delegates nominated Secretary of the Navy William Graham of North Carolina as the vice-president candidate by giving him all 296 (100%) convention votes.

Impact on Presidential Legacy of Fillmore

Since Millard Fillmore was not nominated to be the candidate for president by the Whig Party in 1852, he gets credit for being the very first incumbent president to try and
fail to win the nomination to be their party's candidate for president. The 296 voting delegates at the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 nominated General Winfield Scott of New Jersey to be the Whig Party's candidate for president. Basically, it is a fact that President Millard Fillmore failed to win the nomination to be his party's candidate for president in 1852 because he lost the support of the antislavery Whigs in the 16 northern free states for (1) signing the Compromise of 1850 and for (2) strictly enforcing the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850.

Conclusion

It is a fact that the Compromise of 1850, the deployment of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in 1852, and the National Whig Party Convention of 1852 impacted the presidential legacy of Millard Fillmore. Since President Millard Fillmore signed the Compromise of 1850, he gets credit for keeping the 31 states united because he prevented (1) the secession of the 15 southern slave states, and (2) a civil war between the 16 free northern states and 15 southern slave states. Since the deployment of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in 1852 was the work of President Millard Fillmore, he gets credit for ending the Japanese isolationism trade policy dating back to 1633 with the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854 that (1) opened the Japanese ports of Shimoda and Hakodate to the United States, (2) protected the rights of shipwrecked sailors (especially the whalers), and (3) provided for a United States Consul to be stationed at the United States Consulate in Shimoda. Since President Millard Fillmore was not nominated to be the Whig's Party candidate for president in 1852, he gets credit for being the very first incumbent president to try and fail to win the nomination to be their party's candidate for president because he lost the support of the antislavery Whigs in the 16 northern free states for (1) signing the Compromise of 1850 and (2) strictly enforcing the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850.

References

Common Core State Standards and Teacher Education Programs: Designing Inclusive Lesson Plans at All Levels

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Introduction
The Common Core Standards movement in the nation, brought about by the changing tide in education and the sunset of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001), has presented new and challenging issues for classroom teachers across the nation. These reforms will require significant changes in the classroom. The more traditional instruction of memorization will need to shift to a critical thinking and problem solving type of instruction. As Educator Preparation Programs (EPP) it is our responsibility to ensure that the future teachers we are preparing are ready for this challenge. New approaches to teacher education are needed. A change in instruction to include more critical thinking and increased rigor is required.
Partnerships between school districts and Institutions of Higher Education (IHE) will be necessary to ensure a smooth transition with these new changes. As an IHE we are presented with the task of preparing new educators. With the shift to Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and the transition that current teachers are facing, it is imperative that we prepare our candidates in the CCSS and offer ways for them to work with their cooperating (master) teachers to make this change.
School districts are looking at multiple sources to help them with the task of providing professional development for their teachers. IHEs can play a role in the professional development as partner, participant, or provider by preparing pre-service candidates in the new standards and then sharing that information with the school sites where they are placed. One way of providing support to school districts is by sharing practices that include developing lesson plans to incorporate the new CCSS.

Purpose
The purpose of this study was to design and use a common tool that would assist pre-service candidates with lesson planning that incorporated the CCSS and the ability to focus on certain areas of a lesson to improve outcomes. This tool would also be a way for candidates and cooperating teachers to plan and evaluate lessons together while learning more about how to teach the new CCSS.
We have been fortunate to partner with a local school district to create common professional development workshops that also help faculty understand how the CCSS look in action. The faculty and teachers work together to learn more about CCSS implementation and share what they have learned with our candidates.

Background
Data collected over the past few years revealed that our candidates were experiencing difficulty with lesson planning and especially making accommodations for English Learners (ELs) and students with special needs. When we transitioned to CCSS we also saw that candidates did not understand the integration of English Language Arts and other subject areas, including the addition to a shift to more speaking and listening and increased rigor.
As our university teacher education faculty struggled to wrap our minds around these challenges, it became clear that we needed to use a common tool to assist our candidates during this transition. We developed lesson plan templates and rubrics, to accompany them to scaffold their learning. Using these tools we have had the opportunity to see where our candidates are struggling and focus attention in those areas.
The new lesson plan templates utilizing CCSS also included sections for planning accommodations for ELs and students with special needs. A rubric was developed from the templates that assist candidates with designing their lessons. The lesson plan and rubric are used in courses as a training tool prior to the students entering the classroom. This allows candidates more time to grapple with the new tool and understand the important components in a lesson. It also provides them an opportunity to implement it with the support and feedback of their professor and peers in a coaching model. Once they are able to transfer it to the classroom, the lesson plan and rubric were not as daunting as they would have been without prior exposure. The templates were tools that could be shared with cooperating teachers and would benefit all. We soon learned from our candidates that their cooperating teachers were leaning on them to take the lead in Common Core instruction and that the template and rubric assisted them.

Definitions

- **Accommodations** – alterations of environment, format or curriculum to assist students with learning disabilities access to core curriculum.
- **Candidate** – a pre-service teacher in an educator preparation program
- **ELs** – English learners, also may be referred to as ELLs, English Language Learners.
- **Rubric** – a rubric is a scoring tool that can be used to evaluate performance based on set criteria.

Literature Review

**Common Core State Standards**

“The Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects (hereafter referred to as “the Standards”) are the culmination of an extended, broad-based effort to fulfill the charge issued by the states to create the next generation of standards in kindergarten to grade 12 to help ensure that all students are literate and college and career ready no later than the end of high school” (California Department of Education p. 2).

In the United States, the Common Core Standards began in 2008 as a result of the National Governors’ Association task force. Their charge was to determine what states would need to do to achieve standards equal to those of top performing countries (Singmaster and Jackson, n.d.). This movement and resulting task force, was due to the transition from NCLB with the newly elected Obama administration. The standards have rolled out one subject at a time, with English and Language Arts and Mathematics being the first two piloted in the nation.

The CCSS in English Language Arts will put increased pressure on students and teachers. They are expected to read and comprehend more complex texts in order to be college and career ready. A shift to reading more expository text and independently is also necessary. “Being able to read complex text independently and proficiently is essential for high achievement in college and the workplace and important in numerous life tasks” (CCSS Appendix A, P. 4). Griffith (2011) reported that teachers needed to be equipped to actually show that there were improvements in learning. “New and veteran teachers will have to reconsider how best to teach the standards and determine students’ comprehension” (Paragraph 7).

More collaboration between partners will be necessary to ensure CCSS implementation.
Griffith (2011) suggested targeted professional development for teachers and teacher preparation programs will need to be developed and revised to align with the new standards. He also suggested that new lesson plans be developed to deliver effective instruction. Moreover, Ellers (2012) suggested six essential elements for implementing the CCSS; establish a purpose, align faculty and staff, determine priorities, facilitate professional discourse, encourage risk taking, and provide specific feedback. Many of these elements were considered when making changes to our own program.

Rubrics
The use of rubrics in education is not a new concept, but one trend that has grown over time (Andrade, 2000). Rubrics are used to support student learning and to provide both the student and the teacher with clear guidelines in relation to the task or project to be completed. Students and teachers are able to focus more clearly on what is expected, and are individualized to each learner (Henning, n.d.). There are many types of rubrics, but most common are analytical, holistic and weighted. Analytical rubrics allow students to break down components of the objectives of a set lesson into components, which give further insight to each aspect of the objective. Holistic rubrics give an overview of the objectives, are not as specific and are do not give detailed information about the student’s progress. Weighted rubrics are a variation of analytical, with some areas of the rubric being graded more heavily than others (Henning). There are pros and cons to using rubrics that should be noted. Aside from their efficiency and clarity for meeting assignment criteria, students receive detailed feedback, can be a judge of their own work, and allow teachers to assess skills that may not ordinarily be assessed. Henning (n.d.) notes that rubrics enable teachers to clarify their focus, expectations, standards and goals.

The downside of rubrics include the initial time it takes to create a rubric, but the counter to that is once it is done, it is done. It can be reused and modified from then on. Deciding on the gradations between points can be troubling at first. Other than these points, students tend to prefer rubrics over a standard letter grade as they are able to see exactly what they received points for in relation to the task. The quality of any given rubric will be key to determining the value of the assignment.

McConney and Ayers (1998) list six factors related to creating a quality rubric. The six criteria are: alignment with learning outcomes, clarity/understanding of assessment, reliability, feasibility, diversity of assessment strategies, and developmental appropriateness. These factors may be taken into account when developing rubrics used with student teaching lesson plan assignments, such as the ones provided in the appendix.

Lesson Plans and Common Core
Long a part of teaching at any level, lesson planning using objectives is a basic necessity for a teacher to achieve his or her goal during instruction. Hunter (1982) introduced lesson planning with eight steps that have been standard in many teacher education programs. While these steps may be or may not be all included in every lesson, they provide a solid background of research-based steps that provide effective instruction.

The eight steps used in Hunter’s lesson planning include anticipatory set, lesson objective, input, modeling, check for understanding, guided practice, independent practice and closure (ONET, n.d.). These steps have been modified over time and
made to fit individual teacher’s styles of lesson planning, but can be counted on to deliver a solid lesson. Our program modifications to this basic plan include placing a state adopted content standard and a common core literacy standard prior to the lesson objective. In addition, students include a language objective incorporating listening, speaking, reading and writing along with the relevance and rationale for these objectives. The pre-service candidates respond to a lesson plan reflection using seven questions related to the common core at the end of their lesson plan.

Accommodations for English Learners
Incumbent on any teacher while designing lesson plans is providing accommodations for English learners and students with special needs. In a recent (2013) policy brief by Teachers of English to Students of Other Languages (TESOL), it is stated educators need to keep abreast of the shifts within the CCSS so that they can be better prepared to address the learning needs of all ELs. For example, the first shift, building knowledge through content-rich non-fiction, suggests teachers “Design appropriate assessment tools so that ELs can demonstrate what they know and can do”; and, “Integrate ELs background knowledge and culture into instruction” (P.5).

In the second shift, reading, writing, and speaking grounded in evidence from both literary and informational text, examples include that teachers must “Create and use scaffolding and supports so that ELLs at different levels of English language proficiency can take part in meaningful conversations and writing using complex text,” and “Teach ELLs the academic language necessary so that they can use evidence from literary and informational text in reading, speaking, listening, and writing,” (P. 5).

Examples in the final shift for English Language Arts is regular practice with complex text and its academic language, state that teachers must “Explicitly teach the academic language necessary to comprehend complex texts so that ELLs can draw on these texts to speak and write across content areas,” and, “Teach ELLs the academic language necessary to allow them to use evidence from reading, speaking, listening, and writing,” (P. 5). Examples in the final shift for English Language Arts is regular practice with complex text and its academic language, state that teachers must “Explicitly teach the academic language necessary to comprehend complex texts so that ELLs can draw on these texts to speak and write across content areas,” and, “Teach ELLs the academic language necessary to allow them to use evidence from reading, speaking, listening, and writing,” (P. 5).

Accommodations for Students with Special Needs
Accommodations as defined by the National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities “is a change that helps a student overcome or work around the disability” (part 1, para. 3). It allows students to work toward grade-level standards but learn or show it in a different way than their classmates. Beech (2010) explains “Accommodations do not reduce learning expectations. When a change in the instruction or assessment activity lowers the expectations for student learning, it is considered a modification” (p. 15). Changing instruction and assessment may be necessary for students with disabilities to meet the standards. Accommodations provide assistance for students with special needs to be successful in the general curriculum. Olinghouse (2008) explained there are four categories of accommodations; content, process, products, and learning environment. Beech (2010) categorizes them into; presentation, response, setting, and scheduling Making accommodations for struggling students in any of these categories make it possible for that student to meet the standard. It will most likely benefit all students.

It is beyond the scope of the Standards to define the full range of supports appropriate for English language learners and for students with special needs. At the same time, all students must have the opportunity to learn and meet the same high standards if they
are to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary in their post–high school lives (CDE 2013 p. 11).

Providing access for all students to the core curriculum is necessary for teachers as they create lessons. Using strategies for EL accommodations and students with special needs will keep pre-service teachers focused on the learning needs of their students as they create their lesson plans.

**Study**
The design of the study was to use lesson plan templates and rubrics (Appendix) to teach candidates how to plan lessons using CCSS and then evaluate their progress. Planning would also include making accommodations for ELs and students with special needs. Understanding that all students benefit from accommodations, teaching candidates how to make accommodations for struggling learners was an important part of lesson planning and would make them overall better teachers. From these templates and rubrics, data on any part of the lesson could be collected for program improvement purposes. We could, see where candidates were struggling most and where more attention was needed. We hoped that the use of these tools would result in better performance on Teacher Performance Expectations (TPEs) by the end of their program, finally resulting in increased student performance.

**Question**
Will using a common lesson plan template and rubric help candidates write better lessons using CCSS? Will rubric scores show a positive gain in the areas of making accommodations for English learners and students with special needs?

**Instrument**
Lesson plan rubrics were used to score overall lesson plans as well as specific parts of lesson plans. Accommodations made for English learners and students with special needs could be tracked and documented to show growth. Along with the rubric scores, we were able to triangulate the data with Teacher Performance Assessment (TPA) scores and survey data collected from candidates, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors that rated their preparedness to teach certain TPEs. In addition, all methods courses focused intensively on meeting the needs of English learners and students with special needs.

**Limitations**
Since there was no calibration in using the rubric, the faculty scoring the rubric could affect the outcome of this study. However, most faculty have been calibrated on scoring TPAs which has a similar rubric.
The low points possible in certain rubric areas could be a limitation, since growth will be harder to track.

**Participants**
The participants for this study are the current candidates from both the Multiple Subjects and Single Subjects Credential Programs.

**Findings**
Overall lesson plans have improved greatly. Candidates appreciated the details from the rubric to assist them in writing complete lesson plans. The opportunity to use them throughout their fieldwork allowed them to be more comfortable in lesson planning and sharing with cooperating teachers. Feedback from cooperating teachers and university supervisors showed that candidates were able to plan relevant and developmentally
appropriate instruction using CCSS with good use of instructional time and subject matter pedagogy. Both MSCP and SSCP cooperating teachers and university supervisors reported that over 90% of the candidates had excellent and good preparation in these areas.

A closer look at making accommodations for ELs and SNs also show an improvement in lesson plans. Evidence from TPA scores show overall improvement. On MSCP TPA scores the overall mean for TPE 7 has increased from a 2.86 to a 3.14 in just one semester. For SSCP the mean has increased from 3.04 to a 3.21. Summative evaluations from cooperating teachers and university supervisors also show an increase in student awareness of ELs and SNs accommodations. They feel that they understand the importance of making accommodations and do so quite well.

Feedback from Advisory Board meetings that include cooperating teachers and administrators has also been very positive. They appreciate our work on the CCSS and find our candidates very helpful to them during the transition. The feel our candidates are well prepared for the future classrooms and children they will encounter.

Summary

The Multiple and Single Subjects Credential Programs were faced with the onset of the Common Core State Standards and its implementation in the K-12 classrooms. Program faculty became aware that students were being treated as experts in the field based on their comments from their cooperating teachers. In classes, students would ask for specific information related to common core and, in turn, share this with their cooperating teacher.

Program faculty developed lesson plan templates to be used by students in order to incorporate Common Core State Standards and to address the lacking scores on TPA results related to English Learners and Students with Special Needs.

After using the lesson plans for a few years we have found that students are showing a positive trend in their understanding of lesson planning and instructing English Learners and Students with Special Needs.

Recommendations

Based on the results of data from both MSCP and the SSCP, we are committed to the following:

- Continue to gather data from students as we emphasize EL and SN accommodations in our courses.
- Brainstorm ideas for accommodations for ELs and SNs
- Keep lists of accommodations in courses
- Determine new areas of focus as evident from the lesson plan rubric scores
- Continue Professional Development in CCSS with local districts
- Continue Professional Development in working with English Learners
- Develop measures to collect data on K-12 student learning outcomes
References


## CSUS Multiple Subject Credential Program Lesson Plan Template

### MSCP Lesson Plan – Subject: ____________________________ Grade ____

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS ELA or Math:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content Standard (NGSS or History/Social Studies):</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Standard (Listening and Speaking/ELD): should we have these separate? A listening and speaking standard and an ELD standard?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptations:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Learners: CELDT Level 3 (These vary for each lesson/instructor) change to new ELD language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sp Needs Students: Speech (These vary for each lesson/instructor)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anticipatory Set:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Plan:</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Plan:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Closure:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Performance Task:

**Reflection on lesson: Use these questions- they are the same ones from TPA 😊**

- Did you teach the lesson as planned? If not, what changes did you make to the lesson and why?
- To what extent did the class or group as a whole achieve the academic learning goals of the lesson?
- In what ways was your lesson effective and what might you do differently to improve the lesson (Be specific about the components in your plan)?
- What will you do for the student(s) who did not achieve the academic learning goals?
- What are your next steps with the class or group?
- In what ways was your lesson effective and what might you do differently to improve the lesson for your English learners and academically challenged students?
- What will you do for the English learners and special needs students who did not achieve the academic learning goals?
- Given your analysis of this lesson and the student learning that resulted, how will you use this information to guide your planning for future lessons?

After reflecting upon this instructional experience, what have you learned about the need for making adaptations as you plan for differentiated instruction? Cite specific information about the students, your plan for instruction, and the analysis of the lesson to explain your answer.

What are your goals for increasing your knowledge and skill in implementing instruction? How will achieving these goals help you become a more effective teacher?
### MSCP Lesson Plan Rubric: EDMS 4110 Lesson Plan Scoring Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assignment Elements</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Scoring Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incomplete, inappropria te or mostly unclear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standards and Objectives</td>
<td>CCSS: ELA Common Core State Standard</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Content Standard (if applicable)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning objective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clearly addresses standard(s), and is realistic to achieve in a typical (20-25 minutes primary; 40-50 minutes upper grade) lesson time frame and grade level. The objective is detailed and focuses on what students will be able to do that will demonstrate learning. Language standard/objective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>addresses a reading, writing, listening or speaking goal that is purposefully integrated into the lesson. Either from CCS or ELD standards.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptations</td>
<td>Adaptations for EL: You provide support for the language requirements of this lesson to help student be successful</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adaptations for SN: You provide support for the academic needs for this student in order to be successful.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Technology: How will you incorporate technology in this lesson?</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ant. Set</td>
<td>Anticipatory Set Clearly bridged with prior knowledge</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>Instruction examples (at least 4). Instruction clearly addresses the standards and objectives for the lesson. Instruction proceeds a gradual release of responsibility from teacher modeling (I do) to guided practice/instruction (We do), to Collaboration (You do it together) and finally Independent (You do it alone). Instructional strategies and meaningful activities are appropriate for grade level and focuses on standards Instruction plan detailed students’ collaborative/independent practice Wrap-up/review</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Assessment plan purposefully ties back to the content objective. Assessment plan is clear and detailed. Assessment plan supports SBAC areas of assessment. Assessment happens throughout lesson.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Teaching reflection (after teaching your lesson.) Addressed all the questions in the template, and supported response from details from your instructional experience.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comments:**

Misc. things to consider when planning: Are you using Higher-Order Questioning and thinking? Are there purposeful, structured interactions and discussions?
CSUS Single Subject Credential Program: Lesson Plan Template (Sample)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Date:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade Level:</td>
<td>Content Area:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Matter:</td>
<td>Duration of Lesson:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. State-Adopted Content Standards this lesson will address:

2. Common Core Literacy Standard: [http://www.corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy](http://www.corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy) [Choose your area from list provided – reading, writing, speaking or listening].

3. What unit of study is this lesson a part of, and where in the unit is this lesson?

4. Lesson Objective(s) (specific and measurable target(s) for students to be able to achieve by the end of the lesson).

5. Language Objectives (specific, observable, and measurable activities during the lesson where students practice reading, writing, speaking, and listening as they learn the content of the lesson).

6. Relevance/Rationale: Why are the lesson & language objectives important in the real world? Why are these objectives essential for future learning? (Common Core Connection).

7. Instructional Plan: Please answer each question below on the left, with a brief rationale for your answers to the right.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. How will instructional content/language objectives be shared with students? (OBJECTIVE)</td>
<td>a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. How will you provide the background knowledge/instructional hook? (ANTICIPATORY SET)</td>
<td>b.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. How will you format your instruction? (INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES)</td>
<td>c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. How will students interact with the content objectives? (GUIDED PRACTICE/Check for understanding)</td>
<td>d.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. How will students practice the content objective on their own? (INDEPENDENT PRACTICE)</td>
<td>e.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. How will students be assessed on the content/language objectives? (FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT)</td>
<td>f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. How will you end your lesson? (CLOSURE)</td>
<td>g.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Common Core Lesson Plan Reflection
(Answer each question completely)

• Does this lesson reflect one of the “shifts” in instruction?
• How does this lesson reflect college/career ready skills?
• How does this lesson reflect academic rigor?
• How does the lesson cognitively engage students?
• How is collaborative learning used?
• How is real-world relevance incorporated?
• How is technology used to enhance learning?

Resources

Sample Verbs for Content Objectives:

- Analyze
- Apply
- Calculate
- Compare
- Compose
- Conduct
- Construct
- Contrast
- Describe
- Determine
- Explain
- Identify
- Illustrate
- Name
- Recognize
- Solve
- Understand

Sample Verbs for Language Objectives:

- Describe in Writing
- Discuss
- List
- Orally Describe
- Orally Express
- Orally Explain
- Present
- Read
- Record
- Repeat
- Tell
- Underline
- Write

8. Instructional Sequence and Time – Number each of your items from your instructional plan in the order that they will occur from the start to the finish of your lesson. Include the amount of time you will spend on each of the items and be specific as to what the students and you will be doing during each of these time segments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Sequence</th>
<th>Number of instructional minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Lesson Adaptations: Write adaptations as described below.

A. English learner (EL) – Address Emerging, Expanding & Bridging for each of 3 lessons.
B. Special needs student (SN) – (There are 14 SN categories; choose 2 for each of 3 lessons for a total of 6 different SN students).
**Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy Verbs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REMEMBERING</th>
<th>UNDERSTANDING</th>
<th>APPLYING</th>
<th>ANALYZING</th>
<th>EVALUATING</th>
<th>CREATING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tell, List, Describe, Relate, Locate, Write, Find, State, Name, Identify, Label, Recall, Define, Recognize, Match, Reproduce, Memorize, Draw, Select, Write, Recite</td>
<td>Explain, Interpret, Outline, Discuss, Distinguish, Predict, Restate, Translate, Compare, Describe, Relate, Generalize, Summarize, Put into your own words, Paraphrase, Convert, Demonstrate, Visualize, Find out more information about</td>
<td>Solve, Show, Use, Illustrate, Construct, Complete, Examine Classify, Choose Interpret, Make Put together, Change, Apply, Produce, Translate, Calculate, Manipulate, Modify, put into practice</td>
<td>Analyze, Distinguish, Examine, Compare Contrast, Investigate Categorize, Identify Explain, Separate Advertise, Take apart Differentiate, Subdivide, deduce</td>
<td>Judge, Select, Choose, Decide, Justify, Debate, Verify, Argue, Recommend, Assess, Discuss, Rate, Prioritize, Determine, Critique, Evaluate, Criticize, Weigh, Value, estimate, defend</td>
<td>Create, Invent, Compose, Plan, Construct Design, Imagine Propose, Devise Formulate, Combine, Hypothesize, Originate, Add to, Forecast, Forecast,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[For the full list, refer to the source: Dalton,J & Smith,D (1986) Extending Children’s Special abilities – Strategies for Primary Classrooms](http://nichcy.org/disability/categories)

- Autism
- Deaf-blindness
- Deafness
- Developmental delay
- Emotional disturbance
- Hearing impairment
- Intellectual disability
- Multiple disabilities
- Orthopedic impairment
- Other health impairment
- Specific learning disability
- Speech or language impairment
- Traumatic brain injury
- Visual impairment, including blindness

**SSCP Lesson Plan Rubric**

**NAME:** ________________  **Content Area/Subject:** __________  **DATE:** _____________

**Lesson plan rubric (Total 50 Points)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Standards</strong> (Question #1)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly understands and appropriately uses state-adopted academic content standards in the lesson (TPE 1)</td>
<td>Clearly understands and appropriately uses state-adopted academic content standards in the lesson (TPE 1)</td>
<td>Partially understands and appropriately uses state-adopted academic content standards in the lesson (TPE 1)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of the use of state-adopted academic content standards in the lesson (TPE 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points earned:</td>
<td>(Total points possible 4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Core Anchor Standards (Question #2)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly states the academic learning goals based on the Common Core anchor standards (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Clearly states the academic learning goals based on the Common Core anchor standards (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Partially states the academic learning goals based on the Common Core anchor standards (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of stating the academic learning goals based on the Common Core anchor standards (TPE 9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points earned: _____ (Total points possible 4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives (Language and Learning) (Questions #4 &amp; #5)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly states the academic measurable objectives based on the state standards (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Clearly states the academic measurable objectives based on the state standards (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Partially states the academic measurable objectives based on the state standards (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of stating the academic measurable objectives based on the state standards (TPE 9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points earned: _____ (Total points possible 6: 3 points each objective)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Plan (Question #7 a - g)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly uses various instructional strategies, activities, and resources to facilitate student learning and ensure active and equitable participation that is developmentally appropriate and addresses students’ academic needs. Assessments are varied and included in the lesson design (TPE 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8)</td>
<td>Clearly uses various instructional strategies, activities, and resources to facilitate student learning and ensure active and equitable participation that is developmentally appropriate and addresses students’ academic needs. Assessments are included in the lesson design (TPE 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8)</td>
<td>Partially uses various instructional strategies, activities, and resources to facilitate student learning and ensure active and equitable participation that is developmentally appropriate and addresses students’ academic needs. Partial use of assessments included in lesson design (TPE 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of using various instructional strategies, activities, and resources to facilitate student learning and ensure active and equitable participation that is developmentally appropriate and addresses students’ academic needs. Assessments may be limited or not connected to objectives (TPE 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven questions to be answered from lesson plan:</td>
<td>a. (Objective)</td>
<td>b. (Anticipatory Set)</td>
<td>c. (Instructional Strategies)</td>
<td>d. (Guided Practice/CFU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Sequence and Time (Question #8)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly provides rationale for the allocation of instructional time and use of instructional strategies to maximize student achievement (TPE 10, 11)</td>
<td>Clearly provides rationale for the allocation of instructional time and use of instructional strategies to maximize student achievement (TPE 10, 11)</td>
<td>Partially provides rationale for the allocation of instructional time and use of instructional strategies to maximize student achievement (TPE 10, 11)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of the rationale for the allocation of instructional time and use of instructional strategies to maximize student achievement (TPE 10, 11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points earned: _____ (Total points possible 5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptations (Question #9)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly understands and applies theories, principles, and instructional practices for English Language Development, draws upon student backgrounds and language abilities to provide differentiated instruction, and adapts instructional practices to provide ELs access to the state-adopted content standards (TPE 7)</td>
<td>Clearly understands and applies theories, principles, and instructional practices for English Language Development, draws upon student backgrounds and language abilities to provide differentiated instruction, and adapts instructional practices to provide ELs access to the state-adopted content standards (TPE 7)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of understanding and applying theories, principles, and instructional practices for English Language Development, draws upon student backgrounds and language abilities to provide differentiated instruction, and adapts instructional practices to provide ELs access to the state-adopted content standards (TPE 7)</td>
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<td>EL Points earned:</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly selects strategies/activities/materials/resources to connect academic content to the students backgrounds, needs, and abilities, particularly for students with special needs (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Partially selects strategies/activities/materials/resources to connect academic content to the students backgrounds, needs, and abilities, particularly for students with special needs (TPE 9)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of selecting strategies/activities/materials/resources to connect academic content to the students backgrounds, needs, and abilities, particularly for students with special needs (TPE 9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Total points possible 5)</td>
<td>Clearly, consistently, and convincingly knows and applies professional, ethical, and legal obligation and takes responsibility for student academic learning outcomes (TPE 12)</td>
<td>CC partially knows and applies professional, ethical, and legal obligation and takes responsibility for student academic learning outcomes (TPE 12)</td>
<td>Little to no evidence of knowing and applying professional, ethical, and legal obligation and takes responsibility for student academic learning outcomes (TPE 12)</td>
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Migrant Labor: Smuggling or Trafficking?

Erika Rosales (Student)
Central Washington University
Foreign work visas almost always create a trafficking situation. They are promised 2-3 years of farm work. But it’s not given to them. Then they were in debt (because of fees and transportation costs) paid to get and unable to repay it. Some employers “held on” to documents (visas, passports) for their employees.

Center for Justice

Description of the problem
Confusion about the meaning of the terms trafficking in laws and regulations are the source of a great deal of public misunderstanding. Smuggling and trafficking are different crimes with very different implications for those being transported; the terms cannot be used interchangeably.

Human trafficking centers on exploitation and is generally defined as:
• Sex trafficking in which a commercial sex act is induced by force, fraud or coercion, or in which the person induced to perform such act has not attained 18 years of age; or
• Recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage or slavery (ICE, 2014).

Human smuggling centers on transportation and is generally defined as:
• Importation of people into the United States involving deliberate evasion of immigration laws. This offense includes bringing illegal aliens into the country, as well as the unlawful transportation and harboring of aliens already in the United States.

Human Trafficking Indicators:
• Does the victim possess identification and travel documents? If not, who has control of these documents?
• Did the victim travel to a destination country for a specific job or purpose and is victim engaged in different employment than expected?
• Is victim forced to perform sexual acts as part of employment?
• Is the victim a juvenile engaged in commercial sex?
• Does the victim owe money to an employer or does the employer hold wages?
• Did the employer instruct the victim on what to say to law enforcement or immigration officials?
• Can the victim freely leave employment or the situation?
• Are there guards at work/harboring site or video cameras to monitor and ensure no one escapes?
• Does the victim have freedom of movement? Can they freely contact family and friends? Can they socialize or attend religious services (ICE, 2014)?

Since there is a clear distinction between smuggling and human trafficking, the first step in addressing the problem is to train officers so that they can carefully and in a timely manner, assess the status of persons at the point of detention. When government and community institutions are not trained, when law enforcement does not investigate and prosecute the proper crime injustice becomes part of the criminal justice system (Polaris Project, 2013). From the federal government to state government everyone is concerned with smuggling and trafficking. This first step will
protect labor migrants’ rights and will reduce their susceptibility to abuse not only by the criminal justice system but by traffickers (USC, 2013).

Smuggling has always been a problem in America. There are more “than 10 million undocumented aliens currently residing in the U.S and that population is growing by 700,000 per year” (Kane, Johnson, 2013).

According to UNODS, individuals who are smuggled are vulnerable to abuse and can be exploited. Smugglers take advantage of the migrants that are willing to breach the law when they do not have legal access of migration (UNODS, 2013). In the 1990s the problem of trafficking emerged internationally and in America. The U.S Department of State began to monitor trafficking in persons in 1994 when the Department’s Annual Country Reports on Human Rights Practices began to cover trafficking victims (Human trafficking.org, 2013). The initial focus was on women and girls for sexual purposes but now it has expanded (Human trafficking.org, 2013). There was a hearing on human trafficking in 1999, which lead to the 2000 Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA) in the fall of the year 2000 (U.S criminal Justice policy: a contemporary reader, 2013). The United Nations’ Blue Heart Campaign, also, seeks to combat human trafficking on a global scale (McGough, 2013) and The Department of Homeland Security’s Blue Campaign offers resources to law enforcement and the public to help raise awareness, combat human trafficking and offer training (McGough, 2013).

Since the Trafficking Victims Protection Act in 2000, Forty-nine states have ratified legislation to criminalize human trafficking and authorizes state and local law enforcement investigate cases without depending on federal government and to prosecute human trafficking cases in state courts (McGough, 2013). But, if Law enforcement lacks the proper training to identify victim of trafficking, they cannot carry out these mandates or “be the eyes and ears for federal law enforcement in recognizing, detection and answering to situations that may seem to be routine street crime, but may ultimately turn out to be a human trafficking case. Consequently, fewer trafficking cases have been identified and prosecuted than would be expected in terms of existing evaluations (McGough, 2013). Studies cited by McGough (2013) also show that victims were primarily identified through reactive approaches, demonstrating that officers usually wait for survivors to self-identify or wait for community tips about potential victimization before they investigate and that law enforcement lamented the absence of identified labor trafficking cases, indicating that although officers believe labor trafficking is happening the community, they have not received information about the incidents.

In conclusion, human trafficking is powered by low risk and profit. Although, we lack reliable estimates of nationwide occurrence, human trafficking is happening on a large scale in America. Identifying, understanding and combating this form of modern-day slavery requires more research, but it is clear from what is known that proper training of the officers who are charged with protecting trafficking victims at the point of first contact can and should be done now.

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Cold War Archeology
Nevada’s Nuclear Graveyards

Ronald Saltinski
National University
Abstract
Archaeologists search for artifacts of the Cold War in the deserts of The Nevada Nuclear Weapons Test Site just 65 miles northwest of Las Vegas.

Introduction
Immediately after World War II the United States and the Soviet Union engaged in a Cold War dominated by nuclear saber rattling. Both nations proceeded to develop and test nuclear weapons of doomsday capability. After the first atomic bomb explosion in 1945 in New Mexico the primary testing grounds for the United States was the Pacific Ocean. Between logistics and cost the Pacific Ocean was reserved for testing the most powerful thermonuclear or hydrogen bombs. In 1950 President Harry S. Truman approved the creation of the Nevada Proving Grounds, the only peacetime, above ground nuclear testing facility in the continental United States. The Nevada Nuclear Weapons Test Site was a Cold War battlefield. The test site covered over 1,375 square miles of barren desert just 65 miles northwest of Las Vegas. The site is now called the Nevada National Security Site (NNSS) and managed by the National Nuclear Security Administration (NNSA).

Beginning in January 1951 and almost every three weeks a nuclear weapon was detonated, daytime and nighttime, surface, aerial, and underground explosions. The daytime surface and aerial explosions could be heard in Las Vegas and sometimes even the ground beneath the casinos would shake. Nighttime explosions provided spectacular “entertainment” for viewers on the roofs of casinos. On April 22, 1952 the American public was able to view the first public broadcast of a nuclear test on their television sets. In 1963 the Limited Test Ban Treaty took effect and all above ground nuclear explosions came to a halt. Yet for the next thirty years underground nuclear testing would continue. The announced total number of nuclear tests was over 1000 detonations. Some nuclear tests remain classified and were never announced prior to the actual tests. These nuclear weapon tests may have involved experimental devices like the neutron bomb.

The primary mission of the Nevada Proving Grounds was to determine the effectiveness of new weapon designs. Another mission was to determine the combat capabilities of infantry and armored units immediately after a nuclear explosion on the battlefield. Throughout the Nevada Proving Grounds were office buildings, residential homes, factories, and urban infrastructures (bridges and freeway overpasses).

Today the Nevada National Security Site is still Off Limits to the public and monitored by intense security systems including continuous aerial drone surveillance. Areas adjacent to the Nevada Proving Grounds are among the most classified installations in the United States, the Yucca Mountain nuclear waste storage depository and the infamous Top Secret (TS) Area-51.

Archeology of the Nevada Proving Grounds
The definition of archaeology is the scientific study of ancient cultures through the examination of their material remains, for example, buildings, graves, tools, and other artifacts usually dug up from the ground. In the minds of many aging Americans the Cold War is an “ancient” culture, a culture that was largely hidden and secretly maintained away from public landscape. From nuclear testing grounds in Nevada to
ICBM silos buried across Midwestern America, from secret testing facilities in the deserts of California to immense doomsday shelters, the physical remains of the Cold War remain to be explored and excavated.

Archeological studies of the Nevada Test Site do involve hazards related to digging into sun baked desert soils that harbor leftover radioactive debris from nuclear explosions. Fallout of radioactive debris was often carried many miles away from ground zero explosions. Design efforts were made to "cleanup" the "dirty" bombs with new designs, hence the huge number of tests that were conducted. Perhaps the most hazardous excavations are those in the spidery network of underground tunnels that lie beneath the Nevada Test Site.

"The Nevada Test Site was one of the battlefields of the Cold War," said Troy Wade, who spent 31 years with the program, starting as an explosives engineer and retiring as an assistant secretary of Energy for Defense Programs at the United States Department of Energy (DOE). "Just as artifacts from a World War II battlefield are worth preserving, so are these" (National Geographic Today). Today the archeological studies of the Nevada Test Site are the responsibility of the Desert Research Institute (DRI) located at the Nevada State University, Las Vegas. Artifacts consist of twisted and gnarled metal I-beams and metal cables entombed in glass created by the nuclear heat of desert sand. The relics of human society that were built at the test site, homes, factories, farms, and even bank vaults remain as visages of the effects of a nuclear blast. DRI archeologists even found an underground bomb shelter with fully dressed mannequins, TVs, furniture, and a kitchen full of canned goods. "It was like opening up King Tut'd tomb to find a 1950s time capsule shelter" said one of the DRI archeologists. Some of the dressed mannequins were located and removed after the nuclear testing in the 1950s and were displayed in J. C. Penny stores in Las Vegas.

Archeology of Cold War Installations

During and after the Cold War as technology advanced and politics changed a wide variety of military nuclear installations for defense against attack and offense for attack were spread across the American landscape. These facilities ranged from Early Warning Installations (primarily in Alaska and Canada), Missile Silo Complexes (primarily in the Midwest) Command Centers (the still active Cheyenne Mountain Nuclear Bunker in Montana for example) and Atomic Attack/Fallout Shelters varying in size from backyard underground bunkers to huge underground facilities to house government leadership. Most of these facilities have simply been deactivated and some made into national historical sites and some sold outright to the public. In the journal Archeology, the article "Cold War Memories" overviews the Minuteman Missile National Historic Site in South Dakota. On November 29, 1999, President Clinton signed the legislation preserving a bit of the Cold War for the benefit of future generations who did not live through it.

Cold War Museums

Archeologists are the primary source of cultural artifacts from the past and as such the primary source for which museums are showcases for those artifacts. The most prominent cold war museum is the National Atomic Testing Museum located in Las Vegas, Nevada. Another outstanding collection of Cold War artifacts can be found
on exhibit at The National Museum of Nuclear Science History located in Albuquerque, New Mexico.

A wide variety of smaller Cold War museums and associated exhibits abound across the United States. The “Traveler’s Guide to Atomic Museums” provides a resource for vacation-going Americans.

Conclusion

Today the threat of nuclear annihilation for Americans who lived through the Cold War seems a distant memory. Many young Americans will never experience the wailing of air raid sirens or CONELRAD alerts on the radio and television. However older Americans will probably be long gone with younger Americans will face the advent of the Zombie Apocalypse.

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Reforming Teacher Education Through a Community of Practice: Towards an Innovative Approach

Mahmoud Suleiman
Randy Schultz
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Abstract

A synopsis of five-year action research project reveals a positive impact on teacher preparation in diverse settings. Networking efforts and communities of practice reflect that key ingredients in teacher education programs should be considered. Using a USDE funded Teacher Quality Partnership (TQP) grant in central California with three university partners and two county school systems, this paper highlights how teacher education can integrate reform elements to enhance learning and teaching outcomes. The participatory, interactive logic modeling cycles are used to frame findings and actionable outcomes regarding curriculum transformation and preK-20 collaboration in preparing teachers to reduce the achievement gap, become culturally responsive, and address common core state standards.

Introduction

Practices in teacher education have always been impacted by various initiatives at the state and national levels. In addition, school reform efforts have always shaped the direction of teacher preparation programs. Nonetheless, programs continue to function based on the immediate contextual needs of the institutions in their attempt to respond to the demands of the local schools and districts.

While preparing teachers has universal parameters and expectations, the process is generally determined by the participating entities who join efforts to examine the professional needs of teachers. Thus, the community networks that engage in the planning and implementing effective preparation programs include a wide spectrum of participants who typically have a common goal and purpose. They also operate from a vision that can be actualized with far-reaching outcomes.

The process can be examined in light of institutional variables that can govern the function of respective programs. Thus the focus of this paper involves the collaborative program using a federally sponsored grant which aims to enhance teacher efficacy and quality. The Edvention Partners is a Central California Partnership for Teacher Quality (CCP-TQP) grant has sought to respond to the learning and teaching outcomes in schools; it has also provided an effective model for enhancing teacher preparation that can have promising consequences.

The discussion provides a general overview of the program and its tenets. It also examines various aspects and strategies to address reform elements in teacher education, and highlights examples of certain approaches that can promote teacher efficacy. Finally, the paper draws upon the findings of the collaborative efforts and provides implications for enhancing teacher preparation programs elsewhere.

Setting

Central California is a diverse service area that provides a rich setting for integrating innovative approaches to teacher preparation. The increasingly demographic shifts made teacher preparation an excitingly challenging process. Institutions of higher education (IHEs), the local county offices of education, and the local school districts have always forged partnerships and collaborated on many fronts to respond to the immediate learning and teaching needs of the pre-K-20 schools. Examples of such collaboration can be demonstrated through various consortia activities to respond to the
professional needs of pre-service teachers as well as beginning teachers throughout their professional journey within the state's learning to teach continuum. Other avenues include joint grant opportunities and other programs that are mutually advantageous for both the school districts and the university based teacher education programs.

One of the most recent and unique opportunities is the California Partnership for Teacher Quality Programs (CCP-TQP) which has been underway for several years. This grant includes a large community of participants across the pre-K-20 schools. In addition, the system wide, state, and federal participants are part of institutional networks within the realm of this grant functions. The participating entities include three campuses within the California State University system (Bakersfield, Monterey Bay, San Luis Obispo) and two county offices of education (Kern County Superintendents of Schools and Tulare County Office of Education). In addition, over twenty five schools and local agencies have become a major part of the grant whose primary goals and functions focus on the recruitment and training of effective teachers who will in turn positively impact the school learning outcomes.

**Goals**

Teacher preparation is an evolving dynamic process. It should always undergo constant reform and renewal. More importantly, it should be responsive to the ultimate needs of learners in schools. There are several philosophical underpinnings that underlie and guide the scope and sequence of the program, its goals and outcomes. These include, but are not limited to, the following:

- Teacher preparation, while context-bound, should have far-reaching goals to promote global competency in both teachers and students.
- The process of preparing teachers should be a collaborative effort based on a common vision and a set of clear goals.
- Social forces affecting schools such as demographic shifts, global events, technology and the like should be taken into account when preparing teachers.
- Engaging teacher candidates in multiple learning opportunities, field-experiences, other professional learning tasks should be systematic and purposeful.

These assumptions and others can provide a framework to continually take any program to the next levels of effectiveness. At the same time, they can guide achieving the desired balance in teachers’ knowledge and skills. Having this in mind, the Edvention grant goals are articulated within a global vision and an innovative approach. In particular, the grant has, according to the TQP (2011, p. 1), outlined the following core components that include:

(a) curricula for science, math, or special education that focus on scientifically supported teaching and learning methodologies, including the use of technology;
(b) clinical experiences that serve as a continuous core and culmination of professional preparation;
(c) case-based approaches that complement concurrent field experiences, and
(d) ongoing professional development for teacher education faculty, teacher candidates, and pre-K-12 educators and administrators.
The above components reflect a general outline for each of the participating campuses that can be implemented in relation to contextual demands of the respective teacher preparation program. Thus each institution developed its own contingency and action plan which is conceptualized in a logic model that guides the grant’s activities. While logic models vary, they serve as a blueprint to give participants ownership about their reflections, actions, and outcomes (see Torres, Hopson, & Casey, 2008). More importantly, the adopted logic model serves as a roadmap that allows examining multiple options and possibilities to efficiently reach desired outcomes by outlining a clear set of goals based on the internal and external factors.

Reform Elements

The various functions of the Edvention activities revolve around the participatory approaches to reforming teacher education at different levels. At the IHE level, program faculty, personnel, staff and candidates have engaged in a series of systematic activities within the realm of their roles and responsibilities. Their primary engagements involve achieving the common goals as outlined in the logic model within the context of the scope of the grant requirements. At the center stage of these activities are the reform elements that have to be integrated in the program’s input and output.

To illustrate, there are several key reform elements that have become primary ingredients in the enhanced teacher preparing approach. A synopsis of these elements and their place in reforming teacher education within the context of the Edvention grant are discussed below. These include, but are not limited to, the following:

1. Integrating culturally responsive pedagogy in the scope and sequence of teacher education programs. While this element is a recurrent theme in the state and national guidelines and standards that govern most teacher education programs, it has become a focal point in the reform process within the grant activities and contingencies. As such, program candidates are provided with ample opportunities to construct the necessary knowledge about the diverse realities and their impact on instructional planning and delivery in schools. Candidates complete a series of anchor assignments and field experiences to examine first-hand working with diverse student populations. They also participate in carefully planned workshops and professional learning series to enhance their conceptual knowledge and professional skills in order to respond to the diverse needs of all students in the multicultural schools.

2. Aligning lesson planning and delivery with multiple layers of content standards including the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). With the growing impact of the Common Core Standards movement, albeit controversial at times, the program has taken a new direction in integrating the CCSS elements throughout. Thus the framework postulated by these standards has become the lenses through which teacher training is viewed. In addition, this initiative has become a focal point of the academic and professional discourse among teacher educators and other partners at the school and district levels. Unwrapping the standards, CCSS-driven lesson planning and delivery, assessing and evaluating learning and teaching outcomes, and engaging in reflective practice have become routine professional learning engagements and techniques in teacher preparation programs.
3. Adopting innovative field-based experiences using the co-teaching model and on-the-job-training opportunities for teacher candidates. The value of carefully planned field experiences in teacher preparation programs has long been emphasized in standards for teacher quality. Collaborative team models to teacher preparation have also been advocated not only as an anterior approach (in which field experiences or internships are frontloaded in the beginning and/or during the program), but also as a posterior approach (in which student teaching, internships and/or induction occur after completing the coursework). Of course, these vary from one context to another despite the core elements of striking a balance between knowledge and skills along with bridging the gap between theory and practice. Co-teaching is one of the models that has been gaining attention given its impact in enhancing participatory roles of novice and preservice teachers. It has become as an alternative approach, albeit the challenges in implementation, to the traditional models given its unlimited possibilities to giving ownership of professional learning to its actual consumers: candidates, teachers, and learners. More importantly, immersing candidates in the field, where action occurs, provides them with necessary first-hand experience and practical exposure to their future roles as professionals in schools.

4. Meeting the literacy and academic needs of the linguistically and culturally diverse, English language learners (ELLs), along with special needs and the gifted. The frequent reference in multiple layers of teacher quality and accreditation standards at all levels to "all students" is by no means a merely rhetorical statement. Rather, it is a serious mandate that all students should be engaged in the learning/teaching process while embracing their unique circumstances and backgrounds. One of the most prevalent aspects of student diversity involves their linguistic and cultural backgrounds that inevitably have an immediate impact on their interaction with the school's input. Generally, no teacher education program can pass accreditation guidelines without putting pertinent guidelines and mandates into action in the preparation of teachers and educators. In fact, a major layer of standards exists, in many states, that primarily focuses on English language development and promoting academic and literacy skills in the linguistically and culturally diverse learners. In order to respond to this critical element, grant participants have engaged in a wide range of tasks and activities to continually enhance learning opportunities about the workable approaches to address literacy and language development throughout the program. Refining course syllabi, integrating the language across the curriculum (LAC) approaches, integrating universal design of instruction (UDI), instructional differentiation, interactive natural approaches...among others have become pedagogical routines and signature activities in teacher preparation and field experiences. The ultimate goals of such efforts revolve around providing access to all students to the core curriculum and enhance their literacy and academic skills regardless of their diversities and abilities.

5. Creating a culture of assessment for candidates to engage in teaching, re-teaching and backward mapping to enhance student learning outcomes. Assessment is an integral element in curriculum planning and instruction that is embedded in teacher preparation. The value of assessment lies in its pedagogical value of driving instructional practices and measuring learning and teaching outcomes. In addition to training candidates in how assessment data is used to inform their
instruction in schools, candidate assessment and evaluation are based on how far they can meet the prescribed guidelines and expectations. Candidates are trained to integrate assessment in their instructional planning and delivery as they engage in teaching and re-teaching, backward mapping, and other tasks to ensure maximizing learning outcomes given their prospective roles in schools. Taking into account the unique needs of their students, candidates develop knowledge and skills about how differentiated learning not dictates differentiated instruction but differentiated assessment as well.

**Evaluation and Results**

The impact of the grant professional learning series and activities has been visible in many facets of the teacher preparation program. Data collected provides a growing evidence that candidates’ knowledge, skills, and dispositions have a marked impact on learning and teaching outcomes. Elsewhere, Suleiman and Schultz (2014) provide an account of the multi-stage process within the program’s logic model that uses action research cycles (see Lewin, 1947; Calhoun, 1994; Deschler & Ewert, 1995) for evaluating and measuring outcomes as the following table illustrates:

*(See Table 1)*

In examining the multiple sources of data collected throughout the process, there are positive indicators about the impact of the grant activities and the attainment of its goals. For example, evidence suggests that candidates have come to better understand their role in schools and developed the professional language and dispositions associated with their responsibilities. They also reflect a better understanding of their critical and participatory roles in the school and professional communities. In many domains within each reform element, evidence suggests that the program’s response to the schools’ needs is overall positive. For example, there is a growing “buy-in” of the co-teaching model as an alternative and viable approach to enhance teacher preparation and seamlessly transition them into the teaching force. Likewise, new partnerships have been forged along with professional pre-K-20 networks that engage in continual professional discourse needed to tackle arising challenges in educational reform. Similarly, partners in the local schools and members of the consortia have developed a stronger sense of their ownerships and their belonging in the professional learning community along with their critical role in teacher preparation.

**Conclusion**

The ever changing and growing challenges in today's schools require a more critical look at how teachers are prepared and revisit existing approaches accordingly. Alternative approaches can be explored based on the local and global demands alike. Building communities of practice, engaging in action research cycles, establishing professional networks, implementing participatory clinical experiences and co-teaching models, responding to the current initiatives and demographic demands affecting schools are among the myriad ways to make the teacher preparation dynamic and impactful.
References


Table 1

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Implicit versus Explicit Out-group Favoritism

Ivana Thomas (Student)
Hampton University
“Every man has some reminiscences which he would not tell to everyone, but only to his friends. He has others which he would not reveal even to his friends, but only to himself, and that in secret. But finally there are still others which a man is even afraid to tell himself, and every decent man has a considerable number of such things stored away. That is, one can even say that the more decent he is, the greater the number of such things in his mind”.
- Fyodor Dostoyevsky

Abstract
The study’s focus was specifically on groups, which according to the social identity theory, would be least likely to show out-group favoritism on explicit measures. This study thus employed the Implicit Association Test to measure out-group versus in-group favoritism. The study then compared these measures of implicit bias with explicit measures of bias gathered from social media data. It was found that while many members of these disadvantaged groups displayed in-group favoritism on explicit measures, implicit measures of out-group favoritism worked in contradiction to this. Many members of disadvantaged groups yet displayed an out-group favoritism on implicit measures.

Introduction
Numerous studies have been conducted on implicit biases and their ramifications on the social, economic, and political structures of our society. Historically, the vast majority of psychological theory has focused on the tendency for individuals to possess an implicit bias towards his or hers own group. However, recently there has been research done to suggest that the contrary may be true with certain groups. Rather, there is psychological research that now suggests that members of less-privileged groups of society may have an implicit bias that is in opposition to their own group (Haines & Jost, 2000; Jost, 2001). Generally these implicit biases have been measured using instruments that will suggest rather an individual possesses out-group favoritism, in-group favoritism, or a neutral perspective.

Definitions
The definitions and terms used in this study are:
1. **Out-group Favoritism**: Out-group favoritism is defined as the psychological tendency for an individual to hold attitudes in favor of a group that said individual is not a part of.
2. **In-group Favoritism**: In-group favoritism is defined as the psychological tendency for an individual to hold attitudes in favor of a group that said individual is a part of.

Background Literature
Implicit Biases. Following the verdict of several unsavory court cases and the blatant injustices in our judicial system observed by social scientists, significant attention has been given to the implicit biases that individuals hold. Implicit biases may in fact help explain the perpetuation of a justice system that is economically and politically skewed in whom it benefits. It has been found that the majority of society holds an implicit bias towards disadvantaged groups in society (Jolls & Sustein, 2006).
Thus, social scientists point to these ideologies to explain how existing social systems have prevailed.

**System Justification Perspective.** The system justification perspective is attempts to combine several aspects for social science theories, while offering new insight. This theory plans a role in helping to explain the implicit attitudes of those in lower status groups in society (Jost 2001). According to Jost and Hunyady (2002) system justification is described by the following:

“At the most basic level, we postulate the existence of a system just (fleation motive, whereby people justify and rationalize the way things are, so that existing social arrangements are perceived as fair and legitimate, perhaps even natural and inevitable.”

**Theoretical Framework**

**Social Identity Theory.** The social identity theory tries to suggest that individuals identify with groups he or she belongs to or that are most like the said individual. However, the elements new psychological research comes into contradiction with parts of this theory. There may be motivations for people who are members of groups that are disadvantaged in society to hold higher values towards the more advantaged group than their own (Jost and Banaji 1994). This theory uses identity as a basis for forming one’s social perspective but its more complex factors at play (Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

**Internalization of Inequality.** There is a substantial amount of evidence in our society that suggests that unequal attitudes shown towards a disadvantaged group in society have often been internalized by the said group (Pyke 2010). Internalized inequality is a theory openly applied to many types of disadvantages groups, rather they be disadvantaged in society by race, gender, socioeconomic status, religion, or etc. Internalized racism is one specific category of internalized inequality that has been studied. Internalized racism has been defined as, “The ‘subjection’ of the victims of racism to the mystifications of the very racist ideology which imprison and define them” (Hall 1986:26).

Internalized racism comes from the system of oppression and is not derived from any innate feature found in the group discriminated against (Pyke 2010). However, psychological scholars have found it to be a phenomenon that is unavoidable in prevailing systems of oppression (Schwalbe, Godwin, Holden, Schrock, Thompson, and Wolkomir 2000). Moreover, this internalized inequality finds its place in this study because it may explain why out-group favoritism may be higher in disadvantaged groups, particularly in disadvantaged racial groups when pertaining to this study.

**Research Hypotheses:**

1. Generally, disadvantaged social groups hold implicit racial biases against their own group, favoring the more advantaged group.
2. Out-group favoritism transcends into online forums and communities, where unequal social stereotypes are further perpetuated.

**Significance of Study**

This study is significant in understanding how society can uphold a system for so long that seemingly does not serve a large quantity and often times even the majority of the people in the system. Social scientists have tries to postulate must be a complex
combination of factors that allow such unjust systems to perpetuate. This study attempts to further this crucial pool of knowledge by displaying this phenomenon and how it presents itself in the new age of technology.

Methods
The participants were 133 African American undergraduate students attending a historically black university in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The participants were recruited from undergraduate psychology classes at the university. This study employed Greenwald, McGhee, and Schwartz's Implicit Association Test (IAT) instrument. The Implicit Association Test found at implicit.harvard.edu was used to gauge the implicit attitudes of participants. There are various forms of this test available. The participants were given the racial implicit test which measures implicit bias towards either European or African descent.

Explicit bias was measured using the social media posts that students made about race. These social media posts were what these students displayed on status updates that they perceived would be displayed publically. The positive or negative keywords in social media posts indicated attitudes towards race that were posted publically.

Results
Quantitative Analysis. The results indicated that on an explicit measure, African American students expressed many favorable attitudes on social media concerning their own race. On the implicit (IAT) measure, however, the study revealed that this trend was reversed. Fewer African Americans showed favorable attitudes towards their own group on the implicit measure. In the hypothesis testing Hypothesis #1 was not supported using chi square Hypothesis #2 was supported using chi square. The study should be replicated with a larger sample size for clearer results.

Implications and Best Practices. This research has significant implications in the way social scientists look at phenomena and analyze our social institutions. This can open up conversation and possible reform with the knowledge that the bias in our ideologies has transcended into our social systems (Jost and Banaji’s, 1994). If the public is more knowledgeable of these biases present, then they can respond and act as a greater informed member.

The study also can be used to display how social media and technology can act as a gauge for measuring our explicit attitudes. Many times the persona or attitude that individuals display for social media is not the same as the one that they show internally or even to their friends in more intimate situations (Correa, T., Hinsley, A. W., & De Zuniga, H. G.,2010). This component of the study is key as our social reaches new heights of the ever-evolving technological advances. Technology and social media create new mediums for individuals to display their psychological attitudes more openly and for it to be measured (Webster, J., & Trevino, L. K., 1995).

This study also has significant ramifications in our justice system. The implicit biases present show that our system can never be as objective as it claims to be. Inevitably, our system is shaped by the ideologies of the people making decisions. Individuals have been shown to possess ideologies which hold significant bias (Jost and
Thus, the system must inevitably hold some bias so long as the ideologies of those whom occupy it are biased.

References
The Integration of Feature Films into Introductory Special Education Courses

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The Integration of Feature Film into Introductory Special Education Courses

One possibility to enrich an introductory special education course is to integrate a Hollywood feature films component. The purposeful use of movies to reference during lectures and class discussions with their applications to school and society can enrich what is being taught in the textbook (Latz, M., 2009). Connections can be made between the films and the course textbooks that allow students to understand better what they read. Some overarching goals of this integration are to see the parallels between film and real life, critique societies treatment of those with exceptionalities, analyze personal stereotypes and attitudes regarding those with exceptionalities, evaluate personal treatment of those with exceptionalities and begin to form a personal plan of advocacy for those with exceptionalities. Thus, awareness may bring attitude adjustment then advocacy.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section reviews the use of feature films in college courses in various disciplines since 1970. Popular media has been incorporated into history, foreign language, literature, anthropology, religion, psychology, writing, pharmacy, and education courses.

One of the first higher education disciplines to incorporate feature films was history. Higher education history curriculum began to include blockbuster movies in the early 1970s with the addition of documentaries in the 1990s. Cable channels such as A&E, Discovery, and The History Channel which devote much airtime to historical issues have helped promote history and historical concepts for the general public (Sprau & Keig, 2001; Woelders, 2007).

There are advantages for using feature films in foreign language, history and culture college courses. It has been found that films support three goals of teaching a language; linguistic, cultural, and intercultural. Movies may help support the intercultural goal which may be the most difficult goal for instructors to find class time to accomplish (Pegrum, Hartley, & Wechtler, 2005). Films can show topics such as regional identity, nationalism, feminism, modernization, freedom from religion, sexual and gender identity, democracy, architecture, fashion and help highlight the flow the language (Ramos, 1981).

The use of media including video, television, and feature films has been used in English Departments, specifically for the study of the works of Shakespeare. Andrew McLean (1980) provided an annotated bibliography and media guide for teachers which included 26 feature films and discussions of each Shakespeare film.

Anthropology departments have used feature films to reinforce basic anthropological concepts and theories taught in introductory courses. Feature film can increase the understanding of spatial relationships, cultures and substantive and procedural law of such cultures that students cannot visit. The most effective way to incorporate such popular media is to provide structure for the viewers so students can see relationships, signs and cross-cultural concepts (Rohrl, 1981).

The Journal of Religion and Film states as its goal to examine the description, critique, and embodiment of religion in film and contains articles on the incorporation of feature film in college courses. Conrad Oswalt (1998) found blockbuster movies to be
extremely motivating to college students which led to students reading texts related to the film, taking risks and thinking critically, and taking ownership of the course. Oswalt and Martin (1995) organized a systematic approach to religious film studies and classified the movies into three categories as primarily; theological, mythological or ideological.

The exemplification of topic areas in psychology and focusing attention on different viewpoints and perspectives is an advantage of incorporating feature film in introductory psychology courses. These films can provide different perspectives to a situation, once shown on film, makes it understandable to students (Gregg, Hosley, Wong, & Montemayor, 1995). Instructors at Ohio State University found there to be a reciprocal relationship between films and society as evidenced in the feature film Malcolm X (1992). The film impacted the youth in society, it caused them to discuss their ethnic identity and even changed clothing styles (Gregg, Hosley, Weng & Montemayor, 1995).

Writing courses have structured the use of film by assigning students to watch one film per week, select relational issues to address and write one paper each week on such issues (Tillman & Bochner, 1995). Pulp Fiction (1994) has been used in various college level courses to show the relationship between writing, ethics, culture and rhetoric (Rader, 2003).

Clinical Pharmacology courses have highlighted the movies Awakenings (1990), Lorenzo’s Oil (1992), and Miss Evers’ Boys (1997) to show the ethical conflicts in clinical drug trials with human beings as subjects and the psychological aspects of such drug trials (Farre, Bosch, Roset & Banos, 2004).

Instructors that teach mandatory multicultural introductory courses for teacher candidates or ethnic literature and film have used popular media to help their students examine the cultural, social and political issues (Pruitt, 2007).

Instructors that teach mandatory introductory special education courses for teacher candidates that teach the significance of various exceptionalities may want to consider the benefits and power of incorporating a feature film component into such courses.

**AWARENESS: CHARACTERISTICS AND RATIONALE**

Teacher candidates in teacher education programs around the nation take a mandatory introduction to special education course for certification. These mandatory courses provide an overview of exceptionalities that affect learners in the educational environment. This exposure can shape teacher candidates’ attitudes which will translate into future teacher behaviors in the classroom (Thomlinson, Callahan, Moon, Tomchin, Landrum & Inbreau, 1995), (Goodman, 1988), (Wentworth, 2008). One goal of such courses is to mold the attitudes of future teachers to be positive, empathetic advocates for exceptional learners. Research on preservice teachers’ perceptions of inclusion of students with exceptionalities has been mixed. Some research has reported that preservice teachers’ attitudes towards exceptional learners were more positive after university classes (Campbell, Gilmore & Cuskelly, 2003), (Garriot, Miller & Snyder, 2003) while other research suggested no change in teacher attitudes (Kirk, 1998). The potential of film in the learning process can produce a powerful learning experience (Sprau & Keig, 2001). The addition of a feature film component might provide a catalyst to help mold teacher candidate attitudes in this positive direction.
METHOD
In preparation for the feature film assignment, the professor followed these task analysis steps.
1. Internet and IMDB searches to compile a list of movies that feature individuals with disabilities.
2. Classify the movies into the eligibility categories as grouped by IDEA.
3. Purchase and/or rent the films on the list.
4. Watch each movie while taking notes.
5. Watch each movie a second time with the Sanlindin guidelines in mind.
6. Movies that proved accurate to the characteristics etc of the disorder stayed on the list of viewing choices.
7. Rubric focus questions that correlated to the textbook, CEC standards, were written.

Teacher candidates at a Northwest public university in ten sections of the same mandatory introductory special education course with the same professor were assigned to choose feature films from the approved list to watch and answer focused questions regarding exceptionalities. Anonymous teacher candidate comments regarding the assignment were collected and compiled at the end of each quarter over a two year period.

RESULTS
Awareness of Exceptionality Characteristics
Overall, teacher candidates felt strongly that the incorporation of feature films increased their awareness of exceptionalities. Teacher candidate comments regarding the use of a feature film assignment to bring awareness include,
• “The assignment opened my eyes to things I did not know about before”, It was an interesting way to see some of the exceptionalities in a setting other than reading them in a textbook”,
• “this assignment brought to light the amount of films out there. This also brings awareness to many different disabilities and a lot of times for the misconceptions of these disabilities”,
• “it improved my awareness, especially if the main character gave an accurate showing of the disorder”
• “The movies allowed me to see characteristics rather than only read about them in a textbook”
• “It allowed us to actually see the indicators and characteristics of a disability, making it easier to recognize in our students”
• Visually seeing individuals with the disabilities led to a better understanding”

Awareness of the Effect Exceptionalities on Relationships and Interactions
Candidates stated the feature films highlighted the impact an exceptionality has on all stakeholders that interact with a person with a disability better than the textbook and lecture method alone. Also noted, was the realization that the visual component of such interactions in movie scenes will be forever embedded in their memories as opposed to some readings that would only be remembered a short time.
Comments include,

- “it helps to understand the difficulties that people who live with students with disabilities face”,
- It allowed us to see real-life experiences and have more of an understanding of what families, friends and people with disabilities go through”,
- “It was great to see the different ways disabilities effect people”

Attitudes

A recurring theme of the molding of attitude

- watching the films allowed me to better understand the capabilities of children with exceptionalities” , 
- I was not aware of how capable these kids are”

References


# Figure 1
Feature Films that Highlight Exceptionalities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>TITLE OF MOVIE</th>
<th>PRODUCER(S)</th>
<th>DIRECTOR(S)</th>
<th>WRITER(S)</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impairment</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Director(s)</td>
<td>Writer(s)</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Studio</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Questions Rubric

Please choose one movie to watch from the approved list. Answer three questions from the rubric below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe how someone in the main character’s life maintained</td>
<td>expectations for the individual so they could develop to their highest possible quality of life potential in ways that respected their dignity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe how someone in the main character’s life promoted</td>
<td>meaningful and inclusive participation of that individual in their school and/or community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe how any schools and/or colleges developed</td>
<td>relationships with families based on mutual respect and actively involved families and/or individuals with exceptionalities in educational decision making.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe any examples or non-examples of appropriate treatment of the</td>
<td>main character in the school system and/or classroom. You may also describe any examples or non-examples of appropriate teaching strategies for the individual with the exceptionality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe any examples of individuals in the movie who protected and</td>
<td>supported the physical and/or psychological safety of the main character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe any scenes where anyone was engaging in a practice that</td>
<td>harmed the main character. Describe your teacher action plan to handle bullying in your classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you feel the main character was portrayed as a positive force of</td>
<td>society meaning they were part of mainstream setting with people without disabilities, shown as capable of a loving relationship, portrayed as an ordinary person and interacting as an equal? (Safran, 2000) If so, explain why you feel with way with examples from the movies. What impact do you feel this movie has had on society and its view of this exceptionality?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you feel the main character was portrayed as a negative force to</td>
<td>society meaning they were portrayed as pitiable, pathetic, a burden, incapable of loving relationships and living separate from mainstream society? (Safran, 2000) If so, explain why you feel that way with examples from the movie. What impact do you feel this movie has had on society and its view of this exceptionality?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a detailed paragraph, tell how you could use this movie to educate</td>
<td>bring awareness to general education faculty members regarding a student with this exceptionality condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe any scenes that show how the main character used augmentative and alternative communication systems or assistive technologies to support their learning or living.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe how the character with the exceptionality advocated for themself in a specific scene.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe social skills deficits you noticed in the film.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Professional Development and Common Core State Standards: Case Study Findings from a Rural West Virginia School District

Jay Wildt
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Abstract
Classroom implementation of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) continues to be a strong focus of school districts across the United States. The purpose of this study was to evaluate professional development held for teachers serving students in a very high poverty level school district in rural West Virginia. The first segment of staff development, held in the summer of 2012, introduced teachers to the Next Generation Content Standards and Objectives, aligned with the Common Core State Standards and assessed using the Smarter Balanced Assessment System (SBAS). The 2013 workshop focused on improving skills and assessment of learning practices in English Language Arts and Mathematics. Multi-dimensional evaluations of the weeklong workshop, including participant skill and knowledge change, provided evidence that suggest positive outcomes. Recommendations for future staff development conclude the discussion.

Introduction
Despite the uneven response by states to Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and the assessment mechanisms associated with them, many school districts see the CCSS as an opportunity for significant improvements in student learning outcomes. The twofold goal of both college and vocational preparedness is appealing. Efforts at increasing student learning through teacher professional development programming are constructive, especially in districts where many students are less likely to attend college (Howley, 1991). This paper provides evidence that such staff development activities are useful, particularly in light of broad pedagogical strategy modifications. Specifically, participant evaluations of training regarding implementation of Math and English Language Arts (ELA) content standards and objectives aligned with CCSS were used to determine the efficacy of staff development held in a rural West Virginia school district during the summer of 2013. The training is of particular significance as high poverty levels exist within the school district.

A number of other pupil attributes also contributed to the concerns voiced by teachers in Clay County. The state test data indicate over half of Clay County students were not proficient in Reading and Math, 59% were not proficient in Science, and 69% were not proficient in Social Studies (West Virginia Department of Education, 2014a). Older data also suggested problems that contributed to weaknesses in student learning which cannot be controlled by the county school system. The 2009-2010 No Child Left Behind (NCLB) scorecard indicated 68% of students in Clay County were from low income households (West Virginia Department of Education, 2014b). The expectation, therefore, was that students in this district would benefit from innovative instructional strategies, and faculty would strengthen their capacity to provide such instruction by participating in the Summer Institutes.

Literature Review
The literature suggests a strong relationship between staff development and improvements in teacher instructional knowledge and skill. Professional development of teachers regarding new pedagogical strategies provides positive contributions to schools, students, and teachers. Specifically, the underlying theory of change is that
staff development activities geared to further enhance implementation of CCSS will result in a number of improved outcomes related to teacher skill and their ability to assess learning.

The future of schools may well depend on the quality of teacher development programming and the willingness of school districts to commit to long-term investments in teacher education (Joyce, 1990). Common Core Standards are increasingly the focus of instruction, and teachers are challenged to integrate them into their daily practice. The pressure to adapt to regular pervasive education reform can affect teacher enthusiasm and dedication (Day & Gu, 2007). The change from methods-based curriculum to standards-based pedagogy, a hallmark of CCSS, provides for a greater level of academic freedom and less prescriptive lessons (Halliday & Moses, 2013). Halliday and Moses also suggest that the importance of professional educational activities geared to assist instructors in that transformation provide excellent opportunities to evaluate current representations of instruction and reflect on new models.

Staff development activities, however, have not always been innovative, positive experiences. Professional development has been a part of the teaching lexicon for as long as lifelong learning principles have existed. Usually, it is led by an experienced instructor (Cara, 2011). In the past, these activities have been isolated and in many cases, are seen as an unneeded but necessary part of maintaining teaching credentials. That view has changed somewhat in the past twenty years.

Staff development activities are now moving from silos of seemingly disconnected episodes of learning that lack organizational support, to comprehensive strategies leading to implementation of large-scale initiatives. The integration of teacher training topics into practices supported by principals, school districts, and government stakeholders is becoming commonplace (Sparks, 1994). Some development activities have also moved to the cloud-based environment (Robertson, 2013). The CCSS and assessment of teacher implementation and student learning require that faculty receive in-service training on the standards, how assessment will occur (for both teachers and students), and what changes must be made to effect positive outcomes.

Although Opre, Zaharie, and Opre (2008) were referring to higher education, their descriptions of universal elements for professional development are applicable to most in-service teacher education structures. Their ultimate goal of increasing quality instruction is predicated on several ideals. Programs must reinforce the individual instructor’s capacity for emotional intelligence (Justice & Espinoza, 2007), self-awareness and reflective practice. Student feedback regarding instructional innovation should be used, at least partially, to evaluate success. Peer review, when possible, is a very worthwhile assessment mechanism. Organizational collaboration and support (principals, school districts, state departments of education) are essential (Halliday & Moses, 2013). Outside constituents, trained to provide development and vested in the success of the activities, might best deliver programming. Furthermore, efficacy of the development activities will be dependent on a number of factors, including faculty motivation to learn, and the paradigm change that underlies the necessary modification of instructional practice (Jenkins & Agamba, 2012). In the case of implementing CCSS, student improvement in Math and ELA skill and the need for standards-based
curriculum, instruction, and assessment are the primary drivers for professional development activities. Staff development in rural, low socio-economic school districts has historically provided both significant challenges and rewarding outcomes (Ullman, 2010; Hare, 1991). One challenge is the unattractive nature of rural schools. As teachers move from education programs to in-service positions, they are more likely to work in schools that have greater resources, including staff support mechanisms (Howley, 1991). Additionally, the focus on improving scores of high stakes tests while enacting cost reduction strategies (leading to further instructor emigration), compounds the difficulties for rural districts (Hartman, 2013).

Design and Evaluation

The Intervention

During the summers of 2012 and 2013 Marshall University's College of Education and Professional Development implemented programs funded by Improving Teacher Quality grants from United States Office of Education. Both grants focused on professional development activities designed to increase teachers’ ability to implement and assess the CCSS. The 2012 project concentrated on enhancing teacher knowledge and comfort level relative to the CCSS. Year two (2013) provided for staff development focused on providing classroom instructors with the knowledge and skills needed to implement and assess standards-based curriculum in ELA and mathematics. The Clay County staff development activities were driven by multiple factors. Because of unsatisfactory learning benchmarks, the school district began comprehensive strategies to improve student learning through increases in instructor skill and knowledge. Aside from the workshop that is the subject of this paper, teachers attended conferences and employed a number of programs aimed at improvements in ELA and mathematics performance. Training in implementing CCSS-based instructional platforms and learning measures using Smarter Balanced Assessment (adopted in 2014) were identified as a necessity. Seven educational outcomes were identified as essential to the Institute:

1. Deepen participants’ knowledge of the Next Generation of CSOs in English Language Arts and Math;
2. Master effective strategies for teaching a diverse classroom of learners;
3. Create materials that will address the different learning styles of a diverse classroom;
4. Develop a rationale for choosing specific strategies to address student needs;
5. Increase awareness of specific strategies that can be used to increase student readiness for college and careers;
6. Become familiar with strategies and skills that will improve student achievement in English Language Arts and Math; and
7. Become familiar with research-based strategies to assess the Next Generation CSOs.

The Summer Institute took place for five days in late July and early August of 2013. Teachers were trained to use statistics and educational technology to augment instructional strategies based on Next Generation CSOs and assessed with the SBAS. Participants were divided into two groups for most sessions. English Language Arts
instructors worked with Institute faculty with a goal of teaching and assessing students’ ability to increase command of more complicated texts through analysis, reflective writing, speaking and listening in groups, expansion of vocabulary, and use of technology. Institute faculty also guided the second group, primarily math instructors. The mathematics group was also introduced to higher order approaches to student learning, including applications to solve real world problems, including the use of Algebra, Geometry and models to find solutions for quantitative challenges. Daily, participants also constructed lesson plans for use in their classrooms. The paramount goal for both groups was to build instructional capability and self-confidence through improvements in teaching, and assessment of skill and knowledge. Two follow-up sessions were also conducted during the 2013-2014 school year. The sessions provided participants the opportunity to evaluate and discuss the strategies and techniques learned during the one-week Summer Institute.

Summer Institute Participants
The 2013 Summer Institute welcomed thirty-seven participants; all from the Clay County school system. The Clay County school district reports poverty levels above 75%. Thirty-six teachers worked directly with students in the classroom and one worked as a literacy coach. Twenty participants worked with middle school children, and seventeen worked with high school students. Eight participants were male and 29 were female. The participants used the Institute for credit toward salary increases and continuing education credit requirements.

Evaluation of the 2013 Summer Institute was comprehensive and multidimensional. Table 1 Illustrates the Institute objectives, data that were collected, the collection instrument, collection strategies, and the performance standards that indicate success. Self-reported demographic information was collected for all participants using the Participant ITQ Survey (PITQS). Three other surveys provided data regarding the efficacy of the Summer Institute.

The Summer Institute Assessment Questionnaire (SIAQ) asked all attendees to provide a Likert-scale response as to their increases in knowledge and skill resulting from attending the Summer Institute. The SIAQ also solicited participant satisfaction data relevant to various facets of the program. Finally, the ELA and math participants completed the Participant Evaluation Surveys (PES). The ELA and math groups responded to different statements relevant to the instructional goals for their respective area. Both instruments were administered before and after the Summer Institute to determine the extent of change in participant knowledge, skills, and ability to assess the CCSS. Participants were also encouraged to submit written comments about the experience.

Findings

Overall Impression to the Institute
SIAQ responses indicated that 84% of participants felt the Summer Institute increased their knowledge of the topics presented very well and 92%% felt the Institute increased their skills relative to the topics presented moderately or very well (refer to Table 2). Participants’ general impressions of the Institute were rated at 4.7 out of 5.0. The overall mean scores for all responses in the areas of instructional leaders, content, instructional
materials, and facilities were 4.8 out of 5.0. Preparation and organization were rated at 4.9 out of 5.0. Quality and usefulness of the Institute content were rated as 4.8 out of 5.0, and the quality of the materials were rated 4.9 out of 5.0 (refer to Table 3).

**Participant Concept Knowledge**
Improvements in attendee concept knowledge were a primary objective of the Summer Institute. Eleven critical ELA concepts and thirteen math concepts were identified as areas of need. Participants assessed levels of improvement relative to these concepts by completing pre and post institute surveys.

Pre-assessment and post-assessment data for E/LA concepts responses reflected gains in knowledge for all 11 ELA concepts. A paired-samples t-test indicated these differences were statistically significant at p< .05 for six of the 11 concepts. Mean differences ranged from a low of .22 to a high of 1.51. Pre-test means ranged from 2.80 to 4.16. All post-test means were 4.31 or higher. The largest gains were reported for concepts related to integrating media based instructional assessment resources, producing written arguments using valid reasoning and sufficient evidence, and producing clear and coherent writing.

Pre-assessment and post-assessment data for the 13 math indicated increases in mean scores for nine of the 13 concepts. A paired-samples t-test indicated these differences were statistically significant at p< .05 for only one of the 13 concepts. Pre-assessment mean scores ranged from a low of 3.75 to a high of 4.67. Post-assessment scores ranged from a low of 3.73 to a high of 4.55. One concept, the use of functions to model relationships between quantities, had a post-assessment score of less than 3.75.

**Participant Ability to Teach Concepts**
The second institute objective was to increase participant ability to teach key ELA and math concepts. Participants completed a self-report assessment before and after the Institute.

Pre-assessment and post-assessment data for the 11 ELA concepts revealed gains in ability to teach on all 11 concepts. A paired-samples t-test indicates these differences were all statistically significant at p< .05. Mean differences ranged from a low of .40 to a high of .91. Pre-assessment means ranged from 3.24 to 3.68 and post-assessment means ranged from a low of 4.04 to a high of 4.31. The largest gains were on concepts related to producing written arguments using valid reasoning and sufficient evidence and, recognizing the author's purpose and constructing meaning using informational text.

Pre-assessment and post-assessment results for the ability to teach the identified math concepts signified gains on 12 of the 13 concepts. A paired-samples t-test found no statistically significant differences between pre-assessment and post-assessment scores for any of the 13 concepts. Pre-assessment mean scores ranged from a low of 3.27 to a high of 4.27. Post-assessment scores ranged from a low of 3.64 to a high of 4.36. Mean difference scores ranged from 0 to a high of .45. The highest post-assessment mean scores were for concepts related to understanding ratio concepts and the use of ratio reasoning to solve problems (M = 4.36), analyzing proportional relationships and using them to solve problems (M = 4.36), and knowing there are numbers that are not rational and how to appropriate them (M = 4.36).
Participant Ability to Assess Key Concepts
The third major objective of the Institute was to increase participants’ ability to assess learning relative to the key E/LA and math concepts. Participants completed a self-report survey before and after the Institute.
Pre-assessment and post-assessment data related to the ability to assess the 11 ELA concepts indicated gains in the ability to assess on each of the 11 concepts. A paired-samples t-test indicated all of these gains were statistically significant at p< .05. Mean differences ranged from a low of .72 to a high of 1.24. Pre-assessment means ranged from a low of 2.92 to a high of 3.20 with means for eight of the 11 concepts at 2.96 or lower. Post-assessment means ranged from 3.77 to 4.08 with six of the eleven at 3.96 or lower. The lowest post-assessment mean scores were for concepts related to applying comprehension skills using informational text to draw conclusions and predict outcomes (M = 3.77) and, producing text for a range of audiences/purposes based on analysis, reflection, and research (M = 3.81).
Pre-assessment and post-assessment data related to the ability to assess the 12 math concepts reflected gains in ability to assess from pre-assessment to post-assessment on all 12 concepts. A paired-samples t-test found these differences to be statistically significant for three of the 12 concepts. Pre-assessment mean scores ranged from a low of 3.42 to a high of 3.67. Post-assessment mean scores ranged from a low of 3.91 to a high of 4.18. Mean differences ranged from a low of .33 to a high of .59.

Total Knowledge, Teaching and Assessment Scores
Total concept knowledge, ability to teach, and ability to assess pre-assessment and post-assessment scores were calculated and compared for both E/LA and math concepts. Results indicate gains between pre-assessment and post-assessment for total knowledge, teaching and assessment scores for E/LA. Paired-samples t-tests found these differences to be statistically significant at p< .05. Responses from math participants reflected gains between pre-assessment and post-assessment, however, the mean differences were not statistically significant.

Implications
Research documents a number of positive outcomes that are associated with comprehensive professional development activities aimed at in-service teachers. As standards-based instruction and assessment mechanisms are implemented, professional development provides increases in content knowledge, instructional skill, and assessment capabilities. Regardless of the discipline, the lessons learned from professional development translate to positive student performance, greater understanding of content, and improved problem solving skills. As teachers share their experiences from professional development with colleagues, gains in knowledge, skill and assessment are sustained, leading to exponential increases in the use of strategies learned through professional development, even by those not directly involved.
Conclusions
The findings from the 2013-2014 Improving Teacher Quality project suggest that targeted professional development can make a difference in advancing teacher knowledge and skill for teaching and assessing in a standards-based environment. Because educators cannot be expected to teach what they do not know, content-specific, comprehensive professional development is essential to the implementation of standards-based instructional approaches in West Virginia classrooms and beyond.

References


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation Objectives</th>
<th>Data to be Collected</th>
<th>Instrument/Data Collection Strategy</th>
<th>Performance Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Determine change in teacher concept knowledge relative to the Next Generation of CSOs</td>
<td>Pre-post and interim measures of teacher content knowledge</td>
<td>Participant Self-Assessment developed and administered as pre-post survey of Summer Institute.</td>
<td>Participants will demonstrate growth in content knowledge between pre and post assessments; post assessments will reflect 15% increase in teacher content knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Determine impact of teacher participation in Summer Institute on instructional practice</td>
<td>Observation, interview and self-report.</td>
<td>Administration of evaluator developed Implementation/Impact Checklist at formal follow up group sessions and in on-site visits.</td>
<td>95% of participants will provide examples of positive impact of Summer Institute on instructional practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Determine the impact of teacher participation in Summer Institute on other teachers/curriculum/instructional practices in their school</td>
<td>Self-report data; interview data.</td>
<td>Administration of evaluator developed Implementation/Impact Checklist at formal follow up group sessions and in on-site visits</td>
<td>95% of participants will provide examples of positive impact of Summer Institute on other teachers/curriculum/instructional practices at their school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Determine quality of institute content, adequacy of setting, and adequacy of instructional strategies</td>
<td>Participant self-report data; evaluator observations</td>
<td>A Summer Institute Assessment Questionnaire (SIAQ) was developed by the evaluator and administered at the end of the Summer Institute</td>
<td>Participants will report an average score of 4.75 (on a 5 point scale) on each item in the SIAQ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2
Participant Evaluation of Clay County Summer Institute: Summer 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institute Characteristic</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. General Impression of Institute</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Instruction of Leaders</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Preparation/organization</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Effectiveness/communication</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Effectiveness/motivation</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Pacing</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Diversity of teaching strategies</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Class management</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Quality</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Usefulness</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Grade level appropriate</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Quality</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adaptability</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Diversity/variety</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Facilities</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1 = Poor; 2 = Fair; 3 = Average; 4 = Good; 5 = Excellent
N = 37

Table 3
Participant Perceptions of Summer Institute Knowledge and Skills Increase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Question</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Did the workshop (institute) increase your knowledge relative to the topic(s) presented?</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Did the workshop (institute) increase your skills relative to the topic(s) presented?</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1 = Not at All; 2 = Somewhat; 3 = Moderately; 4 = Very well
N = 37
HIV Awareness and Risky Sexual Behaviors among African American College Students

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Abstract
Young adults, especially those attending college, have an increased incidence of HIV infection. This pattern of increased HIV incidence has been associated with the college students’ common participation in risky sexual behaviors. The student researcher aimed to discover if HIV awareness influences safer sexual practices among college aged students. A sample of 39 students at a Southern Historically Black College and University voluntarily participated in the study. They were administered the (1) International AIDS Questionnaire and the (2) Sexual Behavior Questionnaire. Results were analyzed using the Independent Samples Test. Both groups showed little HIV awareness and results indicate that there is no significant difference between the participants who received an awareness intervention and students who did not receive the intervention. The results of the current study show little impact of HIV awareness on college students’ sexual behaviors. The many limitations of the current study warrant further investigation on this topic.

Introduction
Over the past three decades society has been impacted by HIV and AIDS. In recent years HIV infection rates have increased and the virus is now being considered an epidemic. Thousands of people contract the disease every year and millions are living with it worldwide. There is currently no known cure for HIV or AIDS. However, due to new medications, people have been living longer with HIV and it is now taking longer for HIV to develop into full blown AIDS.

HIV affects every gender, race, ethnicity, and class. However, young people between the ages of 15 and 24 account for half of all new HIV infections (UNAIDS, 2004) and are considered to be disproportionally affected by the virus. Many college students are becoming involved in behaviors that put them at a greater risk of contracting HIV. The college environment gives many young adults a sense of independence that allows them to explore a wider range of sexual behaviors. This includes infrequent condom use and having sex with multiple partners. Risky sexual behaviors are more common to college age students because they usually occur under the influence of drugs and/or alcohol (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004). Safe sex practices (e.g., using condoms and having one sexual partner) significantly decrease the risk of contracting HIV. Unfortunately, these behaviors are not frequent in all college age students.

A significant problem among college students is a lack of HIV awareness, which is detrimental to the slowing of the spread of HIV. The only way to decrease new infection rates is to make people more aware of the disease. Being more aware of HIV should help people better protect themselves. To be aware of HIV means knowing what HIV is and how it affects the body. It also means knowing how the disease is contracted and knowing the ways to be protected from the disease.

Therefore, the current study will examine if HIV awareness influences safer sexual practices among college students. The students’ current level of awareness will be measured along with their current sexual practices. This investigation will determine how aware the individuals are and if more awareness will be able to influence their sexual behaviors.
Literature Review

HIV Awareness

Studies suggest that a lack of knowledge of HIV is a major reason for the continued prevalence of the disease. A study conducted by Johnson, Gilbert, and Lollis (1994) discovered that African American college students diagnosed with HIV/AIDS showed little awareness, especially in modes of transmission. For example, a study conducted by the CDC on black male college students in North Carolina who had homosexual encounters discovered that most felt immune to HIV and believed that their partners physical characteristics would determine their HIV status (CDC, 2004).

The most used method to get awareness out to young people is through the media. Throughout history young adults have repeatedly been influenced by propaganda through the media. However, studies suggest that many popular media outlets, especially music videos, promote irresponsible sexual behavior that influences young people (Khosrovani, Desai, & Sanders, 2011).

Coincidentally, infection rates are still rising. This is partly because of people not knowing their HIV status. In 2008 there were 1.1 million people living with HIV in the United States, and one out of five of these individuals did not know their current HIV status (Campsmith, Rhodes, Hall, & Green, 2008). Many people have never been tested for HIV and this only adds to increase of infection rates. The CDC estimates that 55% of all US adults, ages 18-64, have never been tested for HIV. Also 66% of young adults, 18-24, have never been tested even though their diagnosis rate is similar to adults (Johnson et al., 2010). The American College Association (2010) conducted a study at 57 post-secondary institutions on HIV testing rates. Students were surveyed and a mere 24% reported having been tested at least once in their lifetime. However, HIV testing rates among other colleges have shown a range from 10% to 58% (Bontempi, Mugno, Bulmer, Danvers, & Vancour, 2009; Buhi, Marhefka, & Hoban, 2010; Crosby, Miller, Staten, & Noland, 2005; Marelich & Clark, 2004; Scholly, Katz, Gascoigne, & Holck, 2005; Thomas et al., 2008; Trieu, Modeste, Marshak, Males, & Bratton, 2010). This lack of testing brings to attention just how unaware individuals are about HIV/AIDS.

College Students

It was estimated that 34 million people were living with HIV worldwide and that there were 2.7 million new cases of HIV infection in 2010. People ages 15-24 account for 42% of all new HIV infections worldwide (UNAIDS, 2010). Based on a study conducted in 19 American universities it was discovered that 1 in 500 college students are infected with HIV. A sexual partner network investigation conducted by Hightow et al. (2005) in the southern United States discovered 37 newly diagnosed male college students linked between 21 colleges, 61 students, and 8 partners. In the past HIV awareness was mainly targeted toward homosexual males; however, heterosexuals are now experiencing higher rates of infection (CDC, 2004).

This sexual network is partly to blame for the rising HIV infections. A study conducted by Ferguson, Quinn, and Eng (2006) on HBCU campuses discovered that a gender ratio imbalance put many students at risk for contracting HIV. There are generally fewer male students on a college campus, which enables them to have multiple female sexual partners. Having multiple sexual partners puts individuals at a heightened risk of becoming infected with HIV.
African Americans
In 2004, African-Americans represented 74% of all heterosexuals diagnosed with HIV (CDC, 2004). In 2009, African Americans comprised a mere 14% of the US population but accounted for 44% of all new HIV infections (CDC, 2012). There have been many studies (Nunn et al., 2012, Kennedy & Jenkins, 2011) that investigated this disproportionate incidence of HIV infection.

At the start of the millennium there was an HIV outbreak among black college males in North Carolina. 53 young men contracted the virus. HIV cases in Durham, Wake, and Orange County were investigated between January 2001 and February 2003. It was discovered that 146 men and 88 women had been diagnosed with HIV, and out of those men, 25 were students and 88% were black males who had sex with men. Data was also analyzed from Guilford, Forsyth, Mecklenburg, and Pitt County and researchers found that 28 college students had been infected within two years. A disproportionate amount of these students attended HBCUs in North Carolina ("Researches find", 2003).

Risky Sexual Behavior
A 1997 study conducted by Lewis, Malow, and Ireland suggested that college students possessed a hedonistic attitude surrounding sexual activities, regardless of HIV awareness levels. Studies have also discovered that college students involved in risky sexual behavior have little concern about their risk of becoming infected and that awareness does not necessarily predict safer sexual practices (Opt & Loffredo, 2004; Ajuluchukwu, Crumey, & Faulk, 1999).

Risky sexual behavior is more likely to take place under the influence of drugs and alcohol. Each year about 11% of full-time college students have unprotected sex under the influence of alcohol (American College Health Association, 2010). It was also discovered that 43.5% of college student’s routinely engaged in binge drinking and another 22.7% used illicit drugs (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2010).

It is important to HIV prevention that healthy college students are aware of the risks involved in their sexual practices. If they continue to conceptualize HIV to only exist among certain populations, “the others,” they will underestimate their risk of becoming infected. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to address concerns related to HIV awareness among college students and assess whether knowledge about HIV transmission would impact sexual behaviors. It was hypothesized that HIV awareness will influence safer sexual practices among college students.

Method
Sample
The participants included 38 (8 males and 30 females) students from a Southern Historically Black College and University in the age range of 18 to 29 years. The mean age was 21.34 years. The majority of the students were seniors (42.1%), followed by juniors (28.9%), and then sophomores 23.7%). There were no freshman participants. All participants were registered for upper level biology classes and most were biology majors.
Instruments

Demographics. Demographic information was obtained using questions addressing ethnicity, gender, age, and college classification.

International AIDS Questionnaire– English Version (IAQ-E; Davis, Tang, Chan, & Noel, 1999). The instrument that was used to assess HIV awareness was the International AIDS Questionnaire– English Version (IAQ-E). The IAQ-E was initially developed in English and then translated to Chinese. This scale consists of 18 statements that measure four dimensions of HIV awareness. Factor one, transmission myths was measured using seven items such as ‘HIV can be spread through coughing and sneezing.’ Factor two, attitudes/prejudice, was measured using five items such as ‘People with HIV should be kept out of school’. Factor three, personal risk, was measured using three items such as ‘AIDS only affects intravenous (IV) drug users, prostitutes, and homosexuals.’ Factor four, facts, was measured using three items such as ‘Condoms will decrease the risk of HIV transmission’ (See Appendix A). Each item was measured using a Likert scale type question. Responses ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5(Strongly agree). Scores ranged from 18 to 90 and low scores indicate that the subject has great HIV awareness. Four of the items are reverse coded (items 10, 16, 17, & 18).

Risky Sexual Behavior. The instrument that was utilized to assess risky sexual behaviors was developed by the student investigator and advisor. The measure required each participant to respond how often they participated in each item over the last 30 days. Sexual acts included vaginal, anal, and oral (with or without a condom). There was also a question that assessed how often the participant had sexual intercourse under the influence of drugs and/or alcohol. Higher scores represented a higher level of risky sexual behavior (see Appendix B).

Procedure

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The sampling procedure for the current research study was a convenient sample. Professors within the Biology department were contacted via email, identifying the nature of the study and requesting class time to conduct the study. Once permission was given, the researcher went into the classrooms and conducted the study. The researcher was given access to two classes and randomly selected which would be the experimental group and which would be the control group. The intervention given to the experimental group consisted of a Power Point presentation on HIV. The presentation consisted of information on how HIV can be contracted, prevention methods, worldwide and national statistics, and a video found on YouTube about young people contracting the virus. This intervention lasted about 10 minutes. The data for this study were collected through a survey that included two questionnaires: (1) International AIDS Questionnaire and (2) Sexual Behavior Questionnaire. The questionnaires involve answering some general demographic questions, questions about HIV awareness and attitude, and questions about sexual behavior. The experimental group received the pre assessment consisting of the two questionnaires and then received the intervention presentation. After four weeks the researcher returned and distributed the post assessment that consisted of the same two questionnaires. The control group received the pre assessment and the
researcher returned in four weeks to distribute the post assessment. The control group did not receive the intervention presentation.

**Results**

The mean scores for the post-assessment on HIV Awareness for the non-intervention and intervention groups were 1.48 (sd=0.33) and 1.79 (sd=0.55) respectively. The differences in the means of the two variables were confirmed with the Independent Samples Test. The analysis showed no significance, p=0.207. The alpha level was set at 0.05 and the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

The mean scores for the post-assessment on Sexual Practices for the non-intervention and intervention groups were 0.51 (sd=0.78) and 0.39 (sd=0.91) respectively. The data was again analyzed using the Independent Samples Test and there was no significance between the non-intervention group and the intervention group. The p value was 0.783 and the alpha level was again set at 0.05. Once again the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Discussion**

The results indicate that participants were not influenced by HIV Awareness. A significant difference did not exist between participants who received the intervention of HIV Awareness and those who did not receive the intervention. There are several plausible explanations for the lack of significant findings. One possible explanation for the lack of significance is that the majority of the sample consisted of biology majors. It is possible that these students had sufficient prior awareness of HIV and the intervention did not change their level of knowledge about the subject. Future research should seek a sample of students from many different majors and classifications to obtain more diverse participants. The current study used a relatively small sample size that does not properly depict the opinions or behaviors of the population. There was also a short period between the pre and post assessments, four weeks, which may not be able to properly analyze a change in sexual behaviors. More research should be done to determine the proper time between each assessment in order to depict a true change in behavior. Although baseline data was taken in the form of an initial pre-assessment, this data was not analyzed, contributing to an inability to determine initial level of awareness to fully evaluate if the intervention made a difference.

The format of the Sexual Behavior Questionnaire relied on the participants to recall their past sexual activities, which could have impacted the reliability of the answers. The Sexual Behavior Questionnaire should be changed to a Likert scale format to not rely on specific answers. Also, the classroom setting leaves to question reliability as well. The seats were close together and the student researcher noticed that some participants seemed uncomfortable while answering the questions. It is possible that they were not completely honest due to the fact that others were able to see their responses.

Although the current study failed to render significant results, it still emphasizes the importance of further research in this area. HIV rates continue to rise on college campuses and risky sexual behaviors continue to be a contributing factor. As suggested by Kanekar and Sharma (2010), an awareness and understanding about HIV transmission, as well as abstinence, can be society’s biggest defense against the
spread of HIV. Yet, educating students may not be the only solution. Lack of findings may suggest that more will have to be done to mitigate the incidence of contracting HIV. The majority of college students have at least been introduced to HIV, whether through media, school, or healthcare visits. Further research should be done to investigate other avenues that may influence safer sexual practices among college students.

It is essential that this study be conducted again under better circumstances. The results could offer invaluable information to those individuals combating HIV/AIDS infection among college students and perhaps others as well.

References


APPENDIX 1
INTERNATIONAL AIDS QUESTIONNAIRE-ENGLISH
VERSION (IAQ-E)

Please mark the column that best represents your degree of agreement to each of the items below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Don’t Know</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. HIV can be spread through coughing and sneezing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. AIDS can be contracted through sharing cigarettes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. HIV/AIDS can be spread through hugging an infected person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. HIV can be transmitted through the air</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. HIV can be spread through swimming pools.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. HIV can be contracted through toilet seats.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mosquitoes can transmit HIV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. People with HIV should be kept out of school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I would end my friendship if my friend had AIDS.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I am willing to do volunteer work with AIDS patients.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. If a family member contracts HIV he/she should move out.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. People with HIV should stay home or in a hospital.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Blacks are less susceptible of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

274
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contracting AIDS than other ethnic groups.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. AIDS only affects intravenous (IV) drug users, prostitutes, and homosexuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. You can protect yourself against AIDS by being vaccinated for it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Condoms will decrease the risk of HIV transmission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. HIV can be transmitted from mother to baby.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. HIV is spread through infected sperm.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Items number reversed scored: 10, 16, 17, 18.*

**FACTORS: Transmission Myths (Items 1-7); Attitudes: (Items 8-12); Personal Risk (Items 13-15); Facts (items 16-18).
APPENDIX 2
RISKY SEXUAL BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE
Please circle the number that best represents how often you participate in each of the items below.

Sexual Behavior Questionnaire
Please put the appropriate number (as far as you remember) of occurrences of the particular behaviors listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Past 30 Days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unprotected Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercourse without a condom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Oral Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving Oral Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex with a stranger (e.g. one night stand)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex in exchange for favors (e.g. homework)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex for money &amp;/or drugs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol immediately before sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs immediately before sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anal Sex without a condom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving Anal Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Anal Sex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homosexual Intercourse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Partners Simultaneously</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Motown Goes Global: The Rise of Liuzhou, China and the State of Alabama in the Motor Vehicle Manufacturing Sector

Joshua Zender
Rongrong Chen (Student)
Lijun Zhang (Student)
Central Washington University
Abstract

This study explores the burgeoning motor vehicle manufacturing sector within the southeastern regions of China and the United States. An in-depth examination is conducted of the strategies the respective governments have offered to encourage development and attract international (i.e., non-domestic) automotive firms to operate within their territories. While operating under two distinct political governance structures, a number of similarities can be found in the various economic development strategies assembled by political leadership, as well as the resulting impacts of these investments within the local economies. The findings illustrate the effective combination of financial incentives to attract foreign investment firms, integrated supply-chains, and adaptive workforce development strategies can lead to notable economic expansion in specific industry sectors.

Introduction

At one time the most dominant automobile producer within the world, American motor vehicle manufacturing has been in a steady decline. The industry was hit particularly hard in the most recent global recession. The largest American automaker, General-Motors, was brought to the brink of bankruptcy and the industry as a whole suffered the loss of tens of thousands of jobs between 2006 through 2009. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014), Michigan, the largest automobile production center within the U.S., lost more than 67,100 jobs between 1990 and 2008. Despite this negative trend, one anomaly in the data is coming from an unlikely source, the State of Alabama. Alabama has managed to attract some of the world’s premier automakers. Consequently, car production activity has exploded. Employment in motor vehicle manufacturing in the state has grown from a modest 400 jobs in 1990 to over 10,200 in 2010. Alabama success can be linked in part to affordable labor, lavish tax incentives, and specialized workforce technical training programs offered by the state government to lure foreign investment.

While Alabama’s entrance into the motor vehicle market has been impressive, this growth has been eclipsed by Chinese activities. China is now the largest automobile producer in the world producing nearly one-fourth of all cars (OICA, 2010). In an effort to accommodate demand, several large foreign-owned enterprises, including General Motors, Ford, Kia, BMW, Volkswagen, Toyota, and Hyundai, have established joint ventures with private Chinese automobile companies and state-owned enterprises (Zhang, 2001). The recent growth in China follows a long-term trend in the motor industry, whereby industrializing countries are focused on expanding local production capabilities, as opposed to importing vehicles from the developed world (Hong and Helweg, 2005). One of the fastest growing manufacturing areas in China is found in the southeastern subtropical section of the country. With waterway access to Guangzhou and Hong Kong, the City of Liuzhou is rapidly evolving into one of the most important national motor vehicle and parts producers within China. As an ASEAN trade partner, the City is investing billions into the development of a state of the art industrial zone, larger in land area than Manhattan, dedicated exclusively to motor vehicle design and production (Guangxi Liuzhou Motor City Master Plan, 2011).
Research Aim

Given the growth experienced in automobile production within Liuzhou and Alabama, this study seeks to explore the economic development strategies being utilized within the respective regions. More specifically, what strategies are being deployed to encourage growth of motor vehicle manufacturing? How sustainable is this growth? What opportunities await these two regions?

As reflected in Figure 1, Liuzhou and Alabama hold a number of similarities with regard to auto production capacity. While the geographical dispersion of their plants varies, both regions are achieving comparable auto production levels. Both governments have relied heavily upon attracting foreign-owned enterprise investment to encourage industrial development. Furthermore, each jurisdiction is governed by a single dominant political party. While China is controlled by the Communist Party, Alabama is led by the Republican Party. The Governor, Robert Bentley (R), enjoys the luxury of supermajority rule in both chambers of state legislature (62% respectively) and all nine State Supreme Court justices are currently affiliated with the Republican Party. The majority of U.S. representatives and senators from the state are also affiliated with the Republican Party. Not surprisingly, the Republicans within the state have been successful at promoting a conservative agenda, favoring a limited role of government and creating favorable policies for private businesses. Meanwhile, Chinese leadership has been aggressive at continuing to advance Deng Xiaoping’s “Four Modernizations” since lifting import restrictions in 1978 under its open-door trade policy.

Given these similarities, Liuzhou and Alabama are ideal candidates for the case study comparison approach. “As a research methodology, the case study is used in many situations to contribute to our knowledge of individual, group, organizational, social, political, and related phenomena” (Yin, 2003, p. 1). In many respects, the automobile industry is still in its early stages of development in these regions. Therefore, the case study approach is more appropriate than a longitudinal analysis at this stage. According to Yin (2003), case studies can be used to determine “how” and “why” a program worked (p. 7) and help to derive “analytical generalizations” (p. 10) where existing quantitative data proves insufficient.

History

Liuzhou’s story as an automobile manufacturing center can be traced back to the Vietnam War era where heavy and medium trunk plants were established to equip the North Vietnamese military. Apart from truck production “there was virtually no passenger car production in China until about 1975” (Hulwig, Lou, and Oliver, 2008, p. 2). After 40 years of economic development, the automobile industry is now the largest and fastest growing industry in Liuzhou’s economy. Figure 2 highlights the rapid growth in automobile production levels within the City. According to the Plan of the Liuzhou Automobile Industry (2010), the gross output value of automobile industry accounted for 43% of the city's total industrial output in 2009. In that same year, auto production surpassed one million, making Liuzhou the fourth largest automaker in the nation. There are four major automotive groups in Liuzhou: 1) Shanghai Automotive Industry Corporation (SAIC), 2) First Auto Work (FAW), 3) Dongfeng Automobile (DFM), and 4) National Heavy Duty Truck Co., Ltd. (SINOTRUK). The most iconic vehicle produced within the region is the Wuling minivan. With a 40% market share, this product has led
minivan sales for the past four years within the country.

The latest chapter in Liuzhou’s car making history is an ambitious plan to construct a modern “Motor City,” an industrial zone, encompassing approximately 200 square kilometers, dedicated exclusively to automobile production activities (Jian Wang, Jizhao Li, 2011). The “Motor City” will be zoned in sectors for specific industrial activities including: vehicle production, research and development, auto repair and testing, trade and financing, a grand exhibition area, educational & training facilities, and living quarters (Liuzhou Planning Bureau, 2011). Figure 3 highlights key industrial sectors within the zone. According to statements made by Liuzhou government officials in 2011, goals of the project include reaching production capacity of 3.5 million vehicles with total output value of about ¥600 billion by 2030.

Alabama’s emergence into the motor vehicle manufacturing sector is even more recent than Liuzhou. According to the Alabama Economic Partnership of Alabama (2009), the state produced no vehicles in 1996. Two decades later nearly one million vehicles are being produced each year. The first step undertaken by state officials to attract foreign business was an announcement that the Confederate flag would be taken down at the state capitol, a sign that the state was prepared to take all steps necessary to rebrand its image. A few months after this historic event, in 1993, Mercedes announced its M-Class series would be built in Alabama. However, the plant did not come without a price. Alabama persuaded Mercedes-Benz by offering the luxury-car maker “over $253 million worth of incentives -- $169,000 for every job Mercedes promised the state” (Brooks, 2002). Taxpayers considered the arrangement such a bad deal they voted then-Governor, Jim Folsom, out of office long before the first car rolled off the new Mercedes assembly line in 1997. In the long run, the deal may not have been such a negative. Based on research performed by the Alabama Economic Partnership of Alabama (2009), the Mercedes plant in Vance, AL produces over 180,000 sports-utility vehicles (M Class, R-Class, GL-Class, and C Class) and employs nearly 2,000 workers today. The economic multiplier effect is significant. Two additional foreign automakers would follow suit shortly after witnessing the success of Mercedes-Benz.

Honda selected Alabama to build the Odyssey minivan in 1999 and two years later announced a $425 million expansion crossing the one billion mark for total investment within the state. Today, the plant produces over 300,000 vehicles annually, the Honda Odyssey, Honda Pilot, Honda Ridgeline, Acura MDX, and employs over 2,000 employees. However, the state’s largest automobile production facility is found in Montgomery, AL, where the first cars started rolling off the production line in 2006. Hyundai Motors has invested over $1.5 billion dollars into state of the art manufacturing facilities and produces over 400,000 cars. According to a projection by Economic Modeling Specialists Inc. (2014), Alabama’s auto industry will expand 2 percent this year, while total U.S. auto industry employment will contract 4 percent. With three major automobile manufacturers, over 350 motor vehicle suppliers, other major auto producers near the state’s border, the State of Alabama has firmly positioned itself as the new geographic center for Southern automobile manufacturing (see Figure 4).

Economic Development Strategies

In addition to sharing similar demographic characteristics, Liuzhou and Alabama have employed closely related economic development strategies in luring foreign-
owned companies to invest in their automobile sector. Both regions have focused on “third wave” and “fourth wave” economic development strategies that focus on building industry clusters as a means for competing in a global market. Under these models, governments offer economic incentives, seed capital, and provide general direction to businesses, but allow local commerce groups to coordinate direct development efforts. Emphasis in both regions focuses on offering cheap skilled labor along with modern infrastructure to attract manufacturing firms and create the conditions for competitive development. In the subsequent sections, the following three economic development strategies are examined in greater detail:

1. Offer generous financial incentives
2. Integrate supply-chains
3. Optimize workforce development programs

**Strategy #1: Offer Generous Financial Incentives**

Alabama has taken a two-pronged approach to luring foreign investment: 1) offer generous tax incentive packages to private companies; and, 2) create favorable labor market conditions for businesses. In the early stages of the economic development, Alabama viewed itself as a borrower with poor credit due to its poor social infrastructure (see Bowman and Kearney (2011), who note Alabama historically ranks low in education, health care, and environmental standards in relation to other states). As a consequence, state officials felt that generous tax incentives were needed to be offered to attract foreign investment in similar fashion as borrower with poor credit would need to pay higher interest rates (Brooks, 2002).

When luring all three major automakers to the state, Alabama offered a package of tax concessions that allowed these companies to pay for construction of its plants with money that would otherwise have been spent on state income taxes. As a positive-law tradition state, many of these special tax preferences are enumerated within the state constitution; thus, providing a high degree of confidence and stability to prospective investors. Figure 5 highlights some of the major tax incentives offered under Alabama tax law.

In addition to these major tax incentive programs, the state also offers a wide range of other tax credit and abatement programs that are favorable to business owners, including a: net operating loss carry forward tax deduction, full employment tax credit, heroes for hire tax credit, new markets tax credit, made in Alabama job incentives tax credit, federal income tax deduction, enterprise zone tax credit, and industrial revenue bonds. Moreover, the state maintains the lowest corporate income tax rate of any other state in the southeastern United States, at 4.5% (Alabama Department of Revenue, 2014). The state consistency ranks high in providing a business-friendly climate and maintains one of the lowest tax burdens of any state within the United States (Bowman and Kearney, 2011).

In addition to favorable tax incentives, the Republican dominated lawmakers have gone to great lengths to create labor laws that are favorable to the business community. The state is one of the first states in America to have passed “right to work” measures that place limits on unions’ ability to organize strikes and daunt employees abilities to join labor organizations. Recent legislative measures have only strengthened existing laws by prohibiting union dues as a condition of employment and
limiting organized activities at the job site. One of the more controversial laws recently enacted has been an Immigration Reform law. H.B. 56 was passed for the stated purpose of reducing unemployment due to the presence of undocumented immigrants. Sandoval (2013) notes that key elements of this law, include new requirements imposed on undocumented aliens, such as the need to carry proper identification and registration documents or face arrest. The measure also denies certain government benefits to illegal aliens. In an effort to eliminate the perception of public corruption, state lawmakers have also enacted a series of ethics reform laws. Hamill (2010) highlights this measure requires public officials to disclose all gifts of value or face independent investigations from the newly formed Alabama Ethics Commission; however, the law may not go far enough in terms of eliminating the potential for political corruption.

In a similar fashion to Alabama, government officials within Liuzhou have offered a series of incentive packages to promote the development of the Motor City. Political leaders consider the Motor City a historic opportunity and the act of offering financial incentives to spur its development are among their top priorities. Liuzhou Municipal Government planning documents (2011) highlight that development within the region will consist of a series of subprojects involving public-private economic partnerships among automobile manufacturers and auto part suppliers. Government funding has already been earmarked for special projects, including a small engineering technology research center, renewable energy vehicles project, auto parts testing center, and new lightweight materials incubator center. To encourage technology research and development, no less than 1.5% of the local government's revenues are being dedicated to promote these types of activities.

According to the SMELZ (2011), the Liuzhou government has committed a minimum of $50,000,000 yuan annually to support development of the automobile industry. Public projects include the construction of schools, hospitals, communities, and other public facilities. This grant funding will be used to encourage automobile manufacturers and auto part enterprises to promote technological progress, expand production capacity, establish independent intellectual property, and broaden marketing and branding efforts. Qualified enterprises can get support from government in forms of subsidized interest payments on loans. As the planning and development effort expands into the Guangxi autonomous region, provincial level financial support will also be offered to supplement these local incentives.

In addition to generous grant funding and public infrastructure investment activity, the government has established loan guarantee programs. The Liuzhou Credit Guarantee Company, a state-owned guarantee agency, has been set up to provide credit policy guarantees for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The Liuzhou Government provides over $20,000,000 yuan in loan guarantees to the Liuzhou Credit Guarantee Company, which in turn serves as a backstop to local banks lending to SMEs. According to one Guangxi News (2013) report, the Liuzhou Credit Guarantee Company has plans to expand the proportion and amount of credit guarantee to the automobile SMEs to encourage development within the Motor City.

**Strategy #2: Integrate Supply-Chains**

In both regions, the governments have focused on building an industry cluster (aka pillar industry) around motor vehicle manufacturing. Clusters are characterized as
institutions located in the same geographic area focused in a specific economic activity. “Clusters typically include end product or service companies, suppliers of specialized inputs, components, machinery, specialized services, financial institutions, and firms in related industries. Many clusters also include universities and other institutions providing specialized training, education, and research as well as trade associations” (Killingsworth and Harris, 2005, p. 99). Figure 6 highlights the interrelationship between goods and institutions within the supply-chain. As illustrated, governments in both countries have focused on creating linkages between raw materials, suppliers, and knowledge management institutes to support motor vehicle manufacturers.

In the case of Liuzhou, the initial failure to effectively create supply-chain linkages in this industry cluster served as the impetus for creating the “Motor City.” As the old auto manufacturing plants were located in residential communities, this former model splintered neighborhoods, led to high logistical costs and heavy traffic pressure. As a result, government officials elected to start from a blank slate by building a completely new industrial cluster area dedicated to the automobile industry in the northeastern outskirts of the City’s jurisdiction. According to the “Plan for the Motor City” (2010), automobile and auto parts manufacturers are the core industry, which is supported by industrial service businesses, such as technology development, logistics, industry incubation, trade groups, information service, and talent development. The City will also construct schools, hospitals, and other retail stores near the industrial center to support future residents. The “Motor City” is being considered the new engine of economic development and urban sprawl of Liuzhou.

Emphasis within both countries has been the adoption of lean production systems, which are designed to maximize efficiency and minimize waste. Given that both regions entrance into the motor vehicle market is more recent, represents a strategic advantage in that both countries are utilizing modern production facilities. Killingsworth, W.R. and Harris, G.A. (2009) find two-fold increases in truck, water, and rail traffic within the State of Alabama in the past decade, a critical component to the just-in-time (JIT) inventory systems being relied upon. Government documents in China highlight the importance of the Motor City offering state of the art facilities integrated fully with existing transportation infrastructure. Thus, these modern facilities and supply-chains have facilitated efficient, flexible, and competitive production.

Strategy #3: Optimize Workforce Development Programs

In addition to creating financial incentives for private business and enhancing existing supplier networks, the governments have made a concerted effort to develop a skilled and cost-effective workforce to differentiate themselves from other jurisdictions. Recent research on workforce development reveals that as a concept, the term is currently underdeveloped and therefore poorly understood; especially with respect to secondary and postsecondary education’s role in developing a region’s workforce. Workforce development often describes government boards, initiatives, and task forces – but not specific instructional or development activities (Jacob & Hawley, 2005, in press). As such, the line where traditional educational activities end and workforce development begins often remains unclear.

In the case of the State of Alabama, they have restructured and redefined existing educational system to focus on technical trades, including auto manufacturing...
skills. In 2007, Governor Riley issued Executive Order 36 for the purpose of streamlining and consolidating workforce and economic development within the State of Alabama. The first order of business for state officials was to refine the definition of the concept "as a planned and coordinated state effort to reduce societal roadblocks and equip individuals with the skills and capacities necessary for employment in a competitive, knowledge-based economy that readily links individuals to high skill and high wage job opportunities" (Zender, 2008). The state focused on better coordination of individual assessments, classroom-based instruction, institutional or field-based training, individual career assessment, and individual services to enhance one's employability in relation to the state's current economic needs in automobile manufacturing. As part of this effort, a number of previously disparate federal grants were aligned and coordinated under a central office accountable to the Governor (see Figure 7).

Alabama’s efforts to redefine educational priorities and target grant funding at specific industries appears to be initially paying off. Businesses committing to perform work within the state have cited workforce development as one of the key discerning factors in selecting the state to perform business. For instance, when luring Mercedes-Benz to the state, state officials agreed to build training facilities at the company’s plant and pay employees’ salaries while they were in training, at a cost of $45 million, to outmatch rival states. Mercedes cited this offer as being one of the principal reasons for selecting Alabama (Brooks, 2002).

Liuzhou has followed a similar path as Alabama by focusing on developing what government officials refer to as a “wisdom economy.” As opposed to merely training the workforce to perform basic production activities, many individuals are being trained in high-tech trades and/or being educated to become thought leaders. As reflected in government documents, such as the Notification on Setting Up Leading Group (2012), local political leaders are holding regular strategic planning meetings and discussing measures to solve the workforce development problems. The purpose of these meetings is to create a positive union between research, manufacturing, and sales activities. Further evidence of the government’s commitment to the “wisdom economy” is found in plans for a college vocational education park, now under construction, and the future advanced higher education complex within the “Motor City” industrial zone. By partnering local industry groups with universities, government officials are shaping the workforce for high-tech engineering and business trades.

**Future Progress**

In the near term, the strategies of both governments to expand automobile manufacturing operations and attract foreign-owned automobile producers appear to be paying dividends. Alabama’s automobile manufacturing base is among the fastest expanding auto production centers in the United States. Since 1998, motor vehicle and parts output per worker has increased over 83% (BEA, 2014). In the past ten years, manufacturing earnings have increased 9%; whereas, earnings growth across all sectors in Alabama grew at only 2% in constant dollars. In 2013, the average earnings of an auto manufacturing worker was $25.95 with a full range of health and retirement benefits, which is more than twice Alabama’s average hourly production wage of $11.81 (U.S. Census Bureau- Local Employment Dynamics, 2014). At a macro-economic level,
Alabama has been growing faster than its Southern peers and outpaced national economic growth, expanding at a rate of 2.4%. In early 2014, unemployment fell below 6% and export activity continued to climb. Approximately 35% of the state’s exports are cars (BEA, 2014). All major automobile makers within the State have announced plans to expand existing operations (Azok, 2014).

As reflected in the Plan of Liuzhou Automobile Industry (2010), economic progress within Liuzhou has been sizzling as well. The gross output value of automobile industry now accounts for more than 43% of the City’s total industrial output. Auto production crossed the one million mark in 2009. Since announcing plans for the new “Motor City,” some automobile producers, such as SAIC-GM-Wuling and Dongfeng Liuzhou Motor Co., have already been moving cars off the production line. The national automobile quality supervision test center, national detection laboratory for auto import and export, automobile college, schools, and hospitals have also been constructed. In short, economic activity is taking off within the “Motor City” industrial zone and car production is growing at an exponential rate.

With all these positive signs in the short-term, what remains to be seen is whether this economic progress can be sustained? If so, will this prosperity equate into greater progress on social and environmental fronts? Alternatively, will the governments have to continue diverting resources from social programs to remain competitive in the global automobile manufacturing market? Bowman and Kearney (2011) note Alabama remains home to some of the worst performing public schools and ranks among the least healthy states in the nation. While state officials have been assured that the creation of new jobs and full production lines will offer higher levels of tax revenues to solve many of these social problems, more empirical evidence will need to be gathered to determine if this is indeed the case. Past studies have been mixed on the cost-benefit factor of government incentives in these regions. After examining thirty years of data across twenty county, Gadzey, Thompson, and Yeboah (2005) find that industrial development subsidies result in clear costs, but unclear aggregate benefits.

China meanwhile struggles with environmental challenges associated with rapid industrial growth. China is the world’s largest emitter of CO₂ due to its reliance upon coal. While government officials have specifically earmarked resources towards implementing low carbon environmental protection measures to reduce this region’s carbon emission and are committed to developing automobile recycling centers to advance sustainability, additional data will need to be collected on whether these efforts are translating into better air quality and a cleaner environment. China will need to strike a balance between economic progress and environmental sustainability. Future research should focus on the long-term impacts these economic development strategies have had on the overall quality of life of local residents.
References
Leading Group. (2010). Notification on Setting up Liuzhou Leading Group of Motor City to Accelerate the Construction. *Governmental materials*


**APPENDIX**

**Figure 1:** A Comparison of Alabama to Liuzhou Motor Vehicle Production Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Alabama</th>
<th>Liuzhou</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>4,800,000</td>
<td>3,758,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sq. Miles</td>
<td>50,750</td>
<td>7,211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plants</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car Production in 2013</td>
<td>915,000</td>
<td>1,863,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto-Suppliers</td>
<td>350+</td>
<td>400+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-Owned Enterprises</td>
<td>Mercedes-Benz, Honda, Hyundai</td>
<td>General Motors, Nissan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Economic Incentives (U.S. $)</td>
<td>Over $1 billion</td>
<td>Over $500 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Party Unity</td>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>Communist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Figure 2:** Motor Vehicle Production Statistics- Liuzhou and Alabama

**Figure 3:** Motor City Zoning Plan


**Figure 4:** Concentration of Automobile Production within the United States

Source: U.S. Census Bureau (2014)
Figure 5: Tax Incentives Offered within the State of Alabama

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tax Credit / Loan Program</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Years of Eligibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capital Investment</td>
<td>Income tax credit up to 5% annually of initial capital costs.</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property Tax</td>
<td>Abatement of non-educational related property taxes</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales and Use Tax</td>
<td>Mortgage, construction-related and pollution control exempt.</td>
<td>No Limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Development</td>
<td>Grants to local governments to pay for site preparation.</td>
<td>No Limit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Alabama Department of Revenue (2014)

Figure 6: Building a Supply-Chain around Automotive Manufacturing (“Pillar Industries”)

Figure 7: Centralizing Federal Workforce Investment Funding in Alabama Agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Federal Funding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Economic and Community Development | ✓ Workforce Investment Act  
|                           | ✓ Rapid Response                                     
|                           | ✓ Employment and Training                                 |
| Education                | ✓ Career and Technical Education                             |
| Post-Secondary           | ✓ Perkins Adult Education                                    |
|                           | ✓ Industrial Training                                       |
| Industrial Relations     | ✓ Wagner-Peyser                                              |
| Rehabilitation Services  | ✓ Trade-Adjustment Act                                       |
|                           | ✓ Vocational Rehabilitation                                 |

Source: Zender (2008)
Changing Patterns of Governance:
IGR in China and the United States

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This short comparative exercise grew out of the introductory seminar of the MPA program for cohorts of mid-level administrators from Liuzhou City in southeastern China. As we began the investigation of intergovernmental relations (IGR) in the United States I presented short power point based on United States’ data from the core text of the program: Grover Starling (2011) Managing the Public Sector. As we discussed the relationships among the 80,000 governments in the United States, I asked the class how many governments there are in China. The result, after much effort, was a parallel slide show for China drawing heavily on: Changqiao Dai (2011) “The Comparison of Governance Structures between American and Chinese Local Governments”. The basic numbers were pretty easy to find and reconcile: for our 80,000 (+/-) count in the USA they found 40,000 (+/-) comparable governmental units in China.

Moving beyond the basics to questions of governmental and private sector employment, the scope and power of different types of units, their interactions and the changes in these relationships that are taking place in China as a result of recent reforms the project became a collaboration between the co-authors. The first numbers to emerge on the question of how many people work for the governments in the two systems were shocking and wrong. The first attempt at a comparable to the US ratio of 1:5 government to private employees came back 1:188.9 for China. Clearly something was wrong. After eliminating the obvious problem of the use of the entire population for China as opposed to only the working population for the USA, the ratio was still much lower for China. How could a system in which nearly everyone worked for the government a few decades ago have comparatively fewer public sector workers?

Sources in the field we found on closer examination to be based primarily on accepted wisdom and media reports contained mostly misinformation. So we were driven to the human resources data bases of the governments (OPM.gov, Census.gov, bls.gov and National Bureau of Statistics of China). As we poured over the categories in the two systems, it became clear that we needed a broader perspective that could cover the diversity and reconcile the differences between the two classificatory systems. Fortunately, this had been done for us and it was clearly articulated by Starling. We moved from thinking in terms of intergovernmental relations to intergovernmental governance or thinking of IGR as a system of governance.

Although it may or may not be true in China, in the U.S. people always seem to want/demand less government, but from our new perspective it became clear that they simultaneously they want/demand more governance. So, what is governance? “Governance is Public Administration: The exercise of authority by government or, more precisely, the system and method by which authority is exercised, but governance includes the broader context of governmental agencies: the multi layered network of other agencies, private companies and non-profits; the norms, values and rules that allow the network to work; and the political processes that give birth to agency mandates and change them” or as Starling (p.3) concludes “the process by which resources are marshaled to cope with problems facing a political community”.

We wrestled for a long time with the problem of separating what an individual or a group of individuals actually do as opposed to what they are called. The old nomenclature/function confusion that Neustadt (1966) so eloquently sorted out for us in
“Whitehouse and Whitehall”. When all was said and done, we were surprised to find that the public sector really appears to be bigger in the USA, perhaps twice as big. (See Figure 1)

The results of our counting in terms the governance functions of the various types of governments and the employees who did the work is shown in Figure 1. There are two obvious things that account for most of the misunderstanding about what’s going on in the two societies: The great population disparity (13:3) and the huge difference in the farm sectors 4:1 (stage of industrialization). (See Figure 2)

Not only is China’s population four times larger than that of the USA; it has four times as many individuals out of that population on the land. That is to say there is a farm sector in China that is equal to the entire population of the USA and unlike the agricultural sector in the US most rural people are not part of the industrial economy. So, for purposes of comparison only the non-farm sectors can be considered (If farmers were classified as private that would make government in the US relatively much larger). Although the rural population is a tremendous governance problem in China, the solution lies in the non-farm sector where all government jobs are found (possible jobs in industrialized agriculture could not be isolated). The number of Non-farm workers is still three and a half times greater for China (440 million private sector employees: 121 million in the USA).

Since the ratio between non-farm sectors is similar to that of the overall population, the public sectors must be roughly equal. The widely accepted 1:6 ratio in the USA is obtained by excluding the military, government corporations and contracted services. Although the US military accounts for a larger proportion of total employment the number of people in the military is obviously higher in China and there is variation in the functions they perform so for comparative purposes the militaries must be counted. In his count Starling included obvious federal contractors which brought his ratio to 1:5. We think that his ratio is very close to accounting for most of what we classify as those involved in governance except for contract work throughout the rest of the intergovernmental system that could involve another 10 or 15 million and bring the US ratio to 1:3 or proportionally twice as many governance workers as China.

The contract sector is a post-industrial phenomenon the has not occurred in China as shown in Figure 1 the size of this sector is roughly equal to the state owned industry sector for all types units in the reforming Chinese economy. It would be interesting to do a comprehensive count of government owned industries across the 80,000 governments in the US, but for now we will mention only those at the national level. Considering only the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) and the US Postal Service there are about 1 million workers in the state enterprise sector at the national level in the USA. As things are developing in China there appears to be about as much reason to expect a decline in the size of the state owned sector as there would be to expect an increase in the USA. It is, therefore, most reasonable to expect that State enterprises will remain the dynamic center of the emerging Chinese economy with employment levels comparable to the US contract sector as China moves into post-industrialism.
IGR Governance Systems
With our new understanding of the size problem we began to look at the distribution of functions and control across governmental units in the two systems. Dai (2011) characterizes China as pyramidal and the USA as flat particularly when it comes to control. This is a good framework because it gets us around the theoretical entanglements that sovereignty presents for the unitary/federal dichotomy. Looking though this more neutral lens it is clear that as a result of recent reforms control in China has devolved (flattened) rapidly, much as it centralized (pyramided) in the USA in response to the 13th Amendment.

China’s long history of central government coupled with its current parliamentary structure, in spite of it large population, seems to have produced only half as many intergovernmental governance units (Starling, p.108) as the USA with its traditions of separation of powers and federalism.

(See Figure 3)

The first thing to consider is the jurisdictional landscape which is much different in China. The city in China is the comprehensive unit of government that is encompasses counties, districts and townships. It also owns and operates businesses and enters into joint ventures with other government owned business, private firms and multinational corporations as well operating non-profit organizations and universities. Our discussion of the place and significance of the city in the overall pattern of IGR in China will center on Liuzhou City. Liuzhou’s population is 3.5 million, but it is divided into several districts and counties each of which has a government. Because of their close relationship we have counted districts as sub-divisions of the city and not separate governmental units whereas counties and townships within the territorial limits of the city are counted because their relationship involves more autonomy. The relationship of counties to cities in the USA and China is essentially reversed with townships being roughly analogues in their relationship to cities in China and counties in the USA. Other types of sub-units (city owned state enterprises, industrial parks, development zones and non-profit like entities) are considered parts of the city government because they participate in the overall system of governance as such, for the most part, rather than as separate governments like US special districts. In mapping out networks of governance it is important to remember that it is not so much a question of dividing public from private activities or level form level, as it is of discovering how essential tasks are performed within an inclusive network.

Looking at the overall patterns, there seem to be no units comparable to American states. The relationship of provinces to the national government is analogous to that of counties to states in the USA and cities in China are not creatures of contemporary governments like American cities are creatures of states. They are established entities and bearers of Chinese tradition and history. Superordinate governments have been built around them and subordinate units constructed within them to respond to changes in the environment, but a city endures through the centuries.

(See Figure 4)

This understanding gets to the necessity of this exercise: In the context of the rapid “development” of the economy, we must understand the processes and relationships involved so that intergovernmental and intra-governmental arrangements
can be altered to provide effective governance in the changed/changing environment.

When we re-examined the overall pattern in the USA with an eye out for comparable units across the two systems we discovered emerging entities that in America are comparable to the cities that have grown over time in China. In Washington State they take the form of "Home Rule Counties" that state law now allows to be established for major metropolitan areas. Other forms of city/county (metropolitan) consolidation can be found throughout the USA. Although in Washington the old city and the assortment of other incorporated suburbs inside the territorial home rule county remain the functions of general government shift to the metropolitan county which becomes a consolidated government for the urban area very similar to the city in China. This is of great interest because the new arrangements grew in contexts similar to the ones that reforms are producing in China.

Just looking at the Washington case we observed that the tradition of fragmentation continues to influence patterns of governance inside urban agglomerations. The entire Seattle metropolitan area with a population comparable to Liuzhou City remains divided among three home rule counties. Theoretically, they could be consolidated, but politically such a thing is not possible because of the power of the counties in state government—the legacies of fragmentation in the USA seem to be as lasting as those of centralization in China.

At this point we began to realize that adaptation to the environmental changes brought on by industrial and post industrial development had to take place inside of urban agglomerations and that many of the problems of governance in both the USA and China had their roots in established IGR patterns that interfere with the emergence of workable arrangements inside of metropolitan agglomerations. This brought us to the final step of the exercise: A practical re-framing of the overall patterns of IGR into comparable units appropriate for intra-governmental development.

(See Figure 5)

In our new frame work IGR is confined to two levels in China and three in the USA by defining consolidating relationships as emerging intra-governmental relationships. Provinces in China become administrative units of the national government and counties in the USA are seen only as subdivisions of states. We replaced “city” in the USA with The Office of Management and Budget’s metropolitan area (SMA) to eliminate of the complication of incorporated suburbs which we considered similar to districts and counties in China. This left only outlying pockets of population in the township category in both systems. These residuals beyond the territorial scope of cities are administered by the national government through the provinces in China and by the states through counties in the USA. As with the home rule counties in Washington the major barrier to convergence of the two systems on a National—Metropolitan model is history and tradition in the USA which creates a many problems because major SMAs span state boundaries. Inter-state compacts, special districts and such provide a window for China on where the problems lie and this should be helpful in organizing the internal governance of the city in China where nomenclature and history are less constraining.
Conclusion

The real story of the final stage of industrial development if it was completed in the USA during the Fifties (See Figure 2) must be that of the triumph of the automobile and the car culture. From this perspective it is clear that the critical IGR link was National/Metro. Neither the car culture nor the suburban landscape that it feeds and upon which the development of contemporary urban agglomerations depended in the post-war USA would have been possible without the construction of the National Dwight David Eisenhower Memorial Interstate Highway System. It does not link states or counties it connects and creates SMAs and that is a reality that has changed everything whether it fits into established legal and theoretical categories or not. The real questions for China are: Is this what we want? If so, what patterns of governance can best support it?

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Figure 1: How big is government in the USA and China?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>China</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>330 million</td>
<td>1300 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Employment</td>
<td>145 million</td>
<td>770 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm %</td>
<td>About 8%</td>
<td>About 33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Non-farm</td>
<td>145 Million</td>
<td>510 Million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>121 Million</td>
<td>440 Million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Profit (contract)</td>
<td>(20 Million)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Corporation</td>
<td>13 Thousand</td>
<td>25 Million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>22 Million</td>
<td>40 Million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td>1.5 Million</td>
<td>2.3 Million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio</td>
<td>1:6</td>
<td>(1:3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

China

Population: 1.35 billion
Value system: Confucianism
Model of Democracy: People’s Congress (Parliamentary)
Industrialization: The later stages: first half of the last stages of industrialization

USA

Population: 308.7 million
Value system: Liberalism
Model of Democracy: Separation of Powers
Industrialization: Finished in 1950s

Figure 3: Intergovernmental Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>USA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44,000</td>
<td>90,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.6 million square kilometers</td>
<td>9.36 million square kilometers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter/Intra Government Relations</td>
<td>34 Province</td>
<td>50 State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>333 City</td>
<td>3,033 County</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,852 County</td>
<td>19,492 Municipality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40,446 Township</td>
<td>16,519 Townships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50 Districts</td>
<td>50,000 Districts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Figure 4: Patterns of Intergovernmental Government
Figure 5: Comparable governments China and US

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>USA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Agglomeration</td>
<td>333 Cities</td>
<td>389 SMAs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>