A Discussion of the Mental Health of Public School Teachers
Gary W. Ballou, Central Washington University 1

Mining for the Truth: Analyses of Celebrity Adjudication Decisions
Bruce A. Carroll, Texas Christian University
Anthony Scime, The College at Brockport State University of New York 11

Looking Through an Inclusive Lens: Training Secondary Education Student Teachers to Apply Principles of Universal Design
M. Susan Claflin, Barbara Eddins, Doug Eicher, Missouri Western State University 18

Physical Activity: What Is It, and Why Is It Important?
Becky J. Cox, Laura Brown, The University of Tennessee at Martin 28

Student Teachers Evaluate Cooperating Teachers in Predominately Hispanic Community
Criselda G. Garcia, Hosin Shirvani, University of Texas Pan American 33

Reaction to the Reactions to Tiger Mom
Theodore Tin-Yee Hsieh, Judson University 39

A Global Longitudinal Study of Philosophical and Religious Attitudes from 1990 to 2010
Allen Francis Ketcham, Martin Brittain, Texas A&M University
Jeffrey Schulz, Central Community College 43

“From Burning at the Stake to Lethal Injection: Evolving Standards of Decency and Methods of Execution”
Joseph A. Melusky, Saint Francis University (PA) 57

“They’re Just Being Kids”: Recognizing and Preventing Bullying
Sandra S. Murray, Patricia Hewitt, Suzanne Maniss, University of Tennessee at Martin
Joseph Molinatti, College of Mount Saint Vincent 66

Teaching Critical Thinking in Social Studies in Classrooms
Tabitha Otieno, Jackson State University 75

A School-Based Trauma Program for Elementary School Children
Melvyn C. Raider, William Steele, Caelan Kuban, Wayne State University 81
Creating a Community: Jews of Schenectady
Harvey Strum, The Sage Colleges

Film Review

“American Teacher”
Ben Miles, Art Institute of CA
A Discussion of the Mental Health of Public School Teachers

Gary W. Ballou
Central Washington University

Introduction

It has been suggested that public school teachers are exposed to highly stressful situations which are related to psychological and psychiatric problems (1). Statistics have suggested that psychological and psychiatric problems have been of increasing concern; the occurrence of individuals taking sick leave due to psychiatric problems increased from 0.11% in 1997 to 0.39 in 2007 (2,3). Accounts of worsening mental health among teachers include students’ misbehavior (4, 5). School surveys conducted of school students in recent years have revealed that the occurrence of those who refuse to go to school has nearly doubled in a period of ten years (0.17% in 1997 vs. 0.33% in 2007 for elementary school children; 1.24% in 1997 vs. 2.73% in 2007 for junior high school students) (6,7). Furthermore, in junior high schools, acts of violence by students directed at teachers and other students were found to have increased approximately four-fold over the period from 1997 to 2007 (6). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that, under such circumstances, teachers may be placed in stressful situations.

In addition to this, work overload for teachers has been an area of concern in Japan (4, 8) as well as in the United States (5). In Japan, a policy to reduce teachers’ workload took effect in April 2002. The curricula were rearranged to reduce teaching hours, and teachers have been strongly recommended to comply with a five-day a week system. However, Japanese teachers may have been required to prepare classes while abiding by revised teaching guidelines within the curricula. This requirement has added to the job demands made of Japanese teachers.

Other work characteristics and psychosocial factors, such as job insecurity, effort-reward imbalances, job dissatisfaction, and compromised general health have been proposed as stressors for teachers (2, 9-12), as well as for civil servants (13-16), particularly female civil servants (13, 17). These studies suggest that factors that may worsen mental health status include occupation as well as many other factors including demographic factors.

Unfortunately, there is no quantitative data suggesting which factors contribute to improving the mental health of American teachers, nor have there been any prior studies that have directly compared the factors associated with mental health disturbances between teachers and workers in other occupations in the United States. In light of this, I felt it crucial to find the factors associated with psychological/psychiatric problems in public school teachers in the United States using an appropriate reference professional group.

Aims of the study

I compared the proportion of subjects with minor psychiatric disorders (MPD) as a proxy for mental health status among Washington public school teachers using a standardized measure, with that of civil servants as a referent group. I hypothesized that the proportion is higher in teachers than in civil servants. I also sought what factors, if any, would be specifically associated with MPD in teachers.

Methods

Subjects

From February to March 2009, I conducted a survey of public school teachers in a city in Washington State. The city had a population of approximately 1,909,300 and had 51 elementary schools, 19 junior high schools, and 10 K-8 schools in the year 2008. As a comparison group of workers with another occupation, I enrolled civil servants who worked in the same city on the grounds that their social status
and living standards were equivalent to those of teachers. The average wage per month for public school teachers was approximately $46,326 while that for civil servants was $47,995 (18).

I sent a questionnaire to each member of a targeted population of 403 public school teachers and 611 civil servants who were then requested to anonymously return their responses by mail. The response rate was 59.6% for the teachers (men: 124/205; women: 116/198) and 62.0% for the civil servants (men: 305/489; women: 74/122). There was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of response rates in either men (χ²=0.05, df=1, p=0.82). There was no significant difference between responders and non-responders in terms of age-band distribution either in teachers (χ²=1.8, df=3, p=0.61) or in civil servants (χ²=1.2, df=3, p=0.75). The civil servants of the city consisted of office workers (68%), fire fighters (14%), technical experts (8%), public health nurses (3%), and others (7%).

The study protocol was approved by the city involved in the study and the Board of Education of the city involved in this project.

Mental health assessment

To identify mental health problems among the subjects, the questionnaire included the 28-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28), originally developed by Goldberg and colleagues (19). The total score ranges from 0 to 28 and higher scores represent poorer mental health. In accordance with the procedure applied in previous studies, I used a cut-off point of 6, and I defined those individuals with a score of 6 or more as having a minor psychiatric disorder (MPD) (19-21). The GHQ-28 is composed of four subscales (range for each: 0-7): somatic symptoms, anxiety and insomnia, social dysfunction, and severe depression.

Demographic variables and factors that possibly increase the likelihood of having MPD in public school teachers and civil servants

The demographic variables examined were age, sex, and marital status. I also examined the following factors that may influence the occurrence of MPD: working hours, sickness leave (number of days during the last 6 months), physical illness, sleeping hours, time spent with family, and time spent of leisure activities. Three psychometric scales were also included in the questionnaire to assess job satisfaction, life satisfaction and problem-solving ability. The job and life satisfaction scales are composed of 15 questions each, with a seven-point Likert-type scoring system (1=extremely dissatisfied, 7=extremely satisfied). Both of the satisfaction scores range from 15 to 105, with higher scores indicating higher levels of satisfaction (22). Problem-solving ability was evaluated with the Problem-Solving Inventory (PSI) (23) to assess the personal problem-solving process. The PSI consists of 32 items with a six-point, Likert-type scoring system for each item (range: 32-192). Lower scores correspond to higher levels of ability to solve problems. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) was 0.95 for GHQ-28, 0.91 for job satisfaction, 0.87 for life satisfaction, and 0.85 for PSI in this sample studied. I opted for these factors on the basis that: 1) they have been studied in the related literature, 2) they are occupation-related factors, and 3) changes in the scores can be expected to improve (or worsen) mental health.

Analysis

After comparing demographic variables and factors of interest between the two occupational groups, I then analyzed whether age as either a categorical or continuous variable was associated with PMD, since it was expected to function as a confounder or effect-modifier in the associations between MPD and the other variables of my interest.

A preliminary analysis revealed that there was no linear relationship between age as a continuous variable and the likelihood of having MPD; it showed an inverted U-shape. Therefore, I dealt with age as a categorical variable consisting of four age-bands (20 to 29 yr, 30 to 39 yr, 40 to 49 yr, and 50 yr and over); three dummy variables were entered into the logistic regression analyses as forced covariates. Likewise, sex was also treated as a potential confounder because more female than male subjects were likely to have MPD, as was indicated by my preliminary analysis.

Four of the continuous variables examined, i.e., working hours at office and at home, time spent with family and for leisure, were dichotomized in the analyses because they revealed a non-linear relationship to MPD in the preliminary data inspection.
Along with the primary aim of this study, the proportion of MPD in each group was then compared using a logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex and all variables available. Therefore, I examined whether the factors of interest described above were associated with having MPD in each occupational group, separately.

To examine statistical associations between the factors of interest and the likelihood of having MPD in the subjects under investigation, I again employed logistic regression analyses to yield the odds ratios (Odds) in the two groups, separately, with a 95% confidence interval (CI), first in a model adjusted for age and sex. If an association was implied, i.e., the p-value was less than 0.25 (24), this variable was selected and entered into further analyses. The selected variables, age and sex were entered into a multivariable, full model for the groups of public school teachers and civil servants, respectively. I used SPSS version 11.5J for Windows (SPSS, Chicago), statistical software, and \( p < 0.05 \) was considered statistically significant. In the comparison of a continuous variable between two groups, I used the Wilcoxon rank-sum test in anticipation of non-normal distributions. As for categorical variables, the chi-square test was applied.

**Results**

**Demographic variables**

Table 1 shows the characteristics of the public school teachers and civil servants. There were significant differences between the teachers and civil servants in terms of age (mean=39.7 vs. 41.4 yr for teachers and civil servants, respectively; \( p=0.02 \)) and sex (proportion of female subjects: 48.3% vs. 19.5%; \( p<0.001 \)). The proportion of those with a marital status other than married did not differ between the groups (\( p=0.27 \)). The score on the GHQ-28 was significantly higher among the teachers than among the civil servants (mean: 8.2 vs. 6.3 points; \( p<0.001 \)). Regarding the four subscales of the GHQ-28, teachers had significantly higher scores for the somatic symptoms (\( p=0.001 \)) and anxiety and insomnia (\( p=0.02 \)) subscales than civil servants. The other two subscales did not show any significant differences.

**Proportion of subjects with MPD for public school teachers and civil servants**

The proportion of subjects with MPD among public school teachers was significantly greater than that among civil servants (62.9% vs. 46.4%; \( \chi^2=16.01, \text{df}=1, \ p<0.001 \)). A logistic regression analysis with an adjustment for age and sex showed a significant association (OR=1.55; 95%CI: 1.09 to 2.20; referent category: civil servants). When age, sex and all the variables I collected were controlled for, the statistical significance no longer persisted (OR=1.15; 95%CI: 0.61 to 2.19).

**Identification of variables that possibly increase the likelihood of having MPD**

I analyzed each factor of interest with an adjustment for age and sex using logistic regression analyses for public school teachers and civil servants, respectively. In the teacher’s group, the candidate factors possibly associated with MPD, i.e., the factors that showed a p-value of less than 0.25, included unmarried, longer working hours at home, shorter time spent with family, shorter time spent on leisure, lowered job satisfaction, lowered life satisfaction, lowered problem solving skill, presence of physical illness, sick leave, and decreased sleeping hours. These were entered into the multivariable, full model.

In the same analysis applied to civil servants, the candidate factors included longer working hours at the office, longer working hours at home, shorter time spent with family, shorter time spent on leisure, lowered job satisfaction, lowered life satisfaction, presence of physical illness, and sick leave. These variables, as well as age and sex, were selected and entered into another full model for the group of civil servants.

**Determining factors that increase the likelihood of having MPD**

Table 2 shows that, in the multivariable logistic regression analysis for the public school teachers, two variables remained statistically significant in the full model: lowered job satisfaction and shorter time spent of leisure.

For civil servants, the following variables remained statistically significant in the full model: lowered life satisfaction, shorter time spent on leisure, sick leave, and physical illness.

I repeated the same analyses conducted above for male and female subjects separately, for teachers and civil servants, respectively. For the male teachers, no variable remained statistically significant, whereas longer working hours (OR=2.23, 95%CI: 1.12 to 4.46), lowered life satisfaction (OR for 10-point
decrease=1.38, 95%CI: 1.02 to 1.85), and history of sick leave (OR=1.92, 95%CI: 1.13 to 3.26) were all associated with MPD in male civil servants. In the female teacher group, lowered job satisfaction (OR for 10-point decrease=2.34, 95%CI: 1.23 to 4.46) was significantly associated with MPD, whereas lowered life satisfaction (OR for 10-point decrease=3.16, 95%CI: 1.05 to 9.56) and shorter time spent on leisure (OR=5.61, 95%CI: 1.07 to 29.5) were associated with MPD in female civil servants. Unexpectedly, shorter sleeping hours (OR=0.36, 95%CI: 0.13 to 0.97) were negatively associated with an increased likelihood of having MPD in female civil servants.

**Discussion**

To my knowledge, this is the first study focusing on occupational mental health problems in public school teachers with a reference group from another occupational group with a similar socioeconomic status.

The proportion of those with MPD in Washington workers was shown to be high. My sample of teachers showed an extremely high rate of MPD (62.9%), conventionally defined as a score of 6 points or higher on the GHQ-28. This proportion was much higher than those in studies exploring teachers as ranged from 50.8% to 53.8% (25-27), and than those of nurses (37.0%) and general office workers (25.2%) in a study conducted in the United States. However, the departure of my result from the findings of other studies should be interpreted cautiously, since non-respondent rates, the cut-off points for defining MPD, and the age distribution of the subjects has varied across studies.

I hypothesized that MPD may be more prevalent in public school teachers than in another occupational group, i.e., civil servants. However, there was no support for this hypothesis, since the likelihood of having MPD was not associated specifically with the group of school teachers after controlling for age, sex, and other covariates. As was expected, I found that the covariates I entered into the model exerted confounding effects, because the OR was reduced after controlling for the covariates. This implies that some of the covariates I collected other than age and sex may be more specifically associated with MPD in the teachers than they were in the civil servants.

In fact, I succeeded in finding variables associated with an increased likelihood of having MPD. However, the constellation of variables significantly associated with an increased likelihood of having MPD varied across the two occupational groups: job dissatisfaction and a shorter time spent on leisure among the teachers; longer working hours, lowered life satisfaction, a shorter time spent on leisure, sick leave, and the presence of physical illness among the civil servants (Table 2). It is fairly clear that in the group of civil servants, variables related to workload and physical illness are associated with an increased likelihood of having MPD. Studies have suggested that work characteristics such as high job demands, effort-reward imbalances, and chronic job insecurity have had an adverse effect on mental health among British civil servants (14-16). Both working overtime and overworking among male Washington workers are of grave concern (28-30). With respect to properties such as high job demands and overwork, my results for the civil servants accord particularly well with the literature.

As regards public school teachers, a previous study showed that the occurrence of psychiatric morbidity was correlated with the strength of stress among elementary and secondary school teachers in south New York City (31). Another study reported that stress among teachers was associated with workload (4). Therefore, it could naturally be assumed that long working hours might be associated with MPD not only in the civil servants, but also in the teachers of the present study. Surprisingly, this was not confirmed for the teachers, even though they worked for significantly longer hours per week in the office (55.0 h) than the civil servants (42.5 h), much longer than the national averages in countries such as Japan (43.1 h), Hong Kong (46.6 h), and South Korea (47.5 h) (32). The possible reasons for the non-significant association may be the inclusion of some teachers with MPD who cannot work long hours because of psychiatric morbidity and the exclusion of non-random missing information on subjects with MPD with long working hours; however, it remains possible that there is in fact no association between working hours and MPD among Washington teachers. If this is true, other work-related factors may be concerned.

Job dissatisfaction was found to be associated with an increased likelihood of having MPD only in my sample of public school teachers. A study carried out in the UK suggested that increased job satisfaction protected the mental health of hospital consultants (33), as is consistent with my results. Despite the
difference in the populations studies, studies have suggested that job satisfaction among specialist professionals, including teachers, lecturers, pharmacists, physicians, etc., is associated with the effectiveness of resolution strategies in professional settings; in other words, how well the subject functions as a specialist professional (10, 12, 33). Interestingly, Cockburn (10) indicated that preparing classes is one of the most effective resolution strategies for teachers and that increased job satisfaction in teachers was highly related to their readiness for teaching classes. If this is the case, job satisfaction may be a proxy measure in part for readiness for teaching, the reduction of which may be connected with the increased likelihood of having MPD.

It would seem that the promotion of job satisfaction, rather than decreasing working hours, is crucial for improving the mental health of Washington public school teachers. However, as was shown in the analyses conducted separately for male and female subjects, the association between decreased job satisfaction and the increased likelihood of having MPD was confirmed only in female teachers. One explanation is that this was a chance finding occurring only in female teachers, although other explanations can also be postulated, e.g., that Washington female teachers are less likely to increase readiness for teaching than male teachers. Of note is that in my sample, the number of working hours differed significantly for female and male teachers (per week: females 53.7 h, males 56.2 h: z=2.4, p=0.02), suggesting that female teachers may have limited time to prepare classes. This is in line with the fact that, according to statistics (34), the average hours spent attending to household affairs in women and men are quite different in the United States (hours per day in Japan: females 7.41h, males 0.48 h; in the US: females 6.21 h, males 3.26 h).

Interestingly, a shorter time spent on leisure activities may increase the likelihood of having MPD in both occupational groups. The association remained statistically significant only in female civil servants after stratification by sex. This implies that increasing the amount of time spent on leisure activities may be an effective strategy for improving mental health status among female civil servants. The emerged associations of the variables specifically related to MPD among the teachers, i.e., job dissatisfaction and limited leisure time, all point to a suggestion that poor mental health status among school teachers can be improved with particular care for female teachers. We should be aware, however, that we are not allowed to assume causation because of a cross-sectional design, which is a limitation of the present study. Whether increasing job satisfaction is an effective measure can only be confirmed in longitudinal studies, since job dissatisfaction can also be an effect that stems from MPD.

With regards to the limitations other than the cross-sectional design, I am aware that the selection of the study subjects may have been inappropriate in two ways. First, the selection of civil servants as control subjects in comparison with public school teachers may be inappropriate because, according to a prior study (17), mental health status among a group of civil servants was poorer than the normative data. Thus, I might have underestimated mental health issues among the teacher group. Second, in the separate analyses for the two groups of subjects, the estimates might have been biased due to possibly non-random missing information. Although the overall response rate in this study was comparable with that of similar types of other studies (35, 36), and the response rate did not differ between the two occupational groups, more subjects with MPD might have been excluded from the analyses because of missing information, leading the estimates to null values (37).

Since lowered socioeconomic status is an established risk factor for depression (38), I should have controlled for this factor as a potential confounder. In the present study, however, I learned from the official statistics that the mean annual income of the public school teachers and civil servants I examined were almost the same. Because all of the subjects are employed under the same regulations governing the state salary system, I assume that the socioeconomic status does not differ much across the subjects.

Despite these limitations, Washington public school teachers were shown to suffer from poor mental health status as well as civil servants. Decreased job satisfaction and shorter time spent on leisure activities were factors associated with MPD among the teachers, especially the female teachers.
List of References
Goldberg DP and Hillier VF: A scaled version of the General Health Questionnaire. Psychol Med 9, 139-145 (1979)


Cropley M, Steptoe A and Joekes K: Job strain and psychiatric morbidity. Psychol Med 29, 1411-1416 (1999)


Table 1. Characteristics of subjects and GHQ-28 scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Civil servants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N of subjects</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex: female</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x²=57.33, df=1</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (mean; median)</td>
<td>39.7; 39.0</td>
<td>41.4; 42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD 10.1</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status; other than married</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x²=1.21, df=1</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHQ-28 (mean; median)</td>
<td>8.2; 7.5</td>
<td>6.3; 5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z=4.32</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscales of GHQ-28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somatic symptoms (mean; median)</td>
<td>3.7; 4.0</td>
<td>2.3; 2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z=6.83</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety and insomnia (mean; median)</td>
<td>2.5; 2.0</td>
<td>2.2; 2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z=2.33</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social dysfunction (mean; median)</td>
<td>1.4; 1.0</td>
<td>1.2; 1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z=1.19</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe depression (mean; median)</td>
<td>0.7; 0.0</td>
<td>0.6; 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z=0.46</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Standard deviation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHERS</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Adjusted odds ratio (95% confidence interval)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2.08 (0.51, 8.53)</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unmarried</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working hours at home per week</td>
<td>0 h</td>
<td>2.06 (0.65, 6.51)</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 + h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent with family per week</td>
<td>≥21 h</td>
<td>1.37 (0.67, 2.82)</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;21 h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent on leisure per week</td>
<td>≥5 h</td>
<td>2.08 (1.02, 4.25)</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;5 h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>For 10-pt decrease</td>
<td>1.45 (1.04, 2.03)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>For 10-pt decrease</td>
<td>1.47 (0.98, 2.18)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>For 10-pt increase</td>
<td>1.17 (0.92, 1.49)</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical illness</td>
<td>No physical illness</td>
<td>1.65 (0.58, 4.69)</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sick leave during last 6 months</td>
<td>No sick leave</td>
<td>1.72 (0.77, 3.83)</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 + d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleeping hours per day</td>
<td>For 1 - h decrease</td>
<td>1.20 (0.75, 1.92)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjusted odds ratio(b)</td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>(95% confidence interval)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIVIL SERVANTS</td>
<td>2.82 (1.43, 5.57)</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working hours at office per week ≤45 h</td>
<td>2.82 (1.43, 5.57)</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;45 h</td>
<td>1.38 (0.72, 2.63)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working hours at home per week 0 h</td>
<td>1.38 (0.72, 2.63)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 + h</td>
<td>0.79 (0.47, 1.32)</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent with family per week ≥21 h</td>
<td>0.79 (0.47, 1.32)</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;21 h</td>
<td>1.85 (1.07, 3.21)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time spent on leisure per week ≥5 h</td>
<td>1.85 (1.07, 3.21)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5 h</td>
<td>1.12 (0.89, 1.42)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>1.12 (0.89, 1.42)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For 10-pt decrease</td>
<td>1.49 (1.13, 1.96)</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>1.91 (1.05, 3.45)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For 10-pt decrease</td>
<td>1.91 (1.05, 3.45)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical illness</td>
<td>1.70 (1.05, 2.78)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No physical illness</td>
<td>1.70 (1.05, 2.78)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>1.70 (1.05, 2.78)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sick leave during last 6 months</td>
<td>1.70 (1.05, 2.78)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No sick leave</td>
<td>1.70 (1.05, 2.78)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 + d</td>
<td>1.70 (1.05, 2.78)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a: Minor psychiatric disorder as measured by GHQ-28 score of six or more.
b: Adjusted for sex, age and all the variables with p<0.25 in the last analysis shown here.
Abstract
Exogenous influences on judicial decision-making have been shown to be a necessary component to explain judicial decision-making. Any effort to determine and measure the effects of celebrity status on adjudication is absent from the literature. To examine and measure these potential effects, we utilize association mining to parse out the primary influences on celebrity adjudication. We examine over 100 celebrity cases from 1998 to 2010 to provide insight on the main determinants involved in celebrity adjudication. Our results suggest that issues of celebrity status, race and the crime of homicide are prime determinants in celebrity adjudication.

Introduction
Extra judicial factors must be taken into account in any examination of judicial decision-making. Previous analyses have shown that judicial behavior may be understood as part of strategic interactions with other institutions (Stimson, MacKuen, and Erikson 1995), intra institutional effects (Carroll 2004), or the public (Flemming and Wood 1997; Mishler and Sheehan 1996, 1993). Other scholars have endorsed the attitudinal model asserting that judicial behavior may be influenced by personal attributes or policy preferences (Segal and Spaeth 1993; Tate and Handberg 1991). Factors such as jurist age, gender, and ideology measured by party identification have been established as useful tools in the explanation of judicial decision-making. The literature has described the impact these various factors may have on the judiciary over various periods of time (Manning, Carroll, and Carp 2004; Songer and Davis 1990; Carp and Rowland 1983; Tate 1981).

When juries adjudicate defendants, extra judicial factors can also influence their decision-making (Diamond 2006; Mitchell et al. 2005). Though legal factors dominate the extra judicial factors in a case, juries do not decide cases on the legal factors alone.

This discussion leads to the question of how having limited or pure celebrity status can influence adjudication. If one accepts that many pure celebrities have a fair amount of economic resources to draw upon to stay out of jail and many limited celebrities can attain counsel through their own resources or through an interest group the issue becomes much clearer. Songer and Keuersten showed that at least at the appellate level wealthier interests are more likely to prevail (1995). At the state Supreme Court level, wealth is the most important factor used to predict decision-making (Bruschke 1994). Adjudicators are susceptible to extra judicial influences; wealth matters and famous people are frequently wealthy or have a higher level of disposable income than the average person. Celebrity status is a hallmark in modern culture. As a populace we emulate celebrities in our behaviors such as dress, speech, and activities. Being a celebrity even affects medical care (Kucharski 1984). On a more pedestrian note, it is not uncommon to hear that celebrities are treated differently than non-celebrities. People suggest that celebrities will get a slap on the wrist for a crime that others will pay dearly for or that they will pay their way out of it. Celebrity, with its endogenous attribute of wealth, is an area prime for adjudication analyses.
The preceding literature review gives rise to the following two hypotheses:

\( H_0 \) – There will be no primary determinants that have a significant influence on celebrity adjudication outcomes. Extra judicial factor values will not change the likelihood of a celebrity adjudication outcome.

\( H_1 \) – There will be several determinants that have a significant influence on celebrity adjudication outcomes. Some extra judicial factor values will increase the likelihood of a celebrity adjudication outcome.

**DATA**

**Dependent Variable**

The data used for this analysis come from a contextual analysis of state and federal judicial decisions. The gathering of data through contextual analysis for this work has been condensed into one dataset. The dataset used for this study contains over 100 observations from 1998 to 2010.

Each observation consists of a jury or judge decision, coded as either convicted or not convicted. In accordance with the Bureau of Justice Statistics coding, decisions were coded as convicted when the defendant plead or was found guilty at trial and not convicted when the defendant was acquitted or had the charges against them dropped.

**Independent Variables**

The Type variable refers to type of crime that was committed. For purposes of this work, Type is coded as Drugs/alcohol, Homicide, Rape/other sexual offenses, Offenses against the person excluding homicide, White collar and organized, Public order/National security, Vice (excluding alcohol), Property offenses, and Other offenses.

The Notoriety variable refers to the attribute that makes the individual famous or infamous. It has been coded as Movie, TV, Sports, Govt., Crime Figure, Music/Comedy, White Collar, and Other. This coding scheme allows for delineation between foundations for fame while also grouping infamous individuals.

The Race variable refers to the race of the defendant. It has been coded as white and non-white.

The Public Figure variable refers to whether the defendant is a limited public figure or a public figure. It has been coded as limited public figures and public figures. Following the Gertz Brown framework, a public figure for this work has been defined as an individual with a fairly high threshold of public activity while limited public figure has been defined as those who do not reach a high threshold of public activity, but for their role as defendant.

**METHODOLOGY**

Association mining evaluates data for relationships among factors (attributes) in the dataset (Agrawal, Imieliński & Swami 1993). The association rule mining algorithm apriori finds itemsets within the dataset at user-specified minimum support levels. An itemset is a collection of factor-value pairs that occurs in the dataset. The size of the itemsets is continually increased as the algorithm proceeds until no itemsets satisfy the minimum support level. The support of an itemset is the percent of records that contain all the items in the itemset. The itemsets at or exceeding the support threshold are converted into rules where each item implies and is implied by every other item in the itemset.

For example, given an itemset of three items (factor-value pairs) \((FACT1 = x, FACT2 = g, FACT3 = a)\), six rules are generated:

- IF \((FACT1 = x \text{ AND } FACT2 = g)\)  THEN \(FACT3 = a\)  (1)
- IF \((FACT1 = x \text{ AND } FACT3 = a)\)  THEN \(FACT2 = g\)  (2)
- IF \((FACT2 = g \text{ AND } FACT3 = a)\)  THEN \(FACT1 = x\)  (3)
- IF \(FACT1 = x\)  THEN \((FACT2 = g \text{ AND } FACT3 = a)\)  (4)
- IF \(FACT2 = g\)  THEN \((FACT1 = x \text{ AND } FACT3 = a)\)  (5)
- IF \(FACT3 = a\)  THEN \((FACT1 = x \text{ AND } FACT2 = g)\)  (6)

Rules from the same itemset all have the same support value. A rule contains a premise and consequent and states that when the premise is true the consequent will be true. Each rule is an
observation of the data’s behavior and a prediction that given the same behavior, represented above by factor-value pairs, new data instances (records) would behave in the same manner.

The confidence that this rule is correct is calculated. The confidence is a conditional probability that a record containing the premise will also contain the consequent. It is calculated by dividing the support for the rule or coverage by the support just for the itemset that is the same as the premise. Confidence is the likelihood that the rule is correct.

The lift provided by the rule is also calculated. Lift is a measure of the impact of the rule. It is the improvement of the rule over guessing. Lift is the ratio of the conditional probability that the consequent is true given that the premise is true to the probability that the consequent is true overall. In other words, the ratio of the records that support the entire rule compared to the number of records that contain the consequent.

For example, given a dataset which contains a large number of factors, among which are FACT1, FACT2 and FACT3. The support for the occurrences of FACT1, FACT2 and FACT3 and their values x, g, and a respectively create the itemset and rules (1) – (6) above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>. . .</th>
<th>FACT1</th>
<th>FACT2</th>
<th>FACT3</th>
<th>. . .</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finding the lift for Rule (1), the conditional probability of FACT3=a given FACT1=x and FACT2=g, $P(\text{FACT3}=a \mid \text{FACT1}=x \land \text{FACT2}=g)$, is 2 out of 3 or 0.66 and the probability of FACT3=a, $P(\text{FACT3}=a)$, is 3 out of 10 or 0.30. The lift is the ratio of these or 2.20. This means, if a guess was made that the value of FACT3 is ‘a’ that guess has a 3/10 (30%) chance of being right, but if the value of FACT1 and FACT2 are known and the values are ‘x’ and ‘g’ respectively the chance of FACT3 being ‘a’ increases by 2.20 times to 0.66%.

When lift is greater than 1 the rule is better at predicting its conclusion than guessing the conclusion, when lift less than 1 following the rule to its conclusion is worse than informed guessing. Only those rules meeting the user-specified lift threshold, typically at least one, are kept.

Association mining often produces a large number of rules (Bagui, Just & Bagui 2008), which may not be relevant to the theory being considered. Only those rules that conclude with a factor that is applicable
to the theory being tested need be kept (Klemettinen et al. 1994). The only association rules of interest are those with a consequent containing a theoretically meaningful factor or factor-value pairs.

**ANALYSES**

Association mining is used to find the characteristics of a celebrity and their crime that lead to a guilty or a not guilty verdict. This analysis provides specific combinations of the factors in the form of rules. Each rule’s likelihood of being correct (confidence) and its improvement over guessing (lift) are calculated.

Before executing the apriori algorithm the data is prepared. The original data consists of the 5 variables mentioned supra with adjudication being the dependent variable. There are 106 records where the Adjudication value is either Guilty or Not Guilty.

Apriori analysis results in 228 rules with a lift greater than one. Of these rules, 21 conclude with just the adjudication factor, the dependent variable. In other words there are 21 rules that based on one or more of the independent variables determine whether the verdict is guilty or not at a rate better than guessing. These 21 rules are presented in Appendix One.

Only three rules result in a verdict of not guilty and these rules only contain the Public Figure and Race factors. It is also significant that the other two factors (Type and Notoriety) are not determiners of being found not guilty.

IF PublicFigure=Public Figure AND Race=nonwhites THEN Adjudication=NG (7)

IF PublicFigure=Public Figure THEN Adjudication=NG (8)

IF Race=nonwhites THEN Adjudication=NG (9)

Rule (7) is 1.79 times more likely than chance (guessing) with 41% confidence. Furthermore, PublicFigure=Public Figure AND Race=nonwhites occurs in 32 records and PublicFigure=Public Figure AND Race=nonwhites AND Adjudication=NG occurs in 13 records. Rule (8) is 1.57 times more likely than chance (guessing) and the rule has a 35% likelihood of being correct. PublicFigure=Public Figure occurs in 62 records and PublicFigure=Public Figure AND Adjudication=NG occurs in 22 records. Rule (9) is 1.51 times more likely than chance (guessing) and the confidence of the rule being correct is 34%. Race=nonwhites occurs in 38 records and Race=nonwhites AND Adjudication=NG occurs in 13 records.

Note that the combination of being nonwhite and a public figure increases the likelihood of being found not guilty over either of those characteristics individually. Regardless of the crime and notoriety, being a public figure means you are 1.57 times more likely to be found not guilty, 35% of the time. Because the adjudication is binary, 65% of the time a public figure is found guilty, but not with a better chance than guessing the trial result. Being non-white gives you a 1.51 times better chance of being found not guilty 34% of the time. Likewise, there is 66% likelihood that non-whites are found guilty. If you are a non-white public figure, then your chance of being not guilty is 1.79 times more likely than any other celebrity, 41% of the time, and guilty 59% of the time.

Considering the rules leading to guilty, it is often an advantage to be non-white or a public figure, but not always. None of the rules specifically indicate non-whites. All the rules either identify whites as guilty or race does not matter. Race is a binary factor and some of the rules come in pairs. When the crime is homicide and the public figure and notoriety values are not specified, and race is not specified the likelihood of being found guilty is 87% with a chance 12% better than guessing. But, if the race is white the likelihood of guilt reduces to 86% and the chance is only 11% better than guessing. In this case, the first rule in this pair of rules will only apply to non-whites, hence non-white celebrities have a 1% greater likelihood of being found guilty of homicide. Committing homicide results in celebrities being found guilty more often than for other crimes.

Public figures appear in only one rule. When a public figure is accused of an offense against the person other than homicide, they are found guilty 1.09 times more likely than chance, 85% of the time. If you are a white collar offender or a limited public figure your chance and likelihood of being guilty of homicide go up, but whites continue to have a slightly less chance or likelihood. Being white collar makes you 95% confident of being guilty 1.23 times better than chance; and things get worse if you are
also a limited public figure. However, the chance of being found guilty is less as is the likelihood if you are a pure public figure or committed homicide.

The only other types of crime that give a better than guessing chance of being found guilty are white collar and organized crimes and offenses against the person (excluding homicide). White collar and organized crimes are found guilty 92% of the time and 1.19 times more likely than chance regardless of your race, notoriety, or being a public figure. As stated previously, a public figure who commits an offense against the person (excluding homicide) is found guilty 1.09 times more likely than chance, 85% of the time while a limited public figure is guilty only 82% of the time and only 1.06 times more likely than chance.

CONCLUSION

The analyses supra suggest that hypothesis one should be embraced and the null hypothesis should be rejected. The 21 rules in Appendix One all contain extra judicial factors with specific values that increase the chance of a celebrity’s verdict. Eighteen of the rules increase the likelihood of a celebrity’s guilty verdict, the other three increase the chance of a not guilty verdict. In the best case, a non-white public figure has a 79% more likely chance of being found not guilty regardless of the crime committed or the reason why they are famous, although the likelihood of a not guilty verdict is only 41%. Clearly this shows that these extra judicial factors and their values are extremely important when explaining celebrity adjudication.

Likewise, extra judicial factors and their values can negatively impact the likelihood of a non-guilty result for celebrity adjudication when examined based on the type of crime committed. The types of crimes that may increase celebrity guilty verdicts are homicide, white collar and organized crimes, and offenses against the person (excluding homicide). Celebrities that derive their fame from being white collar offenders are likely to have an increased chance of being found guilty. Celebrities classified as limited public figures are at a greater risk of a guilty verdict. Combinations of these extra judicial factors and the attribute values modify the chance of a guilty verdict.

Though one study cannot provide all definitive answers to a question of this depth, our investigation and analyses of celebrity adjudication indicates that there are several extra judicial factors that influence celebrity adjudication. Further work should be done with a greater number of observations to further elaborate on the initial study.
References
# Appendix One
All Rules Concluding with Lift Greater than One

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONF</th>
<th>LIFT</th>
<th>IF Type</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Notoriety</th>
<th>Adjudication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>Public Figure</td>
<td>Non-whites</td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>Public Figure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>Public Figure</td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-whites</td>
<td>Not Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Limited Public Figure</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Limited Public Figure</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>White Collar and Organized Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>Offenses Against the Person Excluding Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>Offenses Against the Person Excluding Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>Offenses Against the Person Excluding Homicide</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>Guilty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Looking Through an Inclusive Lens: Training Secondary Education Student Teachers to Apply Principles of Universal Design

M. Susan Claflin  
Barbara Eddins  
Doug Eicher  
Missouri Western State University

“Universal Design for Learning provides a blueprint for creating instructional goals, methods, materials, and assessments that work for everyone – not a single, one-size-fits-all solution but rather flexible approaches that can be customized and adjusted for individual needs” (Rose and Meyer, 2002).

Introduction

Access to the general education curriculum is an important goal for all secondary level students. Reviewing the historical progression of educating students with disabilities, one can begin with the early mandates in Public Law 94-142 that were signed into law in 1975. The premise of this law was the equal access to education for all students in our country. As this law developed and became the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, the principles of the Least Restrictive Environment evolved. Educating students with disabilities along with non-handicapped peers, to the greatest extent possible in the general education curriculum, became the norm. Further updates to the law (CEC, 2004) focused on increasing accountability for students with special needs, an area of alignment with the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NEA, 2004). In fact, as one reviews the federal education mandates through the past four decades, one can trace this evolutionary process of educating students with special needs from a focus on educational opportunity to a focus on educational outcomes (Brownell, Sindelar, Kiely, & Danielson, 2010).

The Obama administration’s plans for reauthorizing the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) focuses on educational outcomes. Calling for equity and opportunity for all students, ESEA sets goals for meeting the needs of diverse learners in an era of increasing accountability (ESEA, 2010). Given the complex requirements of teaching and learning in secondary schools, the question arises, how do we meet the disparate needs of students?

Included in the ESEA is a plan for providing teachers with the support they need to help all students meet stringent standards. Support identified in the plan will impact those working at the pre-service education level. According to the ESEA plan, teacher preparation programs will be held accountable for preparing teachers who will be successful in the classroom – a classroom that is increasingly diverse given that it includes students with disabilities and students for which English is their second language.

Secondary teacher training programs, in particular, are responsible for ensuring that pre-service teachers are not only competent in the content knowledge of their subject area but also possess the unique teaching techniques needed to teach the content (NCATE, 2001). Guidance provided in the Higher Education Opportunity Act of 2008 (HEOA, 2008) suggests that teacher preparation programs include information about Universal Design for Learning (UDL) principles in college coursework. The National Education Association (NEA) has published a policy brief that includes “teacher preparation coursework emphasizing the application of UDL” as a key policy initiative (NEA, 2008). With increased accountability secondary teacher training programs have a more critical role in preparing teachers to insure all students receive a world-class education.
Universal Design for Learning (UDL)

“Universal Design” is a term with roots in architecture. Legislation mandating accessible buildings (ADA, 1994) resulted in expensive retrofitting projects. Recognizing that creating structures and products that were accessible – from the beginning – was a more cost effective process, the practice of universal design became commonplace in the field of architecture. Having conducted research for years on educational procedures and tools that increased accessibility for students with disabilities, researchers at the Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST) borrowed from the “universal design” movement in architecture to develop the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) framework. David Rose and Anna Meyer, the co-founders of CAST, saw UDL as a set of principles for curriculum development that gives all individuals equal opportunities to learn.

Rose & Meyer, (2002) describe UDL as a tool for flexibility within the classroom and the curriculum of a school district and the supports needed to provide the learning and basic concepts within a specific curriculum. They further clarify by stating that “the concept of UDL is the intersection where all our initiatives -- integrated units, multi-sensory teaching, multiple intelligences, differentiated instruction, use of computers in schools, performance-based assessment, and others -- come together” (p. 7). The three key principles that are the foundation of UDL are shown in Table 1.

Developing new approaches and tools to support the equal opportunity learning of all students, CAST researchers provide user friendly tools and resources that can be used by general educators to apply the principles of UDL in their classroom. Applying UDL principles from the beginning, saves teachers time as adaptations and accommodations are no longer a focus.

Rationale for Study:

This study began as a result of concerns voiced by clinical supervisors regarding the difficulty secondary content area student teachers had in working with students with diverse needs in the general education classroom. Included in the group of clinical supervisors, that had concerns, were two of the study’s authors. One author had recently completed supervisory duties with two student teachers that required numerous interventions on how to support the learning of diverse students in the general education classroom. A second author had received feedback – over several semesters – that described the discomfort student teachers had with making accommodations for students with diverse needs.

At our university, the secondary content area student teacher takes only two courses in methods and management through the education department. The courses taken in the education department, and taught by education department instructors, are a Junior level course that teaches basic lesson planning skills, assessment techniques, and an overview of behavior management. A two credit hour special education survey course is also required. This course focuses on teaching students special education legal issues, characteristics of numerous disabilities and some strategic instruction methods.

Students seeking a secondary content area teaching license take their secondary content methods courses from their content area instructor in the School of Liberal Arts and Sciences in the Department of Health and Physical Education. A review of content area methods course syllabi was completed to see how making accommodations, for students with diverse needs in the general education content area class, was addressed. Information collected from that review indicated students received limited, if any, exposure to alternative teaching methods in content area methods courses. Acknowledging a continued local, state, and national trend in the field of secondary education, where students with diverse needs were receiving instruction in inclusive general education classrooms (OSEP, 2004), the authors felt an immediate strategy was needed to support the secondary content area student teachers ability to teach students with diverse needs.

One approach to addressing the issue of preparing content area student teachers’ ability to work with diverse students would be to propose curriculum changes to the content area methods courses. Another approach considered, was to make changes to the courses being offered by education department faculty. Upon review those courses did not provide a “high impact” solution as students often took their content area methods courses after they had taken the required Education Department courses. Ultimately, attendance at a national professional development conference provided the authors with the idea that UDL
might provide the framework that the student teachers could use to support the diverse learner in their
general education classroom. After further discussion, it was decided that teaching students the principles
and skills for applying UDL, during their Senior seminar, was a viable option.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether exposure to UDL principles would impact the
student teachers’ ability to address the needs of diverse students in the general education classroom.
Specifically, we wanted to know if providing student teachers with training on the principles of UDL
would impact their level of comfort when working with students with diverse needs and impact their
ability to meet the needs of diverse students in inclusive settings. In addition we wanted to know if the
students could effectively include UDL principles in unit teaching plan.

**Methods**

**Setting**

This study was conducted during the fall Senior seminar course. Senior seminar is a companion
course to student teaching; a three week course that student teachers take before they begin their twelve
week field placement. Senior seminar meets every day for three weeks for four hours per day.

**Participants**

Ten student teachers began and participated in this study. An IRB proposal was submitted and approved
before the study began. All student teachers were required to complete the lesson plan activity but were
given the choice of completing the survey used in the study. All student teachers chose to complete the
survey. Table 2 shows the content areas represented in this study and number of student teachers from
each content area.

*(See Table 2)*

**Procedures**

Student teachers were introduced to the principles and application of UDL during a presentation, by
two of the authors, during the second week of the three week seminar. The student teachers were
provided with a brief historical overview of the universal design movement in architecture, an overview
of the neuroscience research that was completed by researchers at the Center for Applied Technology
(CAST), the research-based framework and principles that define UDL, and an interactive tour of the
online resources and supports CAST makes available through their website([http://www.cast.org/research/udl/index.html](http://www.cast.org/research/udl/index.html)). The day following the introductory presentation
the third author (instructor of record for the course) presented the student teachers with an assignment that
required the student teachers develop a teaching unit that incorporated the principles of UDL. The
instructor also spent time describing additional resources — including sites with examples of lesson plans
integrating the principles of UDL. Those resources were found on the National Center on Universal
Design for Learning website. ([http://www.udlcenter.org/aboutudl/udlguidelines](http://www.udlcenter.org/aboutudl/udlguidelines) ) The students presented
their teaching units during the final week of the seminar course.

**Data Collection**

Data were collected from two sources: pre-post survey responses and instructor evaluation of a lesson
plan. The survey, completed during the second class meeting and again during the last class meeting,
included three open ended questions and three 5-point Likert scale questions. The open-ended questions
asked the students to describe where they had encountered students with diverse needs during field
experiences, what adaptations they had made when working with the students with diverse needs, and
what courses prepared them to make the adaptations.

The three Likert-scale questions asked students to rate their response using a 5-point scale with 5 being
high and 1 being low. Students were asked to rate their level of comfort beginning their field placement,
their overall preparation for handling inclusion from their methods courses, and their perception of their
overall effectiveness in making accommodations. In addition, students were asked if they were
comfortable with the researchers contacting them for follow-up information at the end of the semester.
The students were asked to provide their cell phone number if they were willing to be contacted for
further information regarding their UDL unit plans.

Instructor evaluations were used to document how each student incorporated the principles of UDL
into the content area lesson plan they developed. The three authors completed the evaluations while the
students presented their unit plans. Each evaluation sheet was designed to allow the evaluators to note how the seminar student chose to incorporate the three UDL principles into their lesson plan: representation, expression, and engagement.

Results

The data gathered from the open-ended questions is presented in Table 3. When asked where student teachers had encountered students with diverse needs during their field experiences, all eleven students reported having had experiences working with diverse students in their Junior experience placements. (All students working toward a degree in education – elementary and/or secondary – have a required one hour a day clinical placement during their Junior experience course.) The three students preparing to be PE teachers described additional experiences with diverse students. These additional experiences took place while taking a required Adaptive PE course. During this course students work one-on-one with diverse students (physical and mental disabilities). The adaptations reported by students included reading exam questions out loud, shortened assignments, reviewing instructions, making adaptations to equipment, modified levels of activity, or modified outcomes of activities (i.e., participating with goal of enjoyment rather than competition). When asked what courses prepared the student teachers to make adaptations, the Adaptive PE and the Psychology and Education of the Exceptional Child course was identified as the course that prepared the three PE student teachers to make adaptations. Six students identified the Psychology and Education of the Exceptional Child course as the course providing them with the information needed to make adaptations. One student did not list any course.

(See Table 3)

Figure 1 presents the results for the Likert-scale items. Survey results illustrate students felt more comfortable beginning their field placement after receiving UDL training (mean 3.89, possible range 5-1) than before UDL training (mean 3.36, possible range 5-1). The students reported feeling more prepared to handle inclusion after the UDL training (4.4, possible range 5-1) than before UDL training (3.27, range 5-1). And finally, the student’s perception of effectiveness in making accommodations improved after the UDL training (4.4, range of 5-1) from before the UDL training (3.6, range 5-1).

(See Figure 1)

Ten student teachers completed a teaching unit. Table 4 presents the guidelines that student teachers included in their lesson plans. Each student included at least one option from each of the guidelines in their lesson plan with the majority of students including two examples. The options included most often were in the area of representation. Providing options for representation is needed so students with diverse needs all have equal opportunities to learn information. Representation is broken down into sub-categories that address perception, language and symbols, and comprehension. The use of PowerPoint presentations was the method chosen the most often to support students in the area of perception. Providing definitions for vocabulary and using illustrations during activities were the most common language and symbol method. Demonstrations and models were the methods used most often to ensure comprehension.

Expression is the second guideline highlighted in UDL. This guideline incorporates action and expression. Physical action options were included with demonstrations being a common method. Students included methods for expressive skills in their lesson plans, with the choice between speaking or drawing included the most. Students included independent goal setting activities in art and physical education lesson plans.

The final guideline, engagement, includes options for recruiting interest, sustaining effort, and self-regulation. All the presented teaching units included the opportunity for student choice. The option of sustaining effort was addressed in lesson plans by providing many opportunities for group work in academic activities and individual work during physical activities. Self-evaluation activities were included in the area of self-regulation.

(See Table 4)

Discussion

This study was undertaken to determine whether exposure to the principles of UDL would impact the secondary student teacher’s ability to address the needs of diverse students in the general education
classroom. The majority of the student teachers in this study reported having few, if any, encounters with students with diverse needs or experiences making adaptations for students with diverse needs before their senior seminar. The information and skills they learned pertaining to UDL appeared to be important in increasing their comfort level when working with students with diverse needs. Furthermore, the results of this study demonstrate that providing student teachers with training about UDL can be a viable way to address the needs of students with diverse needs in the general education classroom.

The authors have identified several limitations to this study. First, this study included a convenience sample of only ten students. Because this study was conducted in the fall semester when there is historically a lower enrollment in the Senior seminar the authors plan to complete this study during the spring semester when enrollment is typically higher.

Second, the students were given a cursory overview of UDL and limited support in applying the principles in preparation of unit plans. The authors believe teaching students about the principles of UDL and providing more instruction in applying the principles to the development of lesson plans earlier and at a more integral level in the seminar are essential. In fact, the authors believe it is critical to work toward incorporating the principles of UDL into methods courses that secondary student teachers are required to complete. Whether that integration can be accomplished in the secondary content methods courses, or be included in the more generic Junior experience course taught in the education department, will need to be explored further.

Third, the students were not required to implement the unit plans they developed during their actual student teaching experience. Although student teachers indicated in their final course evaluations that they had included several of the UDL options when teaching various lessons in their clinical placements, further studies need to be conducted to determine the impact of teaching the units, that included the principles of UDL, in general classroom settings. Moreover, the authors believe that focusing on the assessment components of UDL in unit plans is a critical component of future studies.

Conclusion

In speaking to educators regarding the ESEA, the Obama administration has made it a national priority that every student receive a world-class education. Competent teachers are integral to this goal. Being a competent teacher means one can meet the needs of all students they teach. It is the authors’ assertions that by applying the principles of UDL in classrooms, teachers will help their students achieve the success implicit in this goal.

And finally, higher education faculty must continue to look for ways to collaborate to instruct future teachers. Through the collaborative endeavor described in this paper, student teachers will help their students achieve the success implicit in the goal of students receiving a world-class education. Such training is essential if teachers are to meet the increasingly diverse needs of students.

References:


Table 1

*Principles of UDL*

1. Provide multiple and flexible methods of *presentation* to give students with diverse learning styles various ways of acquiring information and knowledge;

2. Provide multiple and flexible means of *expression* to provide diverse students with alternatives for demonstrating what they have learned;

3. Provide multiple and flexible means of *engagement* to tap into diverse learners’ interests, challenge them appropriately, and motivate them to learn.

Rose and Meyer, 2002

Table 2

*Content areas of student teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secondary Content Area</th>
<th>Number of student teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Languages</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3

*Open-ended Survey Questions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Open-ended question</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Where did you encounter students with diverse needs in your previous field experiences?</td>
<td>11 responses - Junior experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 responses - Junior experience and Adaptive PE courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What adaptations did you make?</td>
<td>Academic adaptations – shortened assignments, reading exam questions out loud, reviewing instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE adaptations - equipment adaptations, modified levels of activity, outcomes modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What courses prepared you to make the adaptations?</td>
<td>Adaptive PE course - 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Psychology of Exceptional Children - 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No course - 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1

Survey Results

- Level of comfort beginning your field placement
- Overall preparation for handling inclusion
- Perception of your overall effectiveness in making accommodations

Mean - Pre UDL training survey
Mean - Post UDL training survey
Table 4
Examples of UDL guideline options used in student teacher unit plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UDL guideline</th>
<th>Examples of guideline options used in student teacher unit plans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Representation</td>
<td>Perception - PowerPoint presentations, flash cards, skeleton, overheads, photos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language and Symbols – define vocabulary, describe music symbols, color coded illustrations of exercises, highlight important terms, hyperlinks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension – graphic organizers, music charts, demonstrations, models, provide examples and non-examples, outlines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressive skills – respond using speech, drawings, music, visual arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executive functions – set personal activity goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Engagement</td>
<td>Recruiting interest – find own materials to use in activities, choose reading passage, choose activity to complete, provide a variety of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sustaining effort – individual fitness plans, collaborating in groups, emphasize process not outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-regulation – students self-evaluate activity and level of performance, students complete self-reflections on participation, guide goal setting,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Physical Activity: What Is It, and Why Is It Important?

Becky J. Cox
Laura Brown
The University of Tennessee at Martin

Introduction

Red Rover. Freeze Tag. Cowboys and Indians. Hide and Seek. No, these are not the names of the newest movies or wii© games. Rather, they are the names of games that scores of children have played while outdoors that required no implements, no toys, and no batteries. Maybe you remember a group of kids getting together and someone beginning, “Not it!” Or maybe decisions were made with “eenie, meenie, miney, moe.” For a variety of reasons, today’s children are not spending as much time playing outdoors as previous generations. Less time is being spent doing physical activities. The purpose of this article is to bring to light the importance of children participating in physical activities. This timely topic includes more facets than could be addressed in this paper; therefore, this paper will focus on the recommendations from the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), the health benefits of physical activity and the behavioral benefits of physical activity.

What is Physical Activity?

Physical activity is often confused with physical education. Physical activity allows for self-expression, enjoyment, and self-respect outside of the school arena. Physical activity is not considered instructional time and is experienced via recess, intramurals and recreational opportunities (NASPE, 2010). According to Ginsburg (2007), the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) supports active free play, stating that it aids in the development of healthy children through their physical, emotional, cognitive and social well-being. The AAP also states that the benefits include healthy brain development, dexterity, physical and emotional strength, as well as imagination development.

Likewise, the Journal of the American Medical Association suggests intervention strategies to promote lifelong physical activity among children (Anderson, Carlos, Bartlett, Cheskin, & Pratt, 1998). The Journal of Sport Sciences states that physical activity of youth declines with age (Biddle, Gorely, & Stensel, 2004). According to Strong, Malina, Blimkie, et al. (2005), school age children should participate in moderate to vigorous physical activity for at least 60 minutes daily. Anderson et al. (1998) found that vigorous activity levels are lowest among females. These findings lead us to believe that the focus must be on increasing duration of exercise for all youth, educating children on the importance of lifelong fitness, as well as targeting girls with the importance of fitness.

What is Physical Education?

According to NASPE (2010), physical education teaches skills and knowledge required to maintain an active and healthy lifestyle. There are six national standards for physical education; more than half of them describe the importance of participation in physical activity. National Standards have been developed for Physical Education (NASPE, 2004):

Physical activity is critical to the development and maintenance of good health. The goal of physical education is to develop physically educated individuals who have the knowledge, skills, and confidence to enjoy a lifetime of healthful physical activity.

A physically educated person:

Standard 1: Demonstrates competency in motor skills and movement patterns needed to perform a variety of physical activities.

Standard 2: Demonstrates understanding of movement concepts, principles, strategies, and tactics as they apply to the learning and performance of physical activities.
Standard 3: Participates regularly in physical activity.
Standard 4: Achieves and maintains a healthy-enhancing level of physical fitness.
Standard 5: Exhibits responsible personal and social behavior that respects self and other in physical activity settings.
Standard 6: Values physical activity for health, enjoyment, challenge, self-expression, and/or social interaction.

Instructional time in physical education should be provided to elementary school children for 150 minutes per week and middle and high school students should participate in 225 minutes per week throughout the course of the school year. As stated by the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NAPSE, 2004), “physical activity provides opportunities for self-expression and social interaction that can be enjoyable, challenging and fun” (p. 24).

Is There a Relationship Between Children’s Physical Activity and Health Benefits?

According to the National Environmental Education Foundation (NEEF, 2009), the children of today are the first generation at risk of living a shorter lifespan than their parents live. With the popularity of television programs, online activities and video games, children are spending an increasing amount of time in sedentary situations and a decreasing amount of time outdoors. Increasing the amount of physical activity that children participate in will provide them with immediate health benefits (Pangrazzi & Beighle, 2009). By increasing their heart rate, children have the opportunity to burn fat as well as make strides towards decreasing their blood pressure. These benefits are extremely important as the risk of an obese child at age 4 becoming an obese adult is 20%; alarmingly, the risk increases to 80% by the time a child reaches adolescence (Guo & Chumlea, 1999). The National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (NCCDPHP, 2009) reports that obesity rates of children ages 6 to 11 have more than doubled in the past twenty years, rising from 6.5% to 17.0% in 2006. Additionally, obesity rates for adolescents, ages 12 to 19, more than tripled during the same period, increasing from 5% to 17.6%. Studies show that obese children are at a greater risk than normal weight children to become overweight or obese adults. (NEEF, 2009; NCCDPHP, 2009) A recent study found that approximately 80% of children who were overweight during ages 10-15 were obese adults at the age of 25 (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2009). Approximately 9 million of the children currently living in the United States are overweight or obese (NEEF, 2009). In 2008, only one state (Colorado) had a prevalence of obesity less than 20%. The assumption is that Colorado has vast opportunities for outdoor recreation year round, which may lead to the decreased obesity level in that state (CDCP, 2009; Behavioral Risk Factor, 2009). Obese adolescents, and an increasing number of children, are also at a greater risk for cardiovascular disease (such as high blood pressure and high cholesterol), stroke, multiple types of cancer, and osteoarthritis compared to children that maintain a healthy weight (CDCP, 2009).

Another health issue associated with childhood obesity is Type 2 diabetes. Although Type 2 diabetes is usually considered an adult disease, current data show that approximately 176,500 cases have been recently diagnosed in children and adolescents (Diabetes Dateline, 2009). A common risk factor for Type 2 diabetes is being overweight or obese (CDCP, 2009). As the percentage of overweight children increases, the number of children diagnosed with Type 2 diabetes also increases. Children that play outside are more vigorous in their movements and are apt to burn more calories (Plaff, 2009). The result of increased calorie burning can combat or decrease the high-risk health issues resulting from being overweight. Likewise, pulmonary illnesses are also associated with obesity in children. Currently 9.4% of the children living in the United States suffer from asthma. Overweight children are at an increased risk of developing asthma (Bender, Fuhlbrigge, Walters, & Zhang, 2007; Schachter, Salome, Peat & Woolcock, 2001). Sherriff et al. (2009) found that children who watched TV more than 2 hours per day were twice as likely to develop asthma at age 11 compared to children who watched TV for one-two hours per day. Additionally, obese children are at a greater risk for multiple health issues including bone and joint problems, and sleep apnea. Besides the physical problems associated with obesity, obese children may also suffer from social and psychological issues such as low self-esteem (NCCDPHP, 2009). An immediate consequence children face for being overweight or obese is that of social discrimination; unfortunately, overweight or obese children are at a greater risk of suffering from poor self-esteem and/or
depression than peers who are of or near average weight (NCCDPHP, 2009; The Surgeon General, 2009). Moreover, stress in children is on the increase. In a study focusing on childhood stress, results indicate that contact with nature decreases stress in children, and high levels of natural environment exposure results in low levels of stress in children (Wells, 2003).

Are There Behavioral Benefits to Physical Activity?

Spending time outdoors in physical activities has been linked to many psychological benefits. According to Plaff (2009), outdoor play improves attention spans, and increases self-control for students diagnosed with Attention Deficit – Hyperactivity Disorder (AD-HD). Taylor, Kuo, & Sullivan (2001) conducted a study comparing attention functioning of children with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) in indoor versus outdoor settings. They found that children are able to function better after participating in activities conducted in greener settings. In a separate study for children with AD-HD, Kuo & Taylor (2004), report that a 20-minute walk in nature is associated with better concentration children with AD-HD. A 2009 research project required students who have AD-HD to participate in activities in a variety of settings. These students spent time in a park, a quiet downtown area, and a neighborhood. Results show that the students exhibit a better attention span after being out of doors (Faber & Kuo, 2009). Louv (2005) stated students participating in outdoor recreational opportunities demonstrated better attendance and behavior compared to students in traditional classrooms.

What are the Effects of Recess and Physical Activity?

Szcesi (2008) describes recess as a time when students have little interaction with their teacher, and spend time playing with friends. Recess time that is included in the daily classroom schedule is not the same as physical education (NAESP, 2009). “What is most important about recess is that it is the only unstructured time in a long day for many children.” (Schippers, para. 5, 2008). The complexion of the traditional school day in the United States may have recently changed, in part, due to the “No Child Left Behind” mandates that precipitate a demanding program of preparing for standardized tests (Chmelynski, 1998). Many schools have removed or reduced the amount of time students spend in music, art, and recess. Parents and educators alike question the trend to shorten recess time, as they speculate that it is harmful to students (Henley, McBride, Milligan, & Nichols, 2007). Other concerns have triggered reduced recess time. Shortage of staff to monitor recess is mentioned as a challenge. Some schools have opted out of recess due to worries that students may get hurt while playing outside (Rushkin, 2006); concerns over lawsuits resulting from playground accidents have also reduced recess in some school districts (Chmelynski, 1998). These matters lead to the demise of recess in many schools (Bohn & Pellegrini, 2005). Schools may try to counter the lack of recess time with extra time in physical education, but that is not an even trade (Chmelynski, 1998). Furthermore, some educators believe that students should spend their school day with academics, and spend time after school on free time activities (Chmelynski, 1998). However, Dubroc (2007) states that school offers children more opportunities to spend time with each other, as many students are members of the latchkey society. Additionally, well-meaning adults may have every after-school minute jam-packed with lessons and organized activities such as sports, Scouts, music lessons, or tutoring. Although these hobbies have their place, they also reduce the amount of free time that children have to be playing (Schippers, 2008).

How Do We Encourage Childhood Physical Activity?

Parents can be good role models for their children by providing opportunities and participating in physical activities. These activities should be fun! Biking, hiking, and roller skating are fun activities the family can enjoy together. Additionally, time can be made for more physical activities by reducing inactive situations such as computer games or watching television (Pate, Davis, Robison, et al., 2006). Children and youth enjoy a game of tag or chase. Other good activities include kite flying, swinging, playing Frisbee or climbing on monkey bars (Roy, 2005). Football, soccer, tennis, basketball, baseball, and kickball involve movements that contribute to a healthy lifestyle. Additional activities that children enjoy include going to the zoo, the park, playing miniature golf, or other events where walking is required. Encourage children to participate in household tasks that require movement, such as car washing, dog walking, bagging leaves, or weeding the garden (Pate, Davis, Robison, et al, 2006). Constantinou (2009) suggests encouraging each other by forming activity groups that provide support and
motivation while holding others accountable for time spent being physically active. In addition to being with friends, the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) encourages everyone to be prepared for physical activity at any time. For example, always keep a pair of tennis shoes with you, keep your bike tires aired up and carry a change of clothes in your backpack in case you go to a friend’s house after school.

**Discussion**

It is vital that children are educated on the importance of exercise and how to maintain a healthy lifestyle, both at home and at school. Yes, the world has certainly changed. Many factors play into the situation of children and their lack of time spent playing outdoors. The recent surge in technology has played a major factor, but technology alone cannot be blamed for all of the woes.

Not long ago, we were the kids ready to run outside and play; sometimes we argued, then we worked it out quickly so we could get on with the fun. It is up to us to come up with a plan and get on with it. Children who are encouraged to spend time participating in physical activities might just find out how much fun it is! Being physically active keeps both adults and children healthier. We must provide outdoor opportunities for our most important resource, our children.

**References**


Faber, T., & Kuo, F. (2009). Children with attention deficits concentrate better after walk in the park. *Journal of Attention Disorders, 12: 402-409*


Schachter, L., Salome, C., Peat, J., & Woolcock, A. (2001). Obesity is a risk for asthma and wheeze but not airway hyper-responsiveness. Thorax. 56(1):4-8


Szecsi, T. (2006). To have or not to have: recess from an international perspective. Childhood Education, Retrieved from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3614/is_/ai_n17174717


Student Teachers Evaluate Cooperating Teachers in Predominately Hispanic Community

Criselda G. Garcia
Hosin Shirvani
University of Texas Pan American

Cooperating teachers play a vital role in the preparation of pre-service teachers as they mentor student teachers during the final phase of becoming a professional educator. As all states require student teaching, a full-time practicum, for teacher certification, there is an impetus for examining this relationship closer for several important reasons. One important reason is that despite the training and preparation pre-service teachers receive, the most influential person in the pre-service teacher development is the cooperating teacher, also known as mentor teacher. Cooperating teachers spend the most time with the student teacher and highly impact their professional growth. Mentors greatly influence the teaching style and practices of student teachers (Kahan, D., Sinclair, C., Saucier, L., & Caiozzi, N., 2003; Woods & Weasmer, 2003). For example, Woods and Weasmer (2003) found that the mentor teachers sway the student teachers in a variety of ways including the influence of adopting a preferred teaching style, of selecting instructional methods and strategies and of exhibiting a certain degree of professional behavior. Another important reason for the need to further examine this relationship is that in many cases, mentors receive little if no training or incentive (financial or otherwise) for the supervision of student teachers (Kent, 2001). Requirements for serving as a mentor teacher vary from state to state along with type of training provided to mentors.

The implications of studying the relationship between cooperating teacher and student teachers are paramount. It is critically significant to explore the complicated relationship between cooperating teacher and student teacher in order to identify factors that result in a positive experience. And more importantly, examine the perceptions and experiences that student teachers encounter during this practicum in effort to improve the quality of this critical component in teacher preparation.

Purpose of the Study

Pre-service teacher candidates spend the majority of their preparation in student teaching with their cooperating teacher; therefore, the cooperating teacher has a tremendous influential role in the development of the student teacher. The requisite skills, teaching practices and personal qualities of effective mentors hold tremendous importance. This study is significant because teacher preparation programs may improve the quality of the student teaching practicum by identifying factors that contribute to a positive educational experience. Pre-service teachers may offer vast insight into this complicated dynamic relationship by evaluating their cooperating teachers, and for that reason, the following research questions guided the study: 1) What are student teachers’ perceptions of assigned cooperating teachers in a predominately Hispanic, high poverty community? 2) What conceptions of mentoring did the student teachers have regarding the assigned mentors? To answer the first question, a survey instrument was developed using a Likert-Type scale with 25 questions. For the second research question, a qualitative component was added to the study in effort to examine the type of mentoring relationship that contributed to level of satisfaction. A series of open-ended questions were added to the survey for this purpose.

Review of Literature

The literature on mentoring has produced a variety of typologies, conceptions and models with much overlap between these (Hawkey, 1997). There are vast differences in approaches to studying the mentor teacher and student teacher relationship. Some researchers have attempted to describe types or concepts of mentorship, while others have studied mentorship as a developmental process. Specifically, several
studies have examined a stage of development model of student teachers in learning to teach including a continuum from early idealism to reaching a plateau (Maynard & Furlong, 1993, as cited in Hawkey, 1997). In response, researchers developed three conceptual models of mentoring: apprenticeship, competency, and reflective (Hawkey, 1997). Basically, the mentor model describes a series of stages that function in response to student teacher stage of development (1997).

Other researchers have attempted to identify mentorship types by examining the types of interactions between student teachers and mentors (Young, Bullough, Draper, Smith & Erickson, 2005). For example, by using symbolic interactionist orientation (ways humans act and interpret meanings), some researchers identified three patterns of mentoring--responsive, interactive and directive (2005). Basically, a responsive mentor serves as a guide, while an interactive mentor serves primarily as a partner with mutual support, and a directive mentor takes on a more leadership role with clearly defined expectations of a protégé (2005). However other scholars have defined the mentoring relationship as a more personal relationship described as a "constructive partnership" (Awaya, McEwan, Heyler, Linsky, Lum & Wakukawa, 2003) which results from the process of building an equal relationship between the cooperating teacher and student teacher. In other words, the mentor teacher and student teacher are considered partners of equal status sharing an experience of professional growth.

While some studies in the literature have focused on the mentoring relationship, others have accentuated the qualities of an effective mentor teacher/cooperating teacher to explore this complicated partnership. Kahn (2001) found that good cooperating teachers are flexible, easy to work with and have positive communication skills. In another study, although it only dealt with a small sample of two mentor student teacher pairs, Glenn (2006) found that effective mentors collaborated, provided constructive feedback, and developed personal relationships with student teachers. Another study by Hall, Draper, Smith and Bullough (2008) concluded that in order for mentor teachers to be effective, they must model effective practice, offer feedback and engage in conversations about teaching practice. A general agreement of the qualities is that the mentor serves as a model of good teaching, provide feedback and serve as a source of support (Glenn, 2006; Hall et al., 2008; Kahn, 2001).

The dynamic between the mentor teacher and student teacher is complex for several reasons. There are certain issues that complicate the mentoring relationship from the onset. A fundamental problem with the mentoring relationship is that the cooperating teacher is required to evaluate the student teacher; thereby not allowing this relationship to develop into an authentic mentorship. True mentors do not evaluate or assess their protégés since a mentorship should be based on trust and support. However in most teacher education programs, the cooperating teacher is required to evaluate student teacher as part of his/her responsibility. This often results as a power differential between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher that complicates the relationship. As stated by Awaya, McEwan, Heyler, Linsky, Lum and Wakukawa (2003), "talk of 'the role of the mentor' entails a presumption of rank and of a hierarchical relationship in which the mentor assumes the dominant role and the student teacher is relegated to the dependent position" (p.48). According to Anderson (2007), mentor teachers execute a role of power over the student teacher in implicit and explicit ways. For example, some may correct student teachers as they deliver lessons based on their own preference of teaching style, establishing their dominant role in the relationship (Anderson, 2007). Similarly, Glenn (2006) as a student teacher supervisor, observed a possible reluctance on behalf of student teachers to disrupt this power balance and contradict teacher's practices. Interestingly, to avoid any type of confrontation, student teachers are more likely to replicate the mentor teacher's teaching style and practice and not implement other practices learned in teacher education programs. Student teachers want to receive positive evaluations as they rely on their mentor teachers for employment recommendations.

Theoretical Framework

For the purposes of the study, Bradbury and Koballa’s (2008) conceptions of mentoring were utilized in defining the type of mentoring received by the student teacher (p. 2133). By using this model, the beliefs and values held by mentor teachers and student teachers helped define the expectations of the mentoring relationship. Bradbury and Koballa (2008) defined “conceptions of mentoring” as ideas and thoughts of what mentoring is and how these transform into practice held by both mentors and student
teachers. Bradbury and Koballa (2008) identified three types of conceptions which are apprentice, moral supporter and collaborative partnership (p. 2134). One common view of this relationship is that of apprentice in which the mentor, as a leader, scaffolds teaching practice by modeling expert knowledge and exerting practical knowledge. In many ways, the student teacher is in a state of survival during the practicum and learning to navigate in the complexities of the school environment. The mentor serves as a guide and offer immediate resolutions to problems that arise in the field. In the second view, the mentor is a moral supporter, which delves more directly with the affective nature of mentoring. The mentor supports and encourages the student teacher. In this role, the mentor's central concern is with the student teacher's feelings of the experience and not teaching practice. The mentor believes that building a trusting friendship supersedes the need to focus on the student teacher's teaching. In this view, mentors believe the student teaching experience to be highly stressful and challenging; therefore, believe their primary role is to offer constant moral support and encouragement. Many share their own experiences, offer positive feedback and/or merely act as a listener to assist the student teacher throughout the practicum. In the third view, the mentoring relationship is seen as a collaborative partnership. Both mentors and student teachers are seen as sources of knowledge and contributors in resolving problems. “This view is more egalitarian in nature with mentors and interns considering themselves as partners rather than the mentor holding a more authoritative position” (as cited in Bradbury & Koballa, 2008, p. 2134; Awaya et al., 2003).

Methods

The study’s mixed methods research design used quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions. For analysis purposes, descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the overall experiences that student teachers had during their practicum. To gain a better understanding of the experience as perceived by the student teacher, a qualitative component was utilized in the study as a set of five open-ended questions. By analyzing this data, greater insight of the student teaching experience was attained.

Participants and Setting

A group of 290 student teachers were surveyed in a teacher education program during fall 2008 and spring 2009 in a Hispanic-serving institution in south Texas. The 25-item Likert scale survey was provided through a Blackboard course designed for all student teachers and completed at the end of each term. Eighty-six of the participants in the study were female while 13% were male. The student teachers were comprised of 85% Hispanic, 3% White and 11% did not identify. The group of student teachers was enrolled in elementary, middle school, high school, and all level teacher certification programs.

The University of Texas Pan American is located in a high poverty region in south Texas approximately 20 minutes from the U.S./Mexico border and distinctly bicultural, as many people speak both English and Spanish. Approximately 88% of students attending are Hispanic (University of Texas-Pan American, 2009).

Procedure

The triangulation design of this mixed-methods research assisted in comparing participant responses from the quantitative survey 25-items with more detailed qualitative entries of the open-ended questions. Participants answered the questionnaire and open-ended questions via a survey through a Blackboard course at the end of the student teaching semester. It involved the collection of the survey responses in answering the first research question regarding the evaluation of the practicum; the Likert scale ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Secondly, the open-ended question responses allowed for analysis of the qualitative data with the assistance of NVivo software for organizing and coding data. To better understand the research problem, the quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously (Creswell, 2002). The basic rationale for this design is that each data collection form brings strengths to the research inquiry as one set of data is compared to other in effort to determine if there is support of respective findings (2002). By using this mixed-methods research design, a more in-depth analysis of the student teacher's perceptions of assigned cooperating teachers and their conception of mentoring were possible.
Data Analysis

The purpose of the mixed methods analysis design allows for the merging of quantitative and qualitative data for greater insight into research problem (Creswell, 2002). This concurrent triangulation approach includes integrating the analysis and interpretation phases with a qualitative emphasis. Data collected from the surveys were analyzed by examining the mean scores for each item.

To analyze the qualitative data, a holistic approach and a strategy that can be termed, “reflective-interpretive” (Eisner, 1998) was used. Ozkan (2004) used this approach in a similar research study, and she believed that this approach “fits well with the use of NVivo” (p. 593). Data analysis involved taking reported information and identifying meaningful units. First responses to open-ended questions were analyzed using a pencil and paper method, along with the computer-based qualitative analysis software, QSR NVivo 2.1 version.

The first step in the process of analysis entailed exploring the data by reading through all of the information obtained in order to get a general sense of the information provided by the participants. Preliminary exploration analysis in qualitative research includes acquiring a general sense of the data, noting ideas, and thinking about the organization of the data (Creswell, 2002).

In the next step of the process, data were examined thoroughly in order to describe and develop themes, or broad categories of ideas, from the data in an effort to answer the major research questions and begin the process of forming an understanding of the participants’ experiences had during student teaching. Unit of analysis in this study were descriptions of the types of mentor support experienced by the student teacher. Coding was accomplished with the use of NVivo, by placing references to text (responses to open-ended questions) at nodes that corresponded to each of the concepts of mentorship: apprentice, moral supporter, and collaborative partner. In NVivo, nodes are containers for ideas and concepts, such as, coding categories. By using a holistic approach, initially, data were organized around the three conceptions of mentorship (Bradbury and Koballa, 2008). During this early analysis process, it was noted that the majority of the responses described rationale for a positive experience being attributed to the concept of apprentice. That is mentors were valued for their support in their expertise and practical knowledge. Further analysis and coding was conducted to examine type of apprentice behaviors described by the student teachers. Additional nodes were created to represent the subcategories of emerging patterns such as teaching expertise, and practical knowledge.

After completing the coding process, the nodes in the node browser, a search tool that allows for inspection of all documents with each node, were reviewed to observe the patterns that emerged in response to type of apprentice behaviors most cited. Upon analysis of the coding, reports for each node of expertise and practical knowledge were produced.

Quantitative Findings

To answer the first research question, descriptive statistics of the student teacher's evaluation of the cooperating teacher survey scores were used. General findings of the Likert-scale quantitative responses indicated that overall, 91% of the student teachers believed that their mentors modeled exemplary teacher behavior and 92% felt that the mentor teacher provided the student teacher with a positive educational experience. Table 1 includes a presentation of percentages obtained for some items on the survey.

Qualitative Findings

To provide further description of the type of mentorship provided to the student teacher, data collected from open-ended questions were used. NVivo coding reports provided overall general patterns as well as frequency of responses to these questions. The responses to the qualitative open-ended questions yielded a general dominant pattern of commentary on the view of mentoring consistent with that of the apprenticeship (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008). Ninety-one percent of the responses indicated that their positive experience was attributed to mentors assisting them with expertise and practical knowledge. Table 2 includes a presentation of endorsement rates resulting from reports using NVivo software. Many student teachers mentioned having a positive experience because their mentor teacher guided teaching practice, demonstrating good classroom management, use of technology, planning lessons along with sharing practical knowledge such as advice on handling school activities like fundraising and paperwork. Illustrative examples from the data sources are included to provide a detailed description of this theme.
The majority of the student teachers credited their positive experience to the cooperating teacher's expertise with instruction. One student teacher expressed, "She [mentor teacher] has a great deal of experience and did show me some good strategies for teaching math and science." Another student teacher stated, "I felt that I learned so much from [mentor], especially in terms of classroom management. She had so many great ideas of getting students back on task." Another noted, "I believe that my mentor teacher contributed [by exposing] the experience of an authentic bilingual classroom environment. ...this teacher advocated for her students. She taught them how to read and write in Spanish and when they were developed enough they made the transition into English reading and writing. They were never forced to do their material and assignments in a language that was unknown to them." "The mentor teacher gave me a great amount of information and resources, great examples of classroom motivation, classroom management, strictness on class rules and procedures," another student teacher stated.

In terms of practical knowledge, one student teacher stated, "[Mentor] helped me with my lesson planning, and explained to me how the real world of teaching is, which was always my argument with the university. We need to know about all the testing and how we are to conduct tests; it is a lot of work that is required of teachers. Another student stated, "My mentor introduced me to school policies and procedures." One student explained, "The most positive contribution my mentor teacher made was guiding me through everything. She explained the ARD [Admission Review Dismissal] process in great detail, grades, classroom management, etc. She was also very helpful with anything I needed. Overall I had a great experience."

Discussion
This study examined the relationship between cooperating teacher and student teacher by exploring the student teachers' perspectives of their mentors through the lens of Bradbury and Koballa’s conception of mentoring model (2008). Overall, the findings of the study found 92% of student teachers in a predominately high poverty, Hispanic community, felt that the cooperating teacher provided a positive educational experience. Qualitative data yielded that most participants attributed their positive experience to mentors’ support in the form of expertise and practical knowledge. That is, many valued their cooperating teachers’ pedagogical knowledge such as teaching and classroom management strategies as well as practical knowledge of administering state assessments, and knowledge of effective communication skills to use during parent conferences.

Conclusion
Cooperating teachers play an influential role in shaping the teaching style, beliefs and instructional practices of student teachers. Teacher preparation programs have a significant responsibility of offering student teachers appropriate placements with qualified and effective mentor teachers if there is serious effort in providing a valuable induction into the teaching profession.

Implications of this study suggest a need for further inquiry into the type of mentor teacher trainings that may support a successful transition from student teacher to beginning teacher of Hispanic pre-service teachers. In addition, future in-depth research should examine the role of culture as it relates to type of mentorship that yields a positive experience for Hispanic teacher candidates. Without dispute, the preparation of teachers begins in a teacher education program but continues with cooperating teachers in classrooms as they provide the most influential instruction to future teachers.

References


### Appendix 1

**Table 1. Perceptions of Assigned Cooperating Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Disagree/ Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Was Good Teacher of Children</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provided Positive Experience</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helped with Lesson Plans</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated Teaching Competence</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided My Activities for Students</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated Good Classroom Management</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated Students</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was Fair in Evaluations</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Included Me in Instructional Planning</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Conception of Mentoring**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Number of Entries</th>
<th>Endorsement Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical Knowledge</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Supporter</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative Partner</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>231</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bradbury & Koballa, 2008
Reaction to the Reactions to Tiger Mom

Theodore Tin-Yee Hsieh
Judson University

On January 8, 2011, Yale Law Professor Amy Chua wrote an essay entitled, “Why Chinese Mothers Are Superior” in The Wall Street Journal (WSJ). Three days later, her book, Battle Hymn of the Tiger Mother, was released. Both the article and the book created an immediate storm and a wide range of reactions in the United States, China, and Hong Kong, including some death threats. This paper is a reaction from an intercultural perspective to the mostly critical comments in print and in the Internet about this Chinese-American mother and her child-rearing philosophy and practice.

When the John M. Duff Professor of Law at Yale Law School was an eighth grader, she won second place in a history contest and invited her family to the awards ceremony. Somebody else won first prize. Afterwards, her father admonished her, “Never, never disgrace me like that again” (Chua, 2011a, 17). Thus began the making of a “Tiger Mother.”

The Tiger Mom

The self-described “Tiger Mom,” Amy L. Chua, was born in Champaign, Illinois, in 1962, where her father, Leon O. Chua, was completing his PhD in electrical engineering. Her father taught electrical engineering at Purdue University in West Lafayette, Indiana, between 1964 and 1970. He joined the department of electrical engineering and computer science at the University of California, Berkeley in 1971. Dr. Leon Chua won numerous academic and professional awards, including nine U.S. patents and eight international honorary doctorates. He is known as the father of nonlinear circuit theory and cellular neural networks.

The Chua family has four daughters. Amy is the oldest. After graduating from El Cerrito High School, she attended Harvard College and graduated magna cum laude in economics in 1984 and earned the J.D. cum laude in 1987 from Harvard Law School, where she served as an executive editor of the Harvard Law Review. The second Chua daughter, Michelle graduated from Yale and Yale Law School. Third daughter, Katrin, went to Harvard College and earned the M.D. /PhD from Harvard Medical School. The youngest daughter, Cynthia, was born with Downs Syndrome and won “two international Special Olympic gold medals in swimming” (Chua, 2011a, 18).

Presently, Amy Chua is the John M. Duff Professor of Law at Yale Law School. She is married to Jed Rubenfeld, a fellow Yale Law professor. They have two daughters. Sophia is 18 and Louisa (Lulu) is 15.

The Controversy

On January 8, 2011, The Wall Street Journal published its Saturday essay entitled “Why Chinese Mothers Are Superior” by Amy Chua. The title of the article was like a challenge to “western mothers” with the content even more provocative. Penguin Press released her book, Battle Hymn of the Tiger Mother three days later.

Within days, the online version was read more than one million times (Paul, 2011). Over 5,000 comments were posted online and nearly 100,000 responses noted on Facebook. The book vaulted to #4 on Amazon’s best-seller list (Kolbert, 2011). Chua appeared in numerous major talk media ranging from “All Things Considered” on National Public Radio to “NBC’s Nightly News” and “The Today Show.” She was featured in a Time Magazine cover story followed by special essays written by its star contributors Bill Powell (2011) from Shanghai and Nancy Gibbs (2011) from Washington, D.C.
Reactions to *The Wall Street Journal* excerpt and the book are perhaps even more extreme in China, Hong Kong, and Singapore. *World Journal*, the largest Chinese language newspaper in America, reported that within two days, there were more than 1770 reviews of the article and more than 85,000 forwards in *Facebook* in China alone (*World Journal*, January 11, 2011).

What did “Tiger Mom” say that made her the center of such controversy?

By now the public on both sides of the Pacific are pretty familiar with the way Amy Chua begins her memoir:

“A lot of people wonder how Chinese parents raise such stereotypically successful kids. They wonder what these parents do to produce so many math whizzes and music prodigies, what it’s like inside the family, and whether they could do it too. Well, I can tell them, because I’ve done it. Here are some things my daughters, Sophia and Louisa, were never allowed to do:

- Attend a sleepover
- Have a playdate
- Be in a school play
- Complain about not being in a school play
- Watch TV or play computer games
- Choose their own extracurricular activities
- Get any grade less than an A
- Not be the #1 student in every subject except gym and drama
- Play any instrument other than the piano or violin
- Not play the piano or violin” (Chua, 2011a, 3-4).

In *The Wall Street Journal* article, Chua talked about how she favored coercion by forcing Lulu, 7 at the time, to play a piano piece called, “The Little White Donkey” by French composer Jacques Ibert. She used threats of “No lunch, no dinner, no Christmas or Hanukkah presents.” When her daughter tore the music score to shreds and announced that she was quitting, her mother “hauled Lulu’s dollhouse to the car and threatened to donate it to the Salvation Army.” She then directed Lulu “to stop being lazy, cowardly, self-indulgent and pathetic.” Chua forced her to work “right through dinner into the night, and refused to let Lulu get up, not for water, not even to go the bathroom.” When suddenly Lulu was able to put the piece together, she began “beaming …and wouldn’t leave the piano.” Chua concluded, “Western parents worry a lot about their children’s self-esteem. But as a parent, one of the worst things you can do for your child’s self-esteem is to let them give up” (Chua, 2011b).

With these rules and fighting words, Chua created a firestorm leading some critics to demonize her as a monster and harass her with death threats (Dolak, 2011; Fukami, 2011). However, “Tiger Mom” also garnered many supporters from Asia and America.

Students in three psychology classes at Judson University were asked to write a short response after reading Chua’s WSJ’s article. The majority of them expressed concerns and even anger over her “dictatorial” parenting style. But one student wrote that her parenting should “not be classified as abuse and could ultimately still produce highly holistic and positive members of society. However, if there is one thing that Chua ought to change, it is not her parenting style but her exuding arrogance in the realm of parenting which permeates every single aspect of her article” (Ciochon, 2011).

Another student, a varsity softball player, wrote that she appreciated the belief that “nothing is fun until you are good at it.” Then she compared the development of self-esteem in male baseball players to female softball players. She wrote, “Boys have to do well to feel good …and girls have to feel good to do well.” In any case, she believed in the delayed gratification that “Tiger Mom” supports. “Hard work first…fun comes later” (Talbot, 2011). To a certain extent, the Chinese Tiger Moms may be comparable to the American Little League Dads well documented in the film based on the book *Fear Strikes Out: The Jimmy Piersall Story* (Piersall and Hirshberg, 1955/1991).

The Timing

Controversy sells. The publication of Chua’s book coincides with the recent ascendance of China, which has caused resentment and uneasiness in America. Last year, China surpassed Japan as the world’s
second largest economy and is also the United States’ biggest creditor. The U.S. is still No.1. But are we losing ground to China with its more than 10% annual economic growth compared to our 2.6%?

In December 2010, the influential Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) published test results pitting teenage students around the world against each other in reading, science, and mathematics. Shanghai students took first place in all three categories. American students ranked 17th in reading, 23rd in science, and 31st in mathematics. President Obama highlighted these comparisons by labeling this a “Sputnik moment” for America (Banyan, 2011; Paul, 2011). Amy Chua’s contrast between the “pushy” Chinese parenting style and the “nonchalant” western parenting style may have increased fear and resentment. The cruel and inflammatory name-calling against “Tiger Mom” may be related to this anti-Chinese sentiment.

For a slightly different reason, there may be resentment and uneasiness among a number of Chinese in China and Chinese-Americans in the United States. Many Chinese prefer the “western” style of parenting. They feel they have been “liberated” from the stuffy traditional Chinese parenting style and resent that Chua labels her particular parenting approach as “Chinese” in contrast to the western/American style. One blogger wrote that Amy Chua perpetuates the “Model Minority” myth of Chinese-Americans to sell her book. An American-born Chinese noted the similarity between Chinese and Jewish mothers in holding unrealistically high academic expectations for their children. The only difference between them was that the Jewish mothers at least accepted psychotherapy for their children. Literally, hundreds of bloggers expressed their concerns about the negative image that Chua created about Chinese in general and Chinese parents in particular. For example, one blogger blamed Chua for Jeremy Lin’s (a former Stanford basketball star) demotion to the developmental league in the NBA.

Well-known Chinese commentator Wang Ting-Chun believes that this “tsunami-like reaction” to “Tiger Mom” has something to do with America’s unique sensitivity toward child abuse and the weakening of national strength (Wang, 2011). Wang believes that without these two concerns, Chua’s book would have been overlooked. So, not only is there a sense of perfect timing in the publication of Battle Hymn of the Tiger Mother but also an ingenious marketing strategy in publishing an excerpt with the provocative title “Why Chinese Mothers are Superior” on the Saturday before the release of the book the following Tuesday.

The timing was perfect for controversy.

An Analysis

Her parenting style may be controversial but her writing style is crisp and entertaining. How and why did she develop this parenting style? Although no one seems to have addressed this issue in all the blogs and interviews, the motivation for her parenting style can be clearly seen in her book. She introduces the chapter “On Generation Decline” with the statement, “One of my greatest fears is family decline.” (Chua, 2011a, 20-24). She cites a familiar Chinese proverb to describe her fear: “Prosperity can never last for three generations.” This proverb is usually translated as “Wealth does not go beyond the third generation” because it is originally meant to be a warning against families of wealth (Hsieh, 2006). But Chua appropriately modifies the words to apply to her situation and sentiment. After a discussion of the way generations typically decline, she declares, “Well, not on my watch. From the moment Sophia was born and I looked into her cute and knowing face, I was determined not to let it happen to her, not to raise a soft, entitled child...not to let my family fall.” (Chua, 2011a, 22).

Being the eldest girl in a family of four girls, Chua may have felt that she had to be the one to assume responsibility to carry on the tradition of a very successful clan. She was a successful student and is now a successfully academic, occupying an endowed chair in one of the most prestigious academic institutions in the world. Her daughters by all accounts will be very successful in their own right. Just last week, it was reported by national media that both Yale and Harvard accepted Sophia. It is an event watched very closely by critics and supporters. For some, Sophia’s acceptance to Harvard is a test of the validity of her mother’s parenting style.

In many ways, it is the test used by Chinese elites, according to one who should know (Hsieh, 2010). Tony Hsieh became famous at the age of twenty-four in 1999 when he sold the company he cofounded to Microsoft for $265 million. Later, he was the CEO of Zappos, a company he helped grow from almost
nothing to over $1.2 billion in value on the day acquired by Amazon in 2009. Hsieh’s mother was not unlike the Tiger Mom who “had high hopes that [he] would eventually go the medical school or get a PhD” (Hsieh, 2010, 9). He was allowed to watch one hour TV every week and expected to get straight A’s in all his classes. His “parents had [him] take practice SAT tests throughout all of middle school and high school” (Hsieh, 2010, 8). He got accepted by all the colleges he applied, including Brown, UC Berkeley, Stanford, MIT, Princeton, Cornell, Yale, and Harvard from where he graduated. Like Amy Chua, Tony Hsieh was born in Champaign, Illinois, when his parents were graduate students.

Unfortunately, it would be very difficult for Professor Chua or the third generation of the Chuas to measure up to Dr. Leon Chua, the father of nonlinear circuit theory and cellular neural networks. How can they? Well, perhaps one of them will be awarded the Nobel Prize. But then, Any Chua is doing very well by her book that has brought her fame and fortune and Dr. Leon Chua probably would not consider it a “disgrace” as he did when his daughter, Amy only won second place in the history competition in eighth grade. He is probably better known now as the father of the Tiger Mom than the father of nonlinear circuit theory.

References
A Global Longitudinal Study of Philosophical and Religious Attitudes from 1990 to 2010

Allen Francis Ketcham
Martin Brittain
Texas A&M University

Jeffrey Schulz
Central Community College

Abstract
This international empirical study compares respondents’ attitudes from a twenty-year period (1990 to 2010), towards philosophical and religious notions. The research model classifies all questions into one of the four following sets: traditional attitudes, nontraditional attitudes, modern attitudes and postmodern attitudes. The sample includes 5,678 individuals and has 369,070 data points. The geographic span of the sample includes the following states: California, Colorado, Illinois, Kansas, Louisiana, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Washington, and the following countries: Australia, Canada, Chile, England, Finland, Gaza Strip, Mexico, Philippines, Romania, South Korea, Wales, and the Native American nation of Makah tribe.

Purpose and Methodology
This research has a dual purpose: First, to examine students’ philosophical and religious views via four thought-eras: traditional, nontraditional, modernity and postmodernity. Second, we wanted to compare how college students’ philosophical and religious viewpoints may have shifted during the last twenty years; therefore, a longitudinal process was used to compare and contrast students’ responses to the same questions given in 1990/91 and again in 2009/10.

In the 1990/91 school years, 2,562 college students in the United States and numerous foreign countries responded. Then in 2009/10 a total of 3,116 American and foreign college students answered the research instrument. The 5,678 respondents is a convenience sample and the data collected is ordinal, therefore only nonparametric tests are performed.

The research methodology, referred to as the Signification Model, is bi-dimensional (Ketcham et al., 2001, p.p. 4-7). The model traverses four “Value Clusters” by three “Existence Modes.” The value clusters represent four thought-eras: traditional, modern, postmodern and nontraditional. Jean-François Lyotard suggested the thought-era taxonomy in his The Postmodern Condition: A Report on Knowledge. Lyotard’s thought-eras can be held by individuals simultaneously. For example, an individual can hold a traditional view about religion and at the same time maintain a postmodern view about truth. The other research dimension, “Existence Mode,” is compiled of self, others, and religious/philosophical. This paper concentrates on the religious/philosophical. Other papers in the series focus on the self and others.

Description of the Thought-era’s Values
Traditional values collect around the core of Western canons, long-established virtues and ancient principles. People that retain traditional values herald their bond with handed-down ideas of custom, religion and heritage. Often, this value cluster adheres to the “classical” Greco-Roman values.

“The nontraditional component is what Lyotard refers to as “antimodern.” The people that hold such values are the “againsters.” Other terms for this cluster could be avant-garde, beatnik, hippie, lost generation, etc.” (Ketcham et al. 2010).
The modern value cluster is grounded in the Enlightenment. “The 18th-century philosophical movement was predicated on reason, individualism, progress and science” (Ketcham et al. 2010). The framework of the United States is shaped by Enlightenment thinkers such as Locke and Montesquieu.

Lastly, postmodern values are built on “incredulity towards metanarratives.” (Lyotard 1979) Metanarratives are grand stories told to legitimize truths. Postmodernity holds to a profound skepticism concerning knowledge, therefore these grand stories have lost their power to convince people. This “incredulity towards metanarratives” reflects Nietzsche’s foretelling of the collapse of Metaphysics. As Lyotard (1979) states: “The obsolescence of the metanarrative apparatus of legitimation corresponds, most notably, [to] the crisis of metaphysical philosophy” (xxiv-xxv). This disbelief in certainty can find expression in the cynical and nihilistic Weltanschauungen that Nietzsche foretold.

Review of the Literature

Perhaps a solid definition of religion could be offered by Durkheim (1915) “religion is a unified system of beliefs and practices relative to sacred things, that is, things set apart and forbidden—beliefs and practices which unite into one single moral community called a Church where all members adhere to these principles” (p. 62). The force of this definition, according to McKinnon (2002), is to argue that religion is the cohesive force that unites members of a society, that is, the worship of sacred symbols (p. 63). But if postmodern theory is correct, then that cohesive force, ironically, is in the process of now including a flood of uncertainty.

Before beginning the review of literature section, the authors wish to point out that it may appear that some of the studies cited in this research seem outdated. This is not the case. This research focuses strictly on college students’ religious/spiritual and philosophical attitudes from a postmodern perspective over the two decades of the 1990s and 2000s. The majority of studies we cite came from the 1990s and early 2000s for two reasons. First, the 1990s is when most of the literature on postmodernity was published; and, second, and more specifically, this is when most of the relevant studies we cite in our research were published.

This lack of studies is what makes our study unique. The other studies cited in our research examine religious/spiritual and philosophical attitudes of college students from the decade of the 1990s and early 2000s. Our study is more comprehensive compared to the studies we cite because our study observes data from both 1990 and 2010, which adds breadth to the literature on the topic of religious/spiritual and philosophical attitudes of college students.

There have been only a handful of studies conducted that attempt to measure what it means to be spiritual, religious, or both (Roof 1993; Zinnbauer et al. 1997; Scott 2001; and Marler and Hardaway 2002). One common theme discovered in the aforementioned research is how people separately define religion and spirituality, but also see them as one in the same. A second common theme is how the Baby Boomer generation gets the credit for being the first generation that moves from being religious to more spiritual. The third theme is how most people in the United States are moving toward being more spiritual than religious. Defining the terms religious and spiritual will prove useful here to denote the differences between the two constructs.

Religiousness, according to Roof (1993, 2000), “includes personal beliefs as well as institutional beliefs and practices” (p. 294). Further, Roof (1993, 2000) states “that both spirituality and religiousness incorporate similar and traditional concepts of the sacred, i.e., God, Christ, and the church” (p. 294). The Zinnbauer et al. (1997) study defines religiousness as “both beliefs, such as a belief in God/higher power, and institutional practices such as church membership, and commitment to the beliefs system of a church or organized religion” (p. 561).

In contrast, Roof (2000) says American society is becoming more “spiritual seeking.” According to Pargament (1999), “spirituality represents the functional, more intrinsic dimensions of religion, whereas “religion” represents the more substantive, extrinsic parts” (p. 289). According to Marler and Hardaway (2002) “the majority of Americans view themselves as both religious and spiritual, but age cohort data suggests an increasing tendency to people reporting to be “spiritual only” (p. 293). The Zinnbauer et al. (1997) study indicates that people who identify themselves as spiritual but not religious were less likely to hold traditional Christian beliefs and to attend church services. But these same people are more likely to
have more independent attitudes, be agnostic and see spirituality and religiousness as different concepts. McKinnon (2002) suggests “those who see themselves as primarily spiritual really mean that they are just less religious” (p.295).

An important question that needs to be raised is: What trend do these studies on religion and spirituality indicate? Are people claiming to be more religious? More spiritual? Both? It appears that the results are mixed among the handful of major studies related to this topic. McKinnon (2002) states “what can be shown is that the relationship between “being religious” and “being spiritual” is not a zero sum proposition. These constructs are most often viewed as “distinct but interdependent with one another” (p. 297). However, Zinnbauer et al. (1997) warns that researchers need to be mindful of the many meanings attributed to “religiousness” and “spirituality” by different religious and cultural groups, (p. 562). We must keep in mind that there is no one perspective or research methodology that captures how religion and spirituality are to be examined. Rather, there are multiple research methodologies that can be employed to do this.

McKinnon (2002) states that there are two camps that have emerged in the literature when it comes to examining the constructs “spiritual” and “religious.” First, there is the idea that extra church participation in and the fascination with the “spiritual” are phenomena that signal something radically new in American religion. Second, there is another view that current religious strength is not so much an epistemological and practical break with the modern, but more of a structural consequence of America’s “free market” of religion.

In conclusion, McKinnon (2002) posits the following when it comes to notions about “spirituality” and “religion”:

“Most Americans see themselves as both religious and spiritual. When possible change can be traced through examining successive age cohorts or by comparing more with less churched respondents, the pattern is toward less religiousness and less spirituality. The youngest and the most religiously marginal are much less likely to see themselves as religious and spiritual, slightly more likely to see themselves as spiritual only, and much more likely to see themselves as neither religious nor spiritual. The net effect is that among less churched and younger Americans there is less agreement about religiousness and spirituality, and change is observed more in the decline of those who identify themselves as “strong believers,” “the religious and spiritual, and the increase in secularists” (pp. 297-8).

The Value Clusters

**Traditional**

According to Giddens “Tradition is an organizing medium of collective memory that is attended by “guardians” whose authority derives from their relation to this collective memory” (Wallace and Wolf 1999, p. 184). Giddens further elaborates “Tradition is bound up with memory and ritual: it is formulaic and accepted as true, and as a guide to action, because of the “combined moral and emotional content” that goes with it” (Wallace and Wolf, 1999, p. 184). Giddens believes that traditions are destroyed and not rebuilt—in part because of the worldwide spread of modern institutions and because of the magnitude of the modernization process.

What replaces tradition, according to Giddens, are experts, expertise, and expert systems. According to Giddens, the experts relate to principles outside the concrete local environment and demand trust in abstract arguments and universal principles (Wallace and Wolf 1999). Giddens points out: Whereas “guardians” were special in all aspects of their lives, people who are “experts” in one sphere are themselves common people looking for guidance in most of the things that affect them. Further, the whole idea of expert knowledge is unsettling. It is marked by both “a mixture of skepticism and universalism” because experts constantly disagree as an integral part of developing and refining their expertise.
Other characteristics of traditional behavior include: emotionally comfortable, a world in which each person has a place that is secure, a place in the family among the pantheon of ancestors (Isbister, 2000). The traditional person identifies with his or her ancestors and emulates them. Daily work is carried out just as it always has been, not to secure profit but to perform one’s duty, to maintain one’s place in the society. Nothing is innovative, and there is no way to “improve” one’s life situation. No distinction exists between daily life and spiritual life --- it is all one. Almost all religious systems can serve as the basis for traditional society (Isbister 2000).

**Nontraditional**

According to Ketcham et al (2000) “Nontraditional behavior is defined as a “played-off-of” concentration of qualities that are thought of as (not after or post) antithetical to traditional attitudes. This component can be thought of as “counter-culture.” It can be said that this tag is what Lyotard refers to as “antimodern.” These people are essentially, the againsters” (p. 5). Ketcham (2010) posits “Often it is helpful to think of this thought-era as the counterculture impulse.

**Modernity**

Harrison (1998) argues that there are ten characteristics that are associated with modernists: “1. A readiness for new experience and an openness to innovation; 2. An interest in things other than those of immediate relevance; 3. A more ‘democratic’ attitude towards the opinions of others; 4. An orientation to the future rather than the past; 5. A readiness to plan one’s own life; 6. A belief that we can dominate our environment and achieve our goals; 7. An acceptance that the world is ‘calculable’ and therefore controllable; 8. An awareness of the dignity of others, for example, women and children; 9. A faith in the achievement of science and technology, albeit a somewhat simple faith; and 10. A belief in ‘distributive’ justice” (pp. 20-21).

Furthermore, Isbister (2000) states “The modern world is what economists call rational. It is inhabited by people who are constantly trying to do the best they can for themselves, to optimize, to maximize. The modern world is based on research and development and on the goal of efficiency. It is driven by the search for profit and wealth, as people take risks to do things in new and better ways, in the hope of improving their lot in life. It is based on competition and on the laws of the marketplace that reward success. The modern world is forward-looking, committed to growth and improvement” (p. 38).

Modernity was borne out of the Enlightenment which was a time when both the physical and social sciences informed and explained the technical and social forms of industrial society (Hartley, 1995 p. 3). Modernity has redefined time, away from seasonal time to clock time; thus modernity focuses on: efficiency, effectiveness, cold calculation and rationality (Hartley, 1995 p. 3).

**Postmodernity**

According to Best and Kellner (1991) “Postmodern theory rejects modern assumptions of social coherence and notions of causality in favor of multiplicity, plurality, fragmentation, and indeterminancy” (p. 4). Walker (1996) characterizes postmodernism in the following way: “It [postmodernity] proposes an end to the dominance of scientific rationality in Western thought by attacking truth and thought. Instead, it gives credence to a diversity of “local” amounts of reality” (p.55). In other words, the focus is on the micro or community. Walker (1996) sees postmodernism as: “multiple realities, the questioning of convention, a lack of unity or cultural centeredness, an emphasis on diversity, a fascination for innovation and change, a mixing of styles, and a tolerance for fragmentation and ambiguity” (p. 55).

From an economic viewpoint, postmodern transformations (Geyh, 2003) include the development in the U.S., Europe, and Japan, of the “postindustrial society,” in which national economies have shifted from manufacturing to an information and services base, along with the rise of transnational companies and the global economy.

**Findings**

The findings of the study are represented in five sets of tables. One set for each thought-era plus a metatrends set of graphs. The tables’ titles are the research questions. The Y axes are the percents of answers of the combined questionnaires. The X axes are the specific answers to the questions. Finally, the blue bars correspond to the 1990/1991 data set and the purple bars correspond to the 2009/2010 data.
set. The combined bars represent about 125,000 answers to questions over a two-decade period; therefore, small differences in the bars are powerful variations.

**The Traditional and Religious and Philosophical Notions**

Table 1 links God with ethics. This traditional value of the direct correlation of belief in God and morality has shifted mightily. There is a large drop in agreement with the statement and more movement towards disagreement. And there is an increase of seven percent in “undecided.” The responses to this statement indicate secularization in attitudes and a move to uncertainty.

Table 2 illustrates a less adamantine stand on the necessity of violence. The clear move over the twenty-year timeframe of the study is away from “strongly agree” to “uncertainty.”

Table 3 indicates a powerful shift in the pattern of the data, and, therefore an impressive shift in attitudes over twenty years. The skewness of the data remains, however the shift indicates a move towards less certainty. The “agrees” dropped and “disagrees” rose, thereby indicating less certainty in “a reality beyond.”

**The Nontraditional and Religious and Philosophical Notions**

Table 5 reflects a large move to “uncertainty.” The mass of the move to “uncertainty” comes from the disagree faction. Therefore, the move is from people disagreeing that we live in evil times to “uncertainty” if we live in evil times.

Table 6 concerns the Platonic stance that only a moral person can be happy. Plato’s ethical argument presupposes that virtue = justice = happy. This traditional formula is woven deeply into western culture. It is important that over the twenty year period of this study there has developed an “uncertainty” concerning Plato’s formula.

**The Modern and Religious and Philosophical Notions**

Table 7 is concerned with the reality of the tangible versus the reality of ideas or beliefs. Again, we observe a shift to “uncertainty” from the reality of beliefs or ideas. Respondents have moved from a high degree of certainty (54%) in 1990 to a weakened proportion in 2010 (41%). Most of that movement went to “uncertainty” with “undecided” jumping from 9% to 16% in the twenty year period of the study.

There is a minor shift over the twenty years shown in Table 8 on attitudes towards technology. The slight swing in attitudes is mostly in the “agree” answers. “Agrees” move from “strongly agree” to the “mildly agree,” but the tone stays the same over twenty years with little less certainty.

The binomial distribution of responses in Table 9, again, points out the shift to “uncertainty.” Both the 1990 and the 2010 groups tend to disagree with the statement that “money is the primary indicator of success.” However, there is a drop in “disagree” in 2010. The data for 2010 shows an increase in “mildly agree” and “undecided.”

**The Postmodern and Religious and Philosophical Notions**

Table 10 shows a shift in the data. Similar to the shifting of the data in other question, the movement is away from strong opinions to milder opinions and then to undecided. Again, the 2010 responses, like most of the other data in the study, reflect a clear proliferation of “uncertainty” --- less confident in the agree and disagree answers with a constant movement towards the undecided option.

The statement of Table 11 is a measure of egalitarianism. The belief that all ideas have equal weight finds more favor in the 2010 group. There is a shift from the two disagrees to mildly agree. Also, uncertainty has increased. In the 2010 group 60.4% of the respondents agree with this egalitarian impulse.

The statement in Table 12 also measures egalitarianism. However, this statement is more specific than Table 11’s all ideas have equal weight. Respondents, who are students, are less inclined to this specific case of egalitarianism in 2010. There is quite a shift from the “agrees” to the “disagrees.” Also, there is an increase of “uncertainty” in 2010.
Meta-trends in the Study

Following are four meta-trend graphs designed to help grasp the aggregate trends in the sets of thought-era questions. The meta-trend graphs are cumulative and reflect the merged mass of data from the four questions from each thought-era. Because each of the graphs combines the data from four questions, there are a total of 400 percentage points for each meta-trend graph. (Note: The four questions for each thought-era are not shown above because of space constraints.)

The Traditional and Philosophical and Religious Attitudes

The Table 13 meta-trend reflects a shift away from traditional philosophical and religious attitudes from 1990 to 2010. In 2010 the cumulative percentage points for the “agrees” dropped 32.5 points. The undecided increased by 15 cumulative percentage points. The total shift to the “disagrees” is an increase of 18.1 points. Both the 1990 and 2010 data sets are skewed to the right, but the 2010 data has flattened, thereby indicating far less certainty in traditional philosophical and religious attitudes by the 2010 group.

The Nontraditional and Philosophical and Religious Attitudes

The nontraditional questions show a convincing move to undecided from the mildly and strongly disagrees. The cumulative percentage points for the disagrees dropped by 14 points in 2010, whereas, the undecided increased by 21 cumulative percentage points. The mildly and strongly agrees decreased of 7 percentage points. Again, there is a massive move to undecided along with a lessening of strong attitudes.

The Modern and Philosophical and Religious Attitudes

The respondents’ answers shift from strongly agree/disagree to a less certain position in 2010. Both of the strong (agree and disagree) cumulative points fell and the mild answers increased. But the greatest shift occurs in the undecided with an increase of 12.2 cumulative points in 2010. Yet again, the respondents in 2010 clearly indicate their state of uncertainty as to their modern philosophical and religious attitudes.

The Postmodern and Philosophical and Religious Attitudes

Again, in Table 16 postmodern philosophical and religious attitudes, a familiar pattern emerges. Once more, answers shift from strongly agree/disagree to a less certain mildly agree/disagree position in 2010. Both of the strong (agree and disagree) cumulative points fell and the mild answers rise. The undecided response increased in 2010.

Conclusion

Adieu to True

Behind this world is another world --- the true world. That true world for traditional people is the Kingdom of God, heaven, paradise, and the spirits of the animas. For the traditional Platonist, the world of things is “less real” than the world of math or the world of heaven. The nontraditional people are the againsters and rebel against such concepts of the true world or, more often, combine them into new-age hybrids. The moderns, starting with Descartes, but including Kant, Hegel, Schopenhauer and others tell us that reality is not what we think. The modern philosopher, Kant, tells us what lies beyond the phenomena of “our” world are the unknowable noumena --- the true world, but that world is beyond understanding. It is useful to grasp the postmoderns from the point of view of “incredulity towards metanarratives.” Postmodernity reflects a disbelief in all metaphysical concepts --- an uncertainty towards the true world that is noticeably reflected in the results of this twenty-year study.

These true world(s) are the metaphysical positions held by the peoples of history and, to differing degrees, by the respondent of the study. This research shows a lessening of certainty over time of respondents’ metaphysical attitudes. This event was anticipated by postmodern theorists, such as Nietzsche.

Friedrich Nietzsche forewarned us of the collapse of metaphysics. Virtually all of Nietzsche’s works after 1872 are concerned in some measure with this collapse. Nietzsche is clear that metaphysics (or our personal view of the true world) is not a statement of ultimate reality, but just the personal confessions of philosophical and religious thinkers. In this view, Nietzsche has a prescience of Freud’s supposition from his Future of an Illusion (1964), where he states that the true world of the metaphysics of the religious is actually just the expressions of our deepest human wishes.
In *Beyond Good and Evil* (1989), Nietzsche argues that philosophers (and, for that matter, theologians) when expounding their metaphysical positions, are really making a lot of “virtuous noise.” But, in fact, their “truthfulness” … is “most often a desire of the heart that has been filtered and made abstract ... They are all advocates who resent that name, and for the most part even wily spokesmen for their prejudices which they baptize [as] truths.”

So, according to Nietzsche, the metaphysical truths of the traditional, nontraditional, moderns (and, ironically, even the postmoderns) are human constructs that are fashioned to gratify the “desires of the heart” --- what we want to be true --- our deepest wishes. He is very clear in his warning to us. Nietzsche holds that the people-of-the-future (us) will lose their trust in metaphysics bit by bit and inch by inch. And the threat to those future-men, because of the loss of the true world, is nihilism. As the postmodern worldview unfolds, the loss of metaphysical “certainties” will increase and people will be more uncertain about the whole of our knowledge about us. Uncertainty will abound. Nietzsche comments on our faith in metaphysics and the possibility that our beliefs are errors --- a pillar of postmodernity.

*Life no argument. --- We have arranged for ourselves a world in which we can live --- by positing bodies, lines, planes, causes and effects and rest, form and content; without these articles of faith nobody could endure life. But that does not prove them. Life is no argument. The conditions of life might include error. On the Genealogy of Morals 121*

Nietzsche, in his *How the True World Finally Became a Fable: The History of an Error* comments in detail on the error we have made called metaphysics. He makes his point in arguing the history of the error in six points. The sixth argument is relevant:

6. The true world --- we have abolished. What world remains? The apparent one, perhaps? But no! With the true world we have also abolished the apparent one. *Twilight of the Idols 486*

This sixth statement by Nietzsche assists in this study’s conclusion. As uncertainty towards metanarratives intensifies, our confidence in our attitudes about the apparent world become less certain. College students of all races, ages, and geographical locations around the globe have answered the questions above with much more uncertainty than they did 20 years ago. Over the twenty-year period of this study, it is clear that uncertainty has seeped into every part of the 2010 respondent’s acuity.

The postmodern theory is a possible explanation for why college students, 20 years later, are answering in much more uncertain ways than they did back in 1990. The world has changed during this time. Most of the economies of the regions of the world in which we gathered our data were either already in postmodernity or have shifted from a manufacturing to an information and service sector society. Many of the characteristics associated with postmodernity such as diversity, ambiguity, multiple interpretations, multiple realities, the questioning of conventional ideas, and things being important more on a local level, may be possible explanations as to why college students from the United States and abroad answered the four sets of questions with as much uncertainty as they did.
References


Table 1. If people did not believe in God, there would be increased immorality

Table 2. Sometimes violence is necessary

Table 3. I am sure there is some reality beyond me
Table 7. only tangible things are real; ideas are not

Table 8. technology is good

Table 9. money is the primary indicator of success
Table 10. popular music (such as rock & roll) is just as good as classical music (Beethoven, Mozart, etc.)

Table 11. all ideas have equal worth

Table 12. a student who exerts his/her best efforts should receive a passing grade regardless of the quality of the work
Table 13. Cumulative %s of four traditional religious/philosophical questions

Table 14. Cumulative %s of four nontraditional religious/philosophical questions
Table 15. Cumulative %s of four modern religious/philosophical questions

Table 16. Cumulative %s of four postmodern religious/philosophical questions
Introduction
The Eighth Amendment reads, “[e]xcessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.” The Amendment does not categorically prohibit the death penalty. Capital punishment has been a feature of criminal justice in America since colonial times. Captain George Kendall was first. He was shot by a firing squad in Jamestown, Virginia in 1608 for sowing discord and spying. The next known legal execution in the colonies also took place in Virginia fourteen years later. In 1622, Daniel Frank was put to death for the crime of theft.

The Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments reflect an acceptance of the constitutional legitimacy of the death penalty, providing that no person shall be deprived of “life, liberty, or property, without due process of law.” Persons can be deprived of their lives, if they receive due process of law.

But the death penalty is constitutionally impermissible if it is inflicted in a “cruel or unusual fashion.” Methods of execution matter. What is “cruel and unusual” today may have been regarded as “humane and commonplace” yesterday. Courts apply such concepts with an eye towards “evolving standards of decency.”

In 1972, the Supreme Court struck down a challenged death penalty law in Furman v. Georgia (408 U.S. 238, 1972). The divided Court objected to the appearance of racial bias or arbitrariness in the application of the death penalty. Responding to Furman, many states revised their death-penalty laws to reduce jury sentencing discretion. In 1976, in Gregg v. Georgia (428 U.S. 153, 1976) and two companion cases, Proffitt v. Florida (428 U.S. 242, 1976) and Jurek v. Texas (428 U.S. 262, 1976), the Court ruled that modified death penalty laws successfully addressed the Furman objections. Writing for the majority in Gregg, Justice Stewart said that the Eighth Amendment draws its meaning from “the evolving standards of decency that mark the progress of a maturing society” (Trop v. Dulles, 356 U.S. 86, 1958). “Excessive” punishments that inflict unnecessary pain or that are grossly disproportionate to the severity of the crime are prohibited. But capital punishment for the crime of murder is not invariably disproportionate. It is an extreme sanction suitable to the most extreme crimes.

“Humane capital punishment” may appear to be an oxymoron to some, but some methods of execution are crueler than others. Burning at the stake, breaking on the wheel, pressing under stones, drawing and quartering, boiling in oil, disembowelment, crucifixion, and beheading were once common and usual. Today, they are rejected as incompatible with contemporary standards of decency. Standards of decency evolve and, setting aside for present purposes the question of whether or not we should continue to employ capital punishment at all, methods of execution matter. This paper focuses on evolving methods of execution.

Early Death Penalty Laws and Practices
The death penalty has a long history, dating back to the Ancient Laws of China. In the eighteenth century B.C., the Babylon King Hammurabi’s Code called for the death penalty for twenty five different crimes (not including murder). Michael H. Reggio notes that the first historically recorded death sentence occurred in Egypt in the sixteenth century B.C. The wrongdoer, a member of nobility, was accused of magic. He was ordered to take his own life. During this period non-nobles were usually killed with an ax. The death penalty was also included in the fourteenth century B.C.’s Hittite Code.
In 621 B.C., the Draco’s Code of Athens made death the penalty for every crime, and gave birth to the term “draconian” for inflexibly severe penalties. According to Aristotle, a generation later the lawgiver Solon retained Draco’s laws for homicide, but mitigated the severity of punishments for lesser offenses.

Rome’s first written laws, The Twelve Tables, date from around 450 B.C. and include extensive use of the death penalty. As in Babylon and Egypt, the death penalty in Rome was different for nobility, freemen, and slaves and was the punishment for a wide variety of crimes including the publication of libels and insulting songs, the cutting or grazing of crops planted by a farmer, the burning of a house or a stack of corn near a house, cheating by a patron of his client, perjury, making disturbances at night in the city, willful murder of a freeman or a parent, and theft by a slave. Methods of execution were tailored to the crime (arsonists were burnt alive) and also included crucifixion, drowning, burial alive, hanging, beheading to death, and impalement. Imprisonment was prescribed for defaulting on a debt, but even there the death penalty remained a legal option; creditors could “cut pieces” from the debtor.6

A most notable execution occurred in Greece in 399 B.C., when the Greek philosopher Socrates was required to drink hemlock after his conviction for corrupting the youth of Athens by introducing heretical ideas.7 At Athenian trials, the accused person was permitted to propose his own penalty. Hoping to drive Socrates into exile, the prosecutor, Meletus, proposed the death penalty. Socrates angered the authorities by proposing only that he be rewarded with a “public maintenance in the prytaneum.” Socrates’ refusal to propose his own exile as an alternative to death might be regarded as an early example of a prisoner “volunteering” for execution.

Christianity has also influenced America’s death penalty debate. The Bible is selectively quoted by death penalty proponents and opponents alike. In Genesis, God warned Adam of a death penalty: “In the day that you eat of [the tree of the knowledge of good and evil] you shall die.” The eighteen chapter of Genesis contains an exchange on the death penalty, when Abraham pleaded to spare the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah. Anticipating modern concerns about the possibility of executing an innocent man, he argued that the destruction of the cities would cause the death of the righteous as well as the wicked.9 The Law of Moses contained in the books of Exodus and Leviticus specified many capital offenses. Murder, some assaults, rape, unchastity, perjury, blasphemy, heresy, magic and soothsaying were historically punished by one of four main methods of execution: stoning, burning, strangling and beheading.10 The most infamous execution in history is recorded in the Bible: in approximately 29 A.D., Jesus Christ was crucified outside Jerusalem on a charge of sedition.

Over time, the Roman Empire tempered the original severity of the Twelve Tables but still accorded a legitimate role to capital punishment. Between 529 and 534 A.D., the Emperor Justinian ordered a compilation of Roman laws that had been published in the thousand years since the Twelve Tables. Justinian’s Code preserved the death penalty for “serious” crimes, as well as for “heretical” religious opinions. Heretics were burned at the stake.

Celtic Britain had a long record of capital punishment from about 450 B.C., when the death penalty was often enforced by throwing the condemned into a quagmire. By the tenth century, hanging from gallows had become the most common method of execution when fines and other penalties were judged insufficient to maintain the peace. William the Conqueror brought Norman law to Britain after 1066 A.D. He outlawed hanging and limited penalties to blinding or castration. William also introduced the concept of “trial by battle.” Defendants were given an opportunity to prove their innocence by sword or to have their champions do so on their behalf. Defendants often died during these “fact-finding” sessions. In effect, punishment preceded the verdict under this system.

In the Middle Ages, some were punished by “pressing” or the loading of weights upon a defendant’s chest. Pressing was used as late as 1692 in Massachusetts during the Salem witch trials, and was not formally abolished there until 1772. From the Middle Ages into the Renaissance, capital punishment was accompanied by torture. Most barons had drowning pits and gallows, which they used for major and minor crimes. Beheading was considered a merciful alternative for the upper classes. High treason by a woman was punished by burning. Women could also be burned for marrying a Jew or wearing a man’s clothes. When a woman was burned, the executioner placed a rope around her neck when she was tied to
the stake. When the flames reached her she could be strangled from outside the ring of fire. This “chivalrous” gesture sometimes failed, leaving the condemned literally to be burnt alive.12

European execution practices included boiling a person alive, breaking on the wheel, stoning, beheading, and sawing asunder.13 Torture and trial by ordeal were used as investigative tools. For example, the ordeal of iron – walking a prescribed nine feet carrying a heated iron of various sizes depending on the charge and then waiting three days to see whether blisters or infection showed evidence of guilt – and trial by battle were considered to be valid ways to determine matters of guilt and innocence.14

In the 18th century, penalties involving torture declined and were replaced by a belief that punishment and death should be swift and humane. In France, for example, the guillotine became the preferred method of execution. At the time, decapitation was thought to be the least painful method of execution. Dr. Joseph Guillotin built a decapitation machine designed to avoid human error and infliction of unnecessary pain. The first execution by guillotine took place in 1792 and the last in 1977.15

Cruel and Unusual Methods of Execution

Following is a list of particularly gruesome methods of execution that were employed over the years. Such methods are rejected as barbaric and offensive to contemporary community standards in the United States. The descriptions are rather graphic and brutal, but are included to underscore the point that capital punishment is informed by evolving standards of decency.16

The “Brazen Bull” was invented by a brass worker in the 6th Century B.C. A large brass bull that was completely hollow inside contained a door on the side large enough for a man to enter. Once the man was inside the bull, a fire was lit beneath it in order to roast him to death. The head of the bull contained a series of tubes and stops that were designed to amplify the screams of the victim and make them sound like the roar of a bull. This became one of the most common methods of execution in Ancient Greece.

Men who were found guilty of treason in England were punished by hanging, drawing, and quartering. As noted previously, women found guilty of treason were burnt at the stake. First, the male criminal was tied to a wooden frame and dragged behind a horse to the place of execution. Next, the condemned was hanged until nearly dead. Then he was removed from the noose and laid on a table where the executioner would disembowel and emasculate the criminal. His entrails were burned in front of his eyes. At this point, still alive, he would be beheaded and the body cut into quarters. Parts of the body would be sent to various areas where they would be displayed as a warning to others.

Burning at the stake was done by leading the victim to the center of a wall of sticks and straw. The condemned was tied to the stake, after which the space between the criminal and the wall would be filled with wood – concealing the person. St. Joan of Arc was executed in this manner. Another method was to pile sticks and straw up to the calves only. Death could occur through carbon monoxide poisoning, shock, blood loss, or heatstroke. In later versions, the criminal would be hanged until dead and then burnt symbolically. This method was used to burn witches in most parts of Europe, but it was not used in England for that purpose. The last legal execution by burning at the stake occurred in 1834 at the end of the Spanish Inquisition.

Execution by slow cutting or “Ling Chi,” was practiced in China until it was outlawed in 1905. The criminal was slowly cut in the arms, legs, and chest. Parts of the body were cut off with a sharp knife. Some accounts claimed that such executions could take days to complete. Ultimately, the condemned would be beheaded or stabbed in the heart.

The breaking wheel was a medieval execution device. The criminal was attached to a wagon wheel with his arms and legs stretched out along the spokes. A heavy metal bar or hammer was used to deliver bone-breaking blows to various parts of the body. If a “merciful” execution had been ordered, fatal blows were delivered to complete the execution. In other cases, the criminal would be left on the wheel until death occurred. This could take days and the person would die of shock and dehydration.

In execution by boiling, the condemned was stripped naked and either placed in a vat of boiling oil, acid, tar, water, or molten lead. Sometimes, the liquid was not heated until after the prisoner had been placed within.
Execution by flaying was an ancient method of execution. The skin of the criminal was removed from the body with a very sharp knife. Attempts were made to keep the skin intact so it could be displayed as a warning to others. The Aztecs of Mexico were reputed to have flayed victims of ritual human sacrifice after the victims died.

“Necklacing” is a mode of execution in which a rubber tire was filled with gasoline, forced over the arms and chest of the victim, and set on fire. It was a common practice in South Africa during the 1980s and 1990s anti-apartheid struggle.

Another ancient method of execution was “scaphism.” It was used in Persia and variations were used by Native American Indians. The victim was restrained and smeared with honey and, perhaps, feces. Ants and other insects would be attracted and they would eat and breed within the condemned person’s flesh. Death probably resulted from a combination of dehydration, starvation and septic shock.

In execution by sawing, the criminal was suspended upside-down. A large saw was used to cut the body in half, starting with the groin and moving down towards the head. Hanging upside-down, the person’s brain received enough blood to keep him alive until the saw reached the main blood vessels in the abdomen. This method was used in the Middle East, Europe, parts of Asia, and the Roman Empire. It was considered to be the favorite punishment used by Emperor Caligula.

“Humane” Methods of Execution: the Contemporary American Experience

As of April 12, 2011, the death penalty in the United States was authorized in 34 states, the federal government, and the U.S. military. States with the death penalty include Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming. Of these, Kansas, New Hampshire, and the U.S. military have had no executions since 1976. In February 2008, the Nebraska Supreme Court ruled electrocution, the State’s sole method of execution, unconstitutional. With no alternative method of execution, Nebraska effectively has no death penalty. The District of Columbia and fifteen additional states -- Alaska, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Rhode Island, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wisconsin -- are without the death penalty. In 2004, the New York Supreme Court ruled that existing death penalty procedures violated the State Constitution. When the New York legislature did not enact procedural reforms, the death penalty was effectively eliminated in the State. New Mexico abolished the death penalty in 2009 but the repeal was not retroactive. Two inmates remain on New Mexico’s death row with lethal injection protocols still in place.

Various methods of execution have been employed in contemporary times including hanging, firing squads, the gas chamber, electrocution, and lethal injection. Twenty jurisdictions provide for alternative methods of execution depending upon the choice of the inmate, the date of execution or sentence, or the possibility of the preferred method being held unconstitutional. Nebraska is the only state that does not have lethal injection as a primary or optional method of execution. Nebraska provided electrocution as the sole method of execution. As noted, when this method was invalidated by the state Supreme Court, Nebraska’s death penalty was, in effect, suspended. Since 1976, most executions have been carried out by lethal injection (see Table 1).

Hanging is the oldest method of execution in the United States. It fell out of favor during the twentieth century following numerous botched attempts. If careful measuring and planning are not done, strangulation or beheading can occur. An inmate is weighed the day before the scheduled execution and a rehearsal is done using sandbags of the same weight as the prisoner. There have been only three executions by hanging since 1977: Westley Dodd (1993) and Charles Campbell (1994), both in the state of Washington, and, most recently, Billy Bailey (1998) in Delaware. Only three states – Delaware, Washington, and New Hampshire – currently authorize hanging as a method of execution. All three provide for lethal injection as the primary method.

An inmate to be hanged is escorted, in restraints, to the gallows area and is placed over a hinged trap door. Following the offender’s last statement, a hood is placed over the inmate’s head. Restraints are also
applied. A determination of the appropriate amount of “drop” is based on the inmate’s size and is calculated using a standard military execution chart for hanging. A rope of Manila hemp is used. The rope is of at least 3/4” and not more than 1 1/4” in diameter and is approximately 30 feet in length. It is soaked and stretched while drying to eliminate any spring or stiffness. The hangman’s knot is tied pursuant to military regulations. The knot is treated with wax, soap, or clear oil to make sure that the rope slides smoothly through the knot. The noose is placed around the offender’s neck, with the knot behind his or her left ear, which will cause the neck to snap. The trap door opens, the inmate drops, and, if properly done, death is caused by fracture-dislocation of the third and fourth cervical vertebrae.

Firing squads have also been used in the United States. In Wilkerson v. Utah (99 U.S. 130, 1879), the U.S. Supreme Court upheld a sentence to death by firing squad. Writing for the Court, Justice Clifford observed that “punishments of torture” and those that inflict “unnecessary cruelty” are prohibited by the Eighth Amendment. The Court cited examples from England where “terror, pain, or disgrace were sometimes superadded” to sentences as the condemned was “emboweled alive, beheaded, and quartered” or where “public dissection” and “burning alive” occurred. In contrast, firing squads were judged to be neither cruel nor unusual.

In recent years, only three inmates have been executed by firing squads. All three occurred in Utah. Gary Gilmore in 1977, John Albert Taylor in 1996, and most recently, Ronnie Lee Gardner in 2010, were executed in this manner. This method was popular in the military during wartime, but there has only been one such execution since the Civil War: Private Eddie Slovik on January 31, 1945, during World War II. Only three states – Idaho, Oklahoma, and Utah – currently authorize firing squads as a method of execution. All three provide for lethal injection as the primary method. Shooting is used as an alternative contingent upon the choice of the inmate, impracticality of lethal injection, or lethal injection being held unconstitutional.

A traditional firing squad consists of three to six shooters. The inmate is tied to a chair or stake with leather straps. The shooters aim at the chest because this is an easier target to hit than the head. The officer in charge administers a final shot to the head of the inmate in the event that the initial volley fails to produce death. In Utah, the offender is placed in a specially designed chair. A pan is placed beneath the chair to catch and conceal blood and other fluids. A head restraint holds the inmate’s head and neck in an upright position. The offender is dressed in dark blue clothing with a white cloth circle attached by Velcro to an area over the heart. Sandbags are placed behind the inmate to absorb the bullets and prevent ricochets. Twenty feet in front of the offender is a wall with firing ports for the members of the firing squad. Following the offender’s statement, a black hood is placed over the inmate’s head. The warden leaves and shooters aim their rifles at the white cloth circle on the offender’s chest. On the command to fire, the shooters fire simultaneously. One member of the firing squad has a blank charge in his rifle, but no member knows which one has fired the blank charge.

The gas chamber as an execution method was inspired by the use of toxic gas during World War I. Nevada, in 1924, was the first state to execute an inmate in this way. Lethal gas has been used for execution 31 times. Walter LeGrand was the last inmate to be executed in this fashion. His execution took place in Arizona on March 3, 1999. Only four states – Arizona, California, Missouri, and Wyoming – currently authorize lethal gas as an alternative method of execution. All four use lethal injection as the primary method.

Most jurisdictions with provisions for executions by lethal gas use an airtight, steel execution chamber. The inmate is placed in a chair and restrained at the chest, waist, arms, and ankles. The offender wears a mask during the execution. The chair has a metal container beneath the seat. Cyanide pellets are placed in this container. A metal canister under the container is filled with sulfuric acid. Three executioners participate. Each turns one key. When all three keys are turned, the cyanide pellets drop into the sulfuric acid, producing lethal gas. Unconsciousness can occur quickly if the offender takes a deep breath. If the inmate holds his or her breath, death can take considerably longer and the prisoner goes into convulsions. Death is estimated to occur within six to 18 minutes. A heart monitor is read in the control room. After the warden pronounces the inmate dead, ammonia is pumped into the execution chamber to neutralize the lethal gas. Exhaust fans remove remaining fumes from the room into two scrubbers. The neutralizing
process takes approximately 30 minutes from the time of death. Orderlies wearing gas masks and rubber gloves enter at his time. They are instructed to “ruffle the victim’s hair” to release trapped cyanide gas before removing the body.26

From 1930-1980, electrocution was the most common method of execution in the United States. Electrocution was adopted as a method of execution under unusual circumstances. Edison Company with its DC (direct current) electrical systems competed with Westinghouse Company and its AC (alternating current) electrical systems. In order to show how dangerous AC could be, Edison Company began holding public demonstrations at which animals were electrocuted. The Company’s primary message was reinterpreted. Some reasoned that if electricity could kill animals, it could kill people too. In 1888, New York dismantled its gallows and built the first electric chair. The state legislature asserted that electrocution was “a more humane method” than hanging and that it would produce “instantaneous” and “painless” death. In In re Kemmler (136 U.S. 436, 1889), the Supreme Court held that electrocution is not “inhuman and barbarous.” In 1890, William Kemmler was the first inmate to be electrocuted. Other states followed New York’s lead.27 But does electrocution provide an “instantaneous” and “painless” death? Willie Francis was sentenced to die in the Louisiana electric chair for murder. The first attempt to electrocute Francis failed. He was strapped into the chair, the switch was thrown, and a mechanical failure prevented the equipment from working. In Louisiana ex rel. Francis v. Resweber (329 U.S. 459, 1947), the Supreme Court, by a vote of five to four, cleared the way for Francis’ execution when it ruled that a second attempt to electrocute Francis would not be cruel and unusual punishment.

In addition to previously discussed Nebraska, eight states -- Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Illinois, Kentucky, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia -- currently provide for electrocution as an as an alternative execution method. Witness accounts of burning and failure to cause death without repeated shocks caused electrocution to be replaced with lethal injection as the most common method of execution. Of countries outside the United States that utilize capital punishment, none provide for execution by electrocution. It is of interest to note that the Humane Society of the United States and the American Veterinarian Medical Association both reject electrocution as a method of euthanasia for animals. Paul Warner Powell is the most recent person to have been executed in this way. He was died in the Virginia electric chair on March 18, 2010.28

In his dissent to the Supreme Court’s denial of certiorari in Glass v. Louisiana (471 U.S. 1080, 1985), Justice William Brennan said that electrocution was comparable to “disemboweling while alive, drawing and quartering, public dissection, burning at the stake, and breaking at the wheel.” Brennan noted that prisoners sometimes catch on fire and that witnesses hear a sound “like bacon frying” while the “sickly sweet smell of burning flesh permeates the chamber.” The prisoner “almost literally boils” and when the autopsy is performed, the liver is so hot that doctors have reported that it “cannot be touched by the human hand.”

Typical electrocution protocols provide for the use of a wooden chair with restraints and connections to an electric current. The chair is made of oak. It is set on a rubber mat and is bolted to a concrete floor. The inmate is placed in the chair. Lap, chest, arm, and forearm restraints are secured. A leg piece is attached to the inmate’s right calf and a sponge and electrode are also attached. A metal headpiece includes a leather hood to conceal the offender’s face. The metal part of the headgear includes a copper wire mesh screen to which the electrode is attached. A sponge wet with saline is placed between the electrode and the inmate’s scalp. If the sponge is too wet, it short circuits the electric current. If it is too dry, it would have a high resistance. The circuit breaker is engaged and an automatic cycle lasting 38 seconds begins. A current of electricity between 500 and 2,000 volts passes through the offender’s body. If the inmate is not pronounced dead, the cycle is repeated.29

Oklahoma was the first state to adopt lethal injection as its means of execution. Texas was the first state to use this method when it executed Charles Brooks on December 2, 1982.30 Thirty-five states prescribe lethal injection as the sole or primary method of execution. These states include Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South
Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming. The federal government also uses lethal injection as its primary execution method. However, the Violent Crime Control Act of 1994 provides that the method to be used is that of the state in which the conviction took place.31

According to lethal-injection protocols, the inmate is strapped onto a gurney with ankle and wrist restraints. A cardiac monitor is attached to a printer outside the execution chamber. Two needles are inserted into suitable veins. One needle is a back-up. Tubes connect the needles to intravenous drips. Most jurisdictions use a combination of three drugs. At the warden’s signal, a curtain is raised so the condemned can be seen by witnesses in an adjoining room. Then sodium pentothal or sodium thiopental, a barbiturate sedative that renders the inmate unconscious, is administered. Next, pancuronium bromide, a muscle relaxant that paralyzes the lungs, diaphragm, and muscular-skeletal movements, is introduced to stop respiration. Finally, potassium chloride, a drug that interferes with electrical signals that stimulate contractions of the heart, is used to induce cardiac arrest. The first drug, if properly administered, is designed to ensure that the prisoner does not feel pain associated with paralysis and cardiac arrest. Medical ethics prohibit doctors from participating actively in executions, but a doctor is present to certify that the inmate is dead. The most common problems are collapsing veins or an inability to insert the IV properly. If a technician injects the drugs into a muscle instead of a vein, or if needles become clogged, extreme pain can result.32

Conclusions

When it comes to capital punishment, methods of execution matter. Not all executions are regarded by courts as “cruel and unusual,” but some are. Particularly repulsive methods of execution have been abandoned, but such practices were not always deemed socially unacceptable. Recall that the guillotine was welcomed as a humanitarian advance in the technology of death. The electric chair promised “instantaneous” and “painless” death. Today, lethal injection is the preferred and generally prescribed method of execution, widely regarded as the most humane. But lethal injection is not without its share of controversy and detractors.

In Baze and Bowling v. Rees (553 U.S. 35, 2008), two inmates challenged Kentucky’s lethal injection process. They conceded that the procedure was “humane and constitutional” if performed correctly, but they argued that incorrect administration of the drugs would inflict severe pain and would constitute cruel and unusual punishment. The U.S. Supreme Court rejected the petitioners’ claim that Kentucky’s three-drug protocols – the same as those used by most other states -- were “objectively intolerable.” Chief Justice Roberts noted that society has made steady “progress toward more humane methods of execution, and our approval of a particular method in the past has not precluded legislatures from taking the steps they deem appropriate, in light of new developments, to ensure humane capital punishment.”

In 2011, the supply of sodium thiopental declined. Reacting to this shortage, six states – Ohio, Arizona, Oklahoma, Texas, Alabama, and Mississippi – considered switching to pentobarbital for lethal injections. Death penalty opponents objected and pointed out that pentobarbital is used for euthanizing animals. “Humane capital punishment” – contemporary standards of decency continue to evolve.

Table 1:
Executions from 1976 through April 12, 2011 by Method Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Executions</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1072</td>
<td>Lethal Injection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>157</td>
<td>Electrocution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Gas Chamber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hanging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Firing Squad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Endnotes


3 Reggio.

4 According to Plutarch, Draco believed that if minor crimes such as stealing an apple or a cabbage led to death, there was nothing else but death for more serious offenses. Plutarch, *The Lives of Noble Grecians and Romans*. (New York City: The Modern Library, Random House), John Dryden translation revised by Arthur H. Clough (originally published 1864), *Solon*, 107.


7 Plato’s dialogues *Euthyphro*, *Apology*, *Crito*, and *Phaedo* are sources for the trial and death of Socrates.

8 Genesis 2:17, RSV.

9 Genesis 18:25, RSV. Not even ten righteous persons were found. Both cities were destroyed.


11 The resulting *Corpus Juris* (Body of Law) was in use in the Byzantine Empire for the next 900 years. It was rediscovered in the West in the eleventh century A.D., and influenced the development of law on the continent and in England.

12 Reggio, 1-2, DPIC, “History.”


14 Critics of America’s system of public defenders have compared trial by champion to trial by lawyer, suggesting that wealthy defendants get the best justice because they buy more accomplished champions.


17 As above, some material from this section also will be incorporated into Melusky and Pesto, *The Capital Punishment Debate*, Greenwood Press, forthcoming in 2011.


19 Clark County Prosecuting Attorney document, “Methods of Execution.”

20 DPIC, “Facts.”


22 Clark County Prosecuting Attorney document, “Methods of Execution” and DPIC Document, “Description of Execution Methods.”

23 Clark County Prosecuting Attorney documents, “Methods of Execution” and “U.S. Executions since 1976.”


25 Clark County Prosecuting Attorney documents, “Methods of Execution” and “U.S. Executions since 1976.”
Clark County Prosecuting Attorney document, “Methods of Execution” and DPIC Document, “Description of Execution Methods.”


Clark County Prosecuting Attorney documents, “Methods of Execution” and “U.S. Executions since 1976.”

Clark County Prosecuting Attorney document, “Methods of Execution” and DPIC Document, “Description of Execution Methods.”


Clark County Prosecuting Attorney document, “Methods of Execution.” As discussed, in 2004 the New York Supreme Court invalidated existing death penalty procedures. The state legislature did not enact revisions, effectively suspending the death penalty in New York. New Mexico abolished the death penalty in 2009, but the repeal was not retroactive. Two convicts sit on New Mexico’s death row with lethal injection prescribed. Nebraska, another death-penalty state, is not on the lethal-injection list because it retained electrocution for executions. When the state supreme court eliminated electrocution in 2008, Nebraska’s death penalty was suspended.

“They’re Just Being Kids”: Recognizing and Preventing Bullying

Sandra S. Murray  
Patria Hewitt  
Suzanne Maniss  
University of Tennessee at Martin  

Joseph Molinatti  
College of Mount Saint Vincent

Introduction

According to the Center for Disease Control (2009) suicide is the third leading cause of death among young people. There are approximately 4400 deaths per year with an estimated 100 suicide attempts for each accomplished suicide. In recent years bullying related suicides across the country have caused us to begin to ask ourselves if bullying is “just part of being a kid?” Alarmingly Thea Dikeos of ABC News (2009) reported that 30 percent of American students are either bullies or being bullied. This bullying results in 160,000 students missing school every day. There are many forms of bullying, including physical, emotional, cyber, and sexting. The Internet, YouTube, and cell phone messaging are compounding the problem by expanding the audience to the bullying.

In addition to the magnitude of bullying opportunities is the reaction of school staff to the victimization. In a study by Hoover 66 percent of the students who responded reported that once bullying was reported school staff responded poorly. Additionally, when there is a climate of acceptance of bullying by the school staff cue to non-intervention, bullying episodes increase creating a toxic environment.

What is Bullying?

Bullying is aggressive behavior that intends to cause harm or distress. This behavior is usually repeated over and over and occurs in a relationship where there is an imbalance of power of strength. Examples of this type of behavior can be seen in the character Draco Malfoy in the Harry Potter Series (Rawling, 1997), and Scut Farcus in the classic movie “A Christmas Story” (Clark, 1983). Both characters are lauding over others who lack social status, as does Harry Potter or frail of stature as Ralphpie.

There are two types of bullying, direct and indirect. Direct bullying can be either physical or emotional. Kicking, hitting, shoving, and spitting are behaviors of physical bullying. While emotional bullying consists of taunting, teasing, racial slurs, threatening, obscene gestures and verbal harassment. Either or both methods may be employed. Indirect bullying includes getting others to bully someone for you. This often involves spreading rumors, exclusion from a group or activities and cyber bullying, the new rage.

How Frequent Does Bullying Occur?

A study conducted in by Nansel et al. in 2001 took a national sample of 15,600 students in grades six to ten. The study funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development showed that 19% of the participants bullied others sometimes or more often and 9% bullied others weekly. Additionally 17% were bullied sometimes or more often and 8% indicated they were bullied weekly. Surprisingly, 6% reported bullying and being bullied. This study also indicated that special needs children are at a higher risk of being bullied.
Who are the Bullies?

Most studies (Olweus, 2002; Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1993) found that boys bully more than girls; boys tend to be bullied by boys while both boys and girls bully girls. Boys are more apt to be bullied physically while girls are more likely to be bullied by rumor spreading, sexual comments and social exclusion. One child or a small group usually does these incidents with an obvious leader who directs the bullying. Bullying takes place most commonly at school rather than in the neighborhood or to/from school.

Bullies are more likely to get into fights frequently. They are the usually the epitome of the bad kid and often steal, vandalize property, drink alcohol, and smoke. They are frequently truant from school, perform poorly academically and sense a negative climate at school. They are apt to carry a weapon to gain respect or frighten people (Cunningham, Henggeler, Limber, Melton, & Nation, 2000). Additionally, bullies are hotheaded, impulsive, lack empathy, and have difficulty conforming to rules. They often exhibit positive attitudes toward violence.

Frequently the bully is modeling the behavior of a parent or other member of the family. The family exhibits a lack of warmth and parents lack involvement in the child’s life whether at school or socially. The family structure is loose and parenting is over-permissive. There are few limits placed on the child’s behavior. Parental supervision is lacking. When punishment is dealt it is usually harsh and physically abusive.

Myths and Realities about Bullies

Bullies are generally seen as loners but in fact that is far from the reality. Research shows bullies are not socially isolated and have an easier time making friends than those who do not bully. Bullies usually have a small group of friends who encourage or support the bullying. Low self-esteem is often associated with bullies. Research however, indicates that bullies have average or above-average self-esteem. Therefore, interventions focused on self-esteem will be ineffective in stopping bullying.

A study conducted by Olweus (2002) show that 60% of the male participants who were bullied in middle school had at least one conviction by age 24 with 40% or more having three or more convictions. This study also showed that bullies are four times as likely as peers to have multiple convictions. Nansel (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2001) reports that bullies exhibit a variety of social misbehaviors including smoking and drinking and perform poorly in school. Additionally those who are both bullied and bullier “tended to fare the most poorly of all, experiencing social isolation, as well as doing poorly in school and engaging in problem behaviors, like smoking and drinking” (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2001, ¶ 12).

Recognizing the signs of a bullier are as important as knowing who is being bullied. These signs include frequent outbursts of violence; recurring fights, either physical or verbal, with others; referrals to the school administration; possession of money, objects that cannot be explained; failure to accept responsibility for their own behavior; and being a poor loser to name a few (Department of Health and Human Service, n.d.).

The Bullied

“Being bullied is not just an unpleasant rite of passage through childhood,” said Duane Alexander, M.D., director of the NICHD. “It’s a public health problem that merits attention. People who were bullied as children are more likely to suffer from depression and low self-esteem, well into adulthood, and the bullies themselves are more likely to engage in criminal behavior later in life” (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2001, ¶ 3).

Those being bullied exhibit lower self-esteem, are depressed, lonely and anxious. They have higher absenteeism rates, have more thoughts of suicide as well as migraine headaches and a general unwell feeling.

There are multiple warning signs that a child is being bullied. They include torn clothing; missing books, jewelry and electronics; unexplained physical injuries; bad dreams or insomnia; sad, moody, depressed; loss of appetite; and failing grades to name a few (Department of Health and Human Services, n.d.).
Olweus (2002) reported that another factor involved with the bullied is health consequences. Of those who have reported to be bullied 16% have headaches; 42% have sleep problems; 17% have abdominal pain; 20% feel tense; 28% exhibit anxiety; and, 23% feel unhappy. While those who have reported not being bullied 6% have headaches; 23% have sleep problems; 9% have abdominal pain; 9% feel tense; 10% exhibit anxiety; and, only 5% feel unhappy. Even more alarming is that the depression scale for those being bullied is 49% moderate indication and 16% strong indication while those not being bullied is 16% moderate indication and only 2% strong indication (Olweus, 2002).

**Bullied to Death**

The Bullying Statistics (n.d.) website indicate that bullying is the third leading cause of suicide, now commonly known as bullycide, among young people, resulting in 4,400 deaths per year. Their facts, gathered from the Center for Disease Control, indicate that for every one successful suicide there are four failed attempts. Suicide due to bullying “can be connected to any type of bullying, including physical bullying, emotional bullying, cyber bullying, and sexting, or circulating suggestive or nude photos or messages about a person” (Bullying Statistics, Bullying and Suicide, n.d., ¶ 3).

Though there are few reports on the number of teen suicides that result from bullying of either type, there have been numerous media reports of suicides due to both traditional bullying and cyber bullying. These reports go as far back of 2009 when Karen Rae reported that the 2006 suicidal death of her 14-year-old daughter was due to a message that came through the Internet. The most recent abuse is the cyber bullying that continues to occur on the Facebook page of Daani Saunders, who took her own life after being persistently abused on the social network. The Internet and YouTube are full of other instances where victims either attribute their suicide to bullying and cyber bullying or investigations after the fact indicate that bullying or cyber bullying were to blame for these deaths.

**Do students report bullying?**

Many times students will not report either type of bullying. Older children and boys are less likely to report bullying. They don’t report bullying due to feeling that school staff responded poorly (Olweus, 2002). In a study conducted by Rigby and Bradshaw (2003) “less than 50% of the students believed that most teachers acted in a helpful way” (p. 539) in a bullying situation. Additionally the study (Rigby & Bagshaw, 2003) showed 20% of the responding students believed that teachers were a negative influence.

**What works?**

Schools with limited “adult supervision during breaks, where teachers and students are indifferent to or accept bullying behavior and where rules against bullying are not consistently enforced” (Stutzky, n.d., ¶ 17) are more likely to have a high incidence of bullying. However, bullying occurs in rural, suburban and urban schools and among children of every income level, race, and geographic region (Nansel et al., 2001). In order to rectify the situation of bullying there needs to be a change in the climate of the school and community. The Center for Disease Control (CDC) recommends, establish a social school environment that promotes safety; (2) provide access to health and mental health services; (3) integrate school, family, and community prevention efforts; and (4) provide training to enable staff members to promote safety and prevent violence effectively (CDC, 2011, p. 2286).

To institute a social school environment that promotes safety requires that all adults in the school establish clear written policies and expectations that are consistently enforced. Adults and students must be cognizant of these policies, their consequences and what actually constitutes bullying. They must know that these actions will not be tolerated. All of those involved in the school and the community must be aware of the repercussions that will take place if bullying is observed and those consequences must be consistently enforced. Records should be maintained of bullying incidents and the consequences meted out (Buh & de Guzman, n.d.). Studies have shown that the establishment of clear, consistently enforced policies can reduce incidents of bullying up to 50% (Stutzky, n.d.).

Health and mental health services must be provided for the victims, the parents and the bullies. This can consist of services at school, such as the establishment of a safe zone for victims, a counselor especially trained in victimization. Adults must be made aware of both the physical and emotional signs of the bullier as well as the bullied (Department of Health and Human Services, n.d.) and know where to
refer a possible victim of bullying. Public health workers should be educated about bullying and how to recognize it (National Center for Mental Health, n.d.).

Parents and key community members such as the local police should be made aware of the signs of bullying and being bullied. They should be aware of the policies and consequences of the school and actively involved in their implementation.

Most importantly is the education of the school members. This should be provided to, administrators, guidance counselors and school nurses and any member of the school who come into contact with students. This training should include “how to recognize and respond to bullying” (National Center for Mental Health, n.d., ¶ 11).

**Cyber Bullying, and Sexting**

With the increased use of the Internet a new type of bullying has evolved – cyber bullying. Cyber bullying can “involve sending mean, vulgar and threatening messages or images; posting sensitive, or private information about another person; pretending to be someone else in order to make another person look bad; and intentionally excluding someone from an online group (Willard, 2005)” (Crisis Connections, n.d., p. 1). This type of bulling is also known as electronic bullying or online social cruelty. This can be accomplished through emails, instant messaging, sending text or digital imaging messages via cell phone, web blogs, and other means of transmitting electronic information. These messages can be sent directly to the person being bullied or indirectly by sending embarrassing information or threats about someone to web sites, blogs, chat room, etc.

Cyber bullying is different from traditional bullying in that it can occur at any time of day or night. According to Feinberg and Robey (2008) “targets of cyber bullying suffer equal if not greater psychological harm because the hurtful information can be transmitted broadly and instantaneously and can be difficult to eliminate (p. 11). The anonymity of the cyber bully also contributes to the cessation of the act as well as the aggressive content of the harassment. Some may not even see themselves as bullies at all. “Some cyber bullies do not intend to cause harm; they just respond without thinking about the consequences of their actions (Stop Cyber-bullying, n.d.)” (Feinberg & Robey, 2008, p. 11).

Types of cyber bullying include flaming; harassment, threats, and stalking; denigration; impersonation; outing and trickery; and exclusion (Feinberg & Robey, 2008). Willard (2007) defines these categories in her article “Educator’s Guide to CyberBullying and Cyber Threats”.

Sexting is “a term coined by the media that generally refers to sending, receiving, or forwarding sexually suggestive nude or nearly nude photos or sexually suggestive messages through text message or email” (Crisis Intervention Center, 2011, ¶ 1). This form of Internet messaging can be done voluntarily or involuntarily and oftentimes has the same results as cyber bullying. Voluntary sexting is when the sender knowingly sends the photo/message of himself or herself. This can be illegal (applicable to only images) and considered child pornography (Crisis Intervention Center, 2011). An example of voluntary would be a high school girl sending pictures of herself topless to her boyfriend. Involuntary sexting is automatically illegal whether the underage sender agrees to the action or not. These cases can include an underage person voluntarily sending the sext as well as a sext being spread with out that person being knowledgeable of the transmission. Sexting becomes bullying when someone forwards or posts these messages in chat rooms, blogs, etc. where the original sender did not intend the material to appear.

**How Frequently Does Cyber Bullying and Sexting Occur?**

Though not widely studied recent research (Kowalski et al., 2005; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004; Fight Crimes: Invest in Kids, 2006; Wolak, Mitchell, & Finkelhor, 2006) found that 18% of students in grade 6 to 8 report they have been cyber bullied. This electronic bulling has occurred at least once in the last month and 6% having been cyber bullied more than two times. Conversely 11% of the students in the same grades have cyber bullied another person at least once and 2% reporting they have cyber bullied more than twice (Kowalski et al., 2005). Of those ages 10 to 17 19% reported being involved in online aggression, where 15% were the aggressors, 7% were the targets and 3% were the aggressors and the targets (Ybarr & Mitchell, 2004).

This form of aggression can be indirect. In this case 17% of 6 to 11 year olds reported that someone said threatening or embarrassing things about them through email, instant messages, websites, chat rooms.
or text messages, 36% of 12 to 17 year olds reported this type of bullying (Fight Crime: Invest in Kids, 2006). Twice as many 10 to 17 year olds indicated that they have been victims and perpetrators of online harassment in 2005 compared to 1999/2000 (Wolak, Mitchell, & Finkelhor, 2006).

At the 2009 Teen Summit held in Washington, D.C. Cox Communications reported that one in five students have engaged in sexting. Additionally over 33% of those polled know of someone who has sent or received this type of message (Crisis Intervention Center, 2011). Most sext senders say these messages are most commonly sent to boyfriends/girlfriends because it’s asked for or to have fun. However, about one in 10 sext senders say they have sent these messages to people they don’t even know (Crisis Intervention Center, 2011).

The Crisis Intervention Center (2011) found that while most teens feel that sexting is dangerous 67% think that adults overact to the matter. The CIC study consisted of 53% girls and 47% boys. Of those responding girls were more likely (60%) than boys (35%) to be the sexter. The study also found that those 16 to 18 (61%) were more likely to be sexters than those 13 to 15 (39%). They also found that 30% of sexting teens had been bullied.

Who are the Cyber Bullied?

According to Kowalski et al. (2005) girls are twice as likely to be cyber bullies or cyber bullied. These events occur at least twice a month. Of the respondents to the student 62% of them reported being cyber bullied at school and 46% were cyber bullied by “a friend”. Those students reporting to be cyber bullies indicated that this was done 60% of the time at school and 56% of the victims was a friend. Since cyber bullying can occur any place and at any time there is no longer the possibility of a safe home environment that may be possible for the traditional bullied (Elborg, 2009).

Ybarra and Mitchell (2004) found that 15% of the students who responded to their survey had encountered online harassment behavior at least once. The results reported that 47% of the respondents age 15 to 17 had been cyber bullied while only 22% of those ages 10 to 12. Of those who were harassed “72% were harassed by someone they met online and 28% by someone they knew in person (Finkelhor, et al, 2000)” (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004, p. 326). The study showed that there was little difference between the number of boys and girls who were victims of online harassment while age was a significant factor. However, there was also a significant difference between the races of the students with 46% of white students being more likely to be harassed (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004). Their study also found that cyber bullying victims were more likely to reside in a household with poor familial relationships. This was substantiated in a study by Epstein and Kazmierczakelf (2006-2007) who found that 27% of cyber bullying victims had poor emotional bonds with their parents. Twenty nine percent of respondents in the Epstein and Kazmierczakelf study reported infrequent parental monitoring of Internet use.

Who are the Cyber Bullies?

Unlike traditional bullies, who are more frequently males (Nansel et al., 2001), the online bully is likely to be either a male or female. The anonymity of the online format is also believed to result in more hostile and aggressive behavior (Ybarra, & Mitchell, 2005). Online anonymity provides a platform for those who may not engage in traditional bullying. These include females, homosexuals, “those with disabilities and even those who feel less physically attractive” (Ybarra, & Mitchell, 2005, p. 332). This anonymity also makes it more difficult to identify the cyber bully.

Cyber bullying can occur any time of the day or night at any location. In a study conducted by Epstein and Kazmierczakelf (2006-2007) self-identified cyber bullies 54% of the respondents reported infrequent parental monitoring and “46% indicated poor emotional bonds with their parents” (Epstein & Kazmierczakelf, 2006-2007, p. 42).

Dealing with Cyber Bullying

Cyber bullying incidents on many school campuses have been reduced due to monitoring in computer labs (Epstein & Kazmierczakelf, 2006-2007) and the installation of firewalls, which have become mandatory at many schools around the world (Elsborg, 2009; Khan, n.d.; Massachusetts Department, n.d.). Elsborg (n.d.) recommends that schools “place restrictions on school and email accounts through: the firewall; editorial control software; content filters; restricting access to certain sites (this can be done
by year-group for a more proportionate response); and usage monitoring” (¶ 46). These same tactics can be implemented at home.

The cyber bullied are to be instructed not to respond to the harassment. The evidence should be saved and if possible the cyber bully identified. The Internet provider should be contacted immediately and a complaint filed as the inappropriate language may violate the provider’s Terms and Conditions. If you do not have the capability or skill set to do so, ask the Internet provider to block future contact. If the bullying occurred at school immediately report the harassment. If you know the parent and are comfortable with doing so report the incident to the parent of the cyber bully. In cases of extortion, threats of violence, obscene or sexual explicit phone calls or text messages, stalking, hate crimes and child pornography the police must be contacted (Life Skills Knowledge Base, n.d.).

Parents should monitor computer and cell phone use. Computers should be in a viewable area. Privacy is always an issue between a child and the parent but those issues should be ignored if inappropriate computer or cellphone use is suspected. The child should be made aware that a parent may review online and cell phone usage. Parental control filters and tracking programs can be installed on the computer (Life Skills Knowledge Base, n.d.).

Conclusion
As our world becomes more complex and the interactions become less controlled due to technology, the school and home safety become more complex. Bullying, which was once characterized by the actions of the Draco Malfoys (Rawling, 1997) and Biff Tannens (Clark, 1983) of the world, is now being modified to also include the less attractive, disabled, and homosexuals. Bullying is complicated with the emergence of the Internet and the anonymity it provides.

Educators and parents can no longer believe “They’re just being kids” and must intervene whether the bullying consists of physical threats or mean texting. Children and youth need to be apprised of the characteristics of the bully and the cyber bully and armed with techniques to defend themselves from these predators.

References


Teaching Critical Thinking in Social Studies in Classrooms

Tabitha Otieno
Jackson State University

“Critical thinking is a desire to seek, patience to doubt, fondness to mediate, slowness to assert, readiness to consider, carefulness to dispose and set in order, and hatred for every king of imposture”

“Francis Bacon” (1605).

Introduction
This is an age when societies must prepare their people to think critically because of the complexity of developing problems that require complex solutions. Critical thinking skills required in our youth are not emphasized enough in their learning experiences (Buerdsell, 2009) Curriculum in most institutions may not be as rigorous as it should be. This raises concern in learning institutions as they fall short of addressing adequately critical thinking skills and about the rigor of the learning process in general.

Critical thinking is not unique to social studies but is used across all disciplines. Moreover, critical thinking is not subject specific and is not measured by the level of educational attainment. But, is measured by how deeply one is knowledgeable and how he or she examines each argument or information (Ricker, 2010). It has become imperative that interdisciplinary approaches be used in solving societal problems. Complex problems require diverse mindset from various fields of expertise to address issues by contributing solutions from different viewpoints.

Knowledge, skills, and strategies needed to acquire critical thinking in the global society are complex. This makes critical thinking a necessary component in education in general and social studies in particular. It is in social studies that students, tomorrow’s leaders are equipped with civic education that they need to live and work in a democratic society. No society can progress with passive citizens, indifferent or not fully informed. It is for this purpose that social studies should be given a prominent place in the curriculum and should be tested along with other subjects to show the important role it plays in the lives of all citizens today and tomorrow (Chapin, 2009 and Moore, et al 2006).

Significance of the study
This study is important in that societal problems are on the rise and require critical thinkers to develop solutions to address the issues adequately. These problems affect all sectors of society, to understand how to prepare young individuals and leaders of tomorrow is one step closer to facing our challenges. This study may inform colleges of education that prepare social studies teachers to explore strategies and tasks that encourage critical thinking skills. The conclusions may help develop guidelines in the training and hiring of social studies teachers who are grounded in social studies methods so as to challenge students to think critically. Finally, findings may encourage stakeholders to consider how social studies is treated in schools because of the important role social studies plays in preparing citizens who think critically and make informed decisions that affect society.

Research questions
This study will be guided by the following research questions:
1. Is critical thinking incorporated in social studies classrooms?
2. How can critical thinking be enhanced in social studies classrooms?
3. What are the challenges social studies teachers’ faces in teaching critical thinking?

Review of literature
Literature review focuses on two main areas: What is social studies and the importance of critical thinking in social studies learning experiences. Education is one of the most important services provided
by a democratic society to its people. The importance of education is quite apparent. Education is the
knowledge of putting one's potentials to utmost use. One can safely say that a human being is not in the
fully developed until he or she is educated to think critically. Education makes a person a right thinker
(Baum, 2010 and Browne, and et al, 2009). It prepares an individual on how to think and how to make
decisions. Teachers play an important role in molding young minds. Social studies teachers have a unique
role of promoting citizen education central in any society (Lephoto, 2009).

What is social studies?

Social studies is the study of man and how he interacts with his physical environment (Colander &
Hunt, 2010). From a different perspective, Bloom (2010) states that “Social studies is an interdiscipinary
subject, incorporating geography, literacy, history, government and current affairs, among other
disciplines. It is a crucial part of in that it teaches students how to be well-informed, critically thinking
citizens of their world)” p.1). In the process of interaction clashes result that require solutions. It is in
resolving these clashes that critical thinking becomes important skill set.

Martorella (2009) defines social studies as: selected information and modes of investigation from
social sciences, and selected information from any area that relates directly to an understanding of
individual, groups, and society, and application of the selected information to citizenship education” (p.
37). The social studies concerned itself exclusively with the education of citizens to become productive
members of society. The social studies is an integration of experience and knowledge concerning human
relations for the purpose of citizenship education (Chapin, 2009). Because of the central role social
studies plays as defined above, it necessitates that the subject matter should be taught using critical
thinking skills.

The central premise informing our work is that educators created the social studies early in the 20th
century to help promote development of effective citizens. Children should learn social studies because
democracy and freedoms depend on it. Democracy and its way of life have tremendous benefits and
advantages to other systems. Hence, the goals of social studies are backed up with effective teachers to
continue the mission of promoting citizen education through social studies instruction and through
teaching young people to think critically (Chapin, 2009, & Beyer, 2008).

Social problems are not confined to the borders of any society but most of the issues are international,
national, and local community. All these issues affect how human beings interact with their environment.
Issues are real and must be addressed because they are not disappearing. Therefore, social studies uses
interdisciplinary approach and critical thinking to analyze, discuss, and evaluate societal issues that affect
them. Hence, critical thinking skills become a necessary skill to learn and use.

Importance of critical thinking in social studies learning experiences:

Various people and organizations have defined critical thinking differently. The Foundation of critical
thinking (2009) defines critical thinking as
“Critical thinking is that mode of thinking — about any subject, content, or problem — in which the
thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully analyzing, assessing, and reconstructing it.
Critical thinking is self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking” (p. 1).
assumptions, discerns hidden values, evaluates evidence, accomplishes actions, and assesses conclusions”
(p.1).

In summary, critical thinking is the ability to think beyond what is expected and being able to come up
with practical solution to problems that face societies.

Foundation for Critical thinking (2009) outlines a five-step result of well-cultivated critical thinkers as
follows:

- Raises vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely
- Gathers and assesses relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively
- Comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, testing them against relevant criteria and
  standards
- Thinks openmindedly within alternative systems of thought, recognizing, and assessing, as needs
  be, their assumptions, implications, and practical consequences
Communicates effectively with others in figuring out solutions to complex problem (p. 1).

Similarly, John Dewey (1933) outlines four steps that have served as model for developing critical thinking for years as:

- define the problem
- Suggest alternative solutions to the problem or make hypotheses.
- Gather a wide variety of data to support or negate these hypotheses.
- Select or reject hypotheses.

Both the Foundation for Critical Thinking and John Dewey’s steps support one of the social studies goals of thinking. As implied in their steps, critical thinking cannot be accidentally learned. Specific effort must be made to develop this skill overtime in the process of learning (Chapin, 2009).

In discussing the importance of critical thinking, Patrick (1986) stated that:

Students’ capabilities to think critically are likely to be increased if they practice strategies and skills systematically and extensively in all subjects of the social studies curriculum, and in a manner consistent with their cognitive development and prior learning experiences. Subject-specific teaching of critical thinking may be the most effective means to develop students’ abilities to transfer strategies and skills to similar subjects in school and problems in life outside of school. By contrast, separate courses on critical thinking seem to be rather a weak means of developing cognitive strategies and skills (p. 3).

In order for students to develop critical thinking skills, teachers must put emphasis on higher level thinking in all subject areas and in all students’ written and oral assignments. Wilen, Hutchison, and Ishler (2008) postulated that “Encouraging thinking at the higher levels of application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation as identified by Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is a practical essential to promoting achievement and high academic standards” (p. 32). Once students learn to think at these higher levels, it is important that they obtain opportunities to apply what they have learned in the real-world by trying to use critical thinking in solving problems that face them directly or society in general. Besides, one of the goals of the social studies is to guide students to make connections of what they have learned to the world in which one will live and work. These learning experiences can only be possible when the teacher sets high standards of performance, conducts classroom activities by setting higher goals for students and conducting class activities in an orderly manner and leads students to develop critical thinking skills.

One of the most important ways of leading students to develop critical thinking is by using questioning methods as a teaching strategy. Asking questions in a deliberate and progressive manner leads to students’ easy reflections and develops critical thinking. Closely aligned with Bloom’s Taxonomy is the Depth of Knowledge (D.O.Ks) levels. According to Webb (2002) there are four levels of content, namely, recall and production; skills and concepts/basic reasoning, strategic reasoning and complex reasoning, and extended thinking. Teachers use DOK levels when formulating objectives, designing students activities and in developing assessment questions. For better results in developing critical thinking each step in the lesson plan should reflect these levels of difficulty to challenge students’ thinking. Moreover, there is no need to state objectives in different DOKs although the following steps in the lesson plan do not show the same DOKs.

We must bear in mind that students come to school with learned experiences, and school can only guide and deepen these experiences. How does this take place? Patrick (1986) suggested the following sequence of learning experiences:

- Critical thinking must interrelate to content knowledge and cognitive strategies
- To achieve effective critical learning it must incorporate opportunities to practice the skills learned.
- Development of critical thinking strategies require continual applications under the directions of a committed and dedicated teacher who follows up with students’ activities.

77
Learning to think critically requires application of multiple activities planned and is complex. Teachers must challenge students to make decisions based on knowledge. For students to develop critical thinking, teachers must model and set the stage for students to develop critical thinking skills by sustaining activities that build inquiry mind.

To plan and teach the lesson successfully, teachers in social studies classrooms must be accorded the time required to fully implement their lessons each week. Unfortunately, social studies’ time on the schedule is taken up to cover other areas deemed important in the state testing schedule.

Findings
Qiyun and Huay (2010), postulate that critical thinking is essential skill ever-changing high-tech information society. Nevertheless, they concluded that critical thinking is not taught adequately as it should and that poses a problem in today’s society. Each society aims to develop human resources than can think critically and can find critical problems facing the human race. Critical thinking is significant as Moore and Stanley (2010) states for students to perform well in class activities, state and national, standardized tests, it is imperative to develop critical thinking skills. Furthermore, they recommend that teachers ought to challenge students to think critically by providing opportunities and rigorous class activities than they are currently doing.

However, social studies has not been given its rightful place in the public schools across America. Many times social studies is taught only when the “important subjects” like math, language arts, and science are adequate time. Only and only then will time be devoted for social studies and mostly in the afternoon when students are exhausted from a long day’s hard work. This gives the students the impression that social studies is not an important subject after all. Teachers are left with long syllabus and extensive topics to cover in a short amount of time. In circumstances like these, teachers resolve to use lecture method to cover a number of topic in the limited time available.

On close examination, teachers are evaluated/assessed based on how well their students perform in math, language arts, and science. Therefore, both administrators and teachers do what is necessary to ensure that students spend more time to perfect the art of taking the test in the subjects tested. It is evident that teachers teach language arts during social studies class time. The response sent a clear message, that since social studies is not therefore it can wait for a later time.

Furthermore, it is a challenge to any teacher under these conditions tries to and teaches critical thinking skills. The easy way out is to depend on textbook use and such methodologies does not promote critical thinking. Textbooks do not have activities for students that will cultivate critical thinking; this poses challenges for both teachers and students.

Social studies is not given the emphasis it deserves to cultivate the moral grit to stand up and cry out for the protection of the nation’s future or one that minimizes civic responsibility and respect for legacies and principles of families, neighborhoods, and national communities (Maxim, 2006). Notwithstanding that people who will make informed decisions must be given opportunity to develop critical thinking skills. Young people must be prepared to have a real understanding of social issues through education and critical thinking so as to make hard decisions and get an understanding of society.

Conclusion
Critical thinking is thinking outside the box. This means thinking beyond what most people will often do about any particular issue, problem, or idea. Critical thinking involves evaluating not only the pros and cons of a particular idea or solution to a problem but also figuring out why this idea or solution is even important or necessary to begin with. Critical thinking skills have a universal value. Anything social studies and schools can do to sharpen this skill will build effective citizens for tomorrow. As we look around we see big problems and certainly, we can expect more complex problems in the future that will require informed individuals who possess critical thinking skills to solve them. On individual level, students face decision-making on many levels in their own live that require critical skills to address them. Therefore, we use and need processes of critical thinking in our everyday lives.

To prepare young minds to think critically, teachers need to help students develop vocabulary first that will help them in understanding materials read. Ask variety of questions and expect multiple responses as
applications to real life situations. Allow students the opportunity to ask “why” and to clarify information with evidence and facts.

Setting high academic content standards for social studies will create a challenge for every student and teacher, a challenge to meet a more rigorous and specific set of learning goals. Moreover, attainment of these goals require a significant shift in the way educators, both within middle and high schools and within colleges and universities, think about preparing future decision makers. Just as the new societal issues are becoming more complex, solutions to these problems will require all students to develop their critical thinking skills to meet higher levels of thinking, they require all teachers to be responsible for and capable of educating critically thinking students.

“In summary, critical thinkers understand that social problems seldom have simple, singular solutions, are skeptical of the accuracy of statistics or numbers, assume that bias is present in most human opinions or beliefs, and look for faulty assumptions that often underlie many ideas” Anonymous (n.d p. 1).

Recommendations on Improving Critical Thinking Process

Buerdsell (2009) states that each society “has a responsibility to its students to provide the skills and experiences necessary for each and every student to become a responsible, reflective citizen, capable of making informed decisions” (p. 1). To this end, social studies teaching must be accorded its rightful place on the schedule to ensure that critical thinking is being taught? The following steps are a good way to start:

1. Develop lesson objectives, lesson activities, and assessments based on varying DOKs.
2. Allow time for reflections.
3. Honor social studies by providing students with regular effective lessons each week.
4. Incorporate technology in the learning process to keep the content knowledge current, relevant, interesting, and engaging.
5. Encourage students to conduct research by investigating issues in the community and apply critical thinking skills in the process.
6. Encourage critical thinking skills across the curriculum and help students to apply thinking skills strategies cross subjects.
7. Incorporate service-learning experiences as one of the teaching strategies that help students to apply social studies concepts learned in class to the real-world one will live and work. This connection is important in making critical thinking meaningful.
8. Encourage students to engage in writing reflection journals.
References


Patrick, J (1986). Critical thinking in social studies. ERIC Clearinghouse No. ED272432. ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education Bloomington IN.


Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
A School-Based Trauma Program for Elementary School Children

Melvyn C. Raider  
William Steele  
Caelan Kuban  
Wayne State University

This randomized controlled study assessed the efficacy of a structured group therapy for at-risk traumatized children in a metropolitan area elementary school setting. Youth were randomly assigned to a structured sensory trauma intervention program or to a waitlist/comparison group. The intervention included both sensory and cognitive/behavioral components. Standardized trauma and mental health measures were used. Study participants demonstrated statistically significant reductions in trauma symptoms, depression, rule-breaking behaviors, aggressive behaviors and other mental health problems.

The purpose of this article is to report on a controlled research study to demonstrate the efficacy of the I Feel Better Now! program in four elementary schools in Taylor, Michigan. The study also seeks to demonstrate the feasibility of providing trauma treatment to children in a school setting.

This randomized controlled research study was conducted at the Eureka Heights, Fisher, Taylor Parks and Myers Elementary Schools, grades 2 to 5, in the Taylor School District. The study was conducted by Professor Melvyn C. Raider, School of Social Work, Wayne State University; The National Institute for Trauma and Loss in Children, and The Guidance Center. Eighty-nine children completed the I Feel Better Now! program. Pre-test and post-test and three month follow-up data will be discussed in this article.

Literature Review

Recent exposure to school, community and domestic violence as well as other events that traumatize children has highlighted the urgency to identify effective treatments for complicated grief and post-traumatic stress disorders. Many children experienced all the reactions of post-traumatic stress (PTSD) following both violent and non-assaultive incidents. Research since the mid 1980’s to date clearly demonstrates the existence of PTSD in children exposed to violence (Delany-Black, V., et al, 2002; Pynoos and Nader, 1988; Black, Hendricks and Kaplan, 1992; Dykman, McPhearson and Ackerman, 1997).

However, trauma is not specific to violence. Natural disasters such as fires (McFarlane, Policansky & Irwin, 1987; March, Jackson, Costanzo & Terry, 1993) hurricanes (Lonnigan, Shannon, Finch, Taylor & Dougherty, 1991; Vernberg, Eric, LaCreca, Silverman & Prinstein, 1996), boating disasters (Yule, 1992), burns and other serious accidents, and medical procedures (Stubner, Nader, Yasuda, Pynoos & Cohen, 1992) can also induce PTSD reactions in children and adolescents. Living with a terminally ill adult or sibling, drowning, house fires, car fatalities, living with substance-abusing parents and divorce were also identified as incidents preceding the onset of PTSD in children (Raider, Steele & Santiago, 1999). The reactions which are experienced following trauma impacts learning, behavioral, social, emotional and psychological functioning. Traumatized children are more likely to have poorer school performance, decreased I.Q. and reading ability, lower grade point average, and more days of school absence even if they do not develop post-traumatic stress disorder (Stein, P., et. al., 2003).

Research on school based treatment programs for traumatized children was conducted in the Los Angeles, California School District. A partially randomized study was conducted in 2001 in which 198 students exposed to violence in elementary and middle schools (grades 3-8) received manualized, group, cognitive-behavioral therapy (Katkokas, H., et. al., 2003). Students who
experienced trauma-related depression and/or post-traumatic stress disorder demonstrated modest reductions in depression and post-traumatic stress symptoms. Results were inconclusive since the method used to obtain the study population introduced bias, subjects were only partially randomized and attrition occurred at differing rates across treatment groups. A randomized controlled study of 6th graders exposed to violence with symptoms of post-traumatic stress, and depression was also conducted in the Los Angeles, California School District in 2001-2002 (Stein, B.D., et. al, 2003). Sixty-one middle school children were randomly assigned to a group cognitive–behavioral program and 65 to a wait list comparison group. After the intervention program the treatment group demonstrated significantly lower scores on PTSD symptoms, depression and psychological dysfunction.

SUMMARY OF TRAUMA TREATMENT PROGRAM

The I Feel Better Now! program is a modification of Structured Sensory Intervention for Traumatized Children, Adolescents and Parents (SITCAP), Steele & Raider, 2001), a comprehensive, sensory-based, structured treatment approach designed to diminish the terror that exposed individuals experience and facilitate feelings of safety. I Feel Better Now! was created specifically for at-risk, traumatized children ages 6 to 12 years old. The program integrates cognitive strategies with “sensory” and “implicit” strategies. The I Feel Better Now! program is designed to achieve the successful cognitive re-ordering of traumatic experiences in ways that move children from victim to survivor thinking and in ways that allow them to become more resilient to future traumas.

The program consists of 10-11 sessions, depending upon the progress made with each session. Seven of the sessions are group sessions involving no more than six participants. In addition, there is one individual debriefing session, one individual processing session and one parent/adolescent session. Each group session is scheduled for one hour. Each child is scheduled for one-hour trauma debriefing session prior to beginning the group sessions. Debriefing is not recommended in a group setting so children can identify those experiences they do not want others to know about yet they learn how these can be dealt with “anonymously” in a group setting. The debriefing session is a first step in helping to reduce the child’s trauma reactions as well as anxiety about the group sessions.

PROCEDURE

Screening

Parents/guardians whose child had experienced or witnessed one or more traumatic events granted permission for their child to be screened for severity of trauma symptoms. Children also have to orally assent. Screening took place at elementary schools at no cost to parents/guardians. Screening was conducted by The Guidance Center therapists utilizing the Child Trauma Symptom Checklist (TSCC) (Briere, 1996). Children in grades 4 and 5 were screened in groups of 25. Children in grades 2 and 3 were screened in smaller groups. Parents/guardians were informed of the results of the trauma screening. Children with sub-clinical trauma scores on the TSCC were excluded from the study.

Trauma Treatment Program

The I Feel Better Now! program was conducted after school hours. Parents/guardians participated in two sessions. Parents also provided information prior to the beginning of the group sessions. The sessions were provided at no cost to parents/guardians. The Taylor School System provided transportation for children after each session. Group sessions were conducted by therapists employed by The Guidance Center utilizing the manualized I Feel Better Now! program. Therapists were trained and certified to conduct the I Feel Better Now! program by the National Institute of Trauma and Loss in Children.

Research Design

All parents completed the Parent Questionnaire (PQ). All children/youth completed the Child and Adolescent Questionnaire (CAQ). Children were randomly assigned to either Group A (treatment group) or Group B (waitlist/comparison group). The rationale for establishing the waitlist/comparison group was that group therapists did not have the capacity to provide treatment
to all screened children at the same time. Therefore, approximately half the children would have been placed on a wait list in any event. These questionnaires gathered information on trauma symptoms and trauma severity.

**Group A** (treatment group):

Group A was provided with 10 weeks of trauma counseling in a group setting. Parents provided family demographics information, trauma history, severity of symptoms, service utilization and information about home environment (Core Clinical Characteristics form).

At intake and discharge, parents and children completed the following self-report questionnaires: the Briere Trauma Symptom Checklist (TSCC) and the Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) The TSCC and CBCL are standardized with high reliability and validity. In addition, children completed the Child and Adolescent Questionnaire (CAQ). This instrument was developed by the Principal Investigator. It was used in prior published research, and is reliable and valid.

Three months after the completion, parents and children completed all instruments identified above.

Throughout the child/youth’s treatment, child/youth completed the Life Events Checklist (LEC) which gathered information on recent traumatic events. In addition, the therapist completed the Fidelity of Treatment Checklist (FTC), which assured that treatment was consistent with trauma treatment model. Throughout the treatment process the therapist recorded progress notes in the child’s treatment file.

**For those randomly assigned to Group B** (waitlist/comparison group):

Group B was provided regular telephone contact with the clinician and began trauma counseling in a group setting after 10 weeks. During the phone calls, members of Group B were asked to complete the Life Events Checklist (LEC). Based on the assessment of the Checklist, the clinician may have met with parents and/or child for individual psychotherapy or referred those to an agency for additional services. After the ten week waiting period, all children and parents in Group B was provided with the 10 week *I Feel Better Now!* Trauma Treatment Program in a group setting and followed the same process as Group A.

**RESULTS**

**Trauma Symptom Checklist For Children (TSCC)**

Table I reflects paired t-tests for the seven scales of the TSCC. Table I reflects results of changes in scales from pre-test to post-test for the Waitlist/Control Group. The Waitlist/Control Group did demonstrate statistically significant changes (p = < .05) for the posttraumatic stress scale. All other scales showed no significant reductions in trauma symptoms.

Table II reflects an ANOVA analysis of Pre-test Post-test and follow-up administrations of the TSCC was completed. The ANOVA analysis examines significant within group change of pre-test, post-test and follow-up mean scores for the continued treatment groups and waitlist groups (after waitlist groups received treatment). The ANOVA procedure used provided multiple comparisons between the within group variables using the Bonferroni procedure (adjusting alpha level to prevent inflation of Type I error). The table however, shows only the sphericity assumed analysis since results of the Greenhouse – Geisser, Huynh-feldt, and Lower-bound F statistic were identical. The ANOVA analysis demonstrated statistically significant within group change (p=<.001).

Table III reflects post-hoc paired t tests comparing pre-test to post-test and post-test to follow-up for the combined treatment group and waitlist groups. Since there is no post-hoc analysis available for repeated measures within groups the post-hoc paired t test were conducted to indicate where statistically significant results were demonstrated. For the comparison of Pre-test to post-test mean scores statistically significant changes in mean scores were demonstrated for all scales of the TSCC. The anxiety, dissociation, dissociation overt and dissociation fantasy scales demonstrated statistically significant reductions of symptoms at the .05 alpha level (p=<.05). The depression, anger, and post-traumatic stress scales demonstrated statistically significant reductions of symptoms at the .01 alpha level (p=<.01). However, since the waitlist (control) group
demonstrated a statistically significant reduction in the post-traumatic scale it cannot be inferred that the statistically significant reduction in the post-traumatic stress scale for the combined treatment group and waitlist group (after treatment) is solely a function of the I Feel Better Now! trauma treatment model.

The comparison of post-test and follow-up scores, demonstrated further reductions in mean symptoms scores for all scales of the TSCC. However, these reductions did not achieve statistical significance. It is evident that the reductions in symptoms from pre-test to post-test were maintained at three month follow-up.

**CHILD AND ADOLESCENT QUESTIONNAIRE (C.A.Q)**

Table IV reflects paired t-tests for the three trauma scales in the CAQ. Table III reflects results of pre-test and post-test comparisons for the Waitlist/Control Group. All scales did not demonstrate statistically significant changes in trauma symptoms.

Table V reflects an ANOVA analysis of pre-test, post-test and follow-up administrations of CAQ. The ANOVA analysis demonstrated statistically significant within groups change in mean scores (p=<.001).

Table VI reflects post-hoc paired t test comparing pre-test to post-test to follow-up means scores for the combined treatment groups and waitlist groups. For the comparison of pre-test to post-test mean scores, statistically significant changes in scores were demonstrated for all scales of the CAQ. (p<.001). The comparison of post-test and follow-up mean scores for all scales of the CAQ demonstrated further reductions in mean symptom scores for all three scales of the CAQ. However, these reductions did not achieve statistical significance. It is evident that the reductions in trauma symptoms for pre-test to post-test were maintained at three month follow-up.

**CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST (CBCL)**

Table VII reflects paired t-tests for changes in syndrome scales on the CBCL. It reflects results of the pre-test to post-test to post-test comparisons for the Control Group. The Waitlist/Control Group demonstrated statistically significant changes in symptoms for the academic performance, aggressive behavior, anxious/depressed, attention problems, internalizing behavior, externalizing behavior and total problems syndrome scales.

Table VIII an ANOVA analysis of pre-test, post-test and follow-up administrations of the CBCL. The ANOVA analysis demonstrated statistically significant within group change for all syndrome scales. The somatic complaints scale was significant at the .05 alpha level (p=<.05) all other scales were significant at the .001 alpha level (p=<.001).

Table IX reflects post-hoc paired t test comparing pre-test to post-test and post-test to three month follow-up mean scores for the combined treatment groups and Waitlist Groups. For the comparison of pre-test to post-test mean scores statistically significant changes in scores were demonstrated for all scales of the CBCL. For the comparison of post-test to follow-up mean scores for anxious/depressed, withdrawn depressed, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems and rule breaking behavior scales marginally increased. These small increases, however, did not achieve statistical significance. For the attention problems and total problems scales mean scores marginally decreased. The small decreases, however, did not attain statistical significance. For the aggressive behavior, internalizing behavior and externalizing behavior scales mean scores substantially decreased attaining statistical significant (p=<.05). For the aggressive, internalizing and externalizing behavior scales further reductions in problem behaviors occurred between post-test and three month follow-up. For all other syndrome scales gains made between pre-test and post-test were maintained. For the competence scales of the CBCL between post-test and follow-up, the activities scale demonstrated a small improvement. This improvement did not achieve statistical significance. The academic performance scale demonstrated a small decline. This decline did not achieve statistical significance. However, the social interactions and total competence scales demonstrated declines which attained statistical significance (p=<.001)

**DISCUSSION**

The majority of children who participated in the I Feel Better Now! program demonstrated outstanding reductions in a wide range of trauma symptoms, psychological, emotional and behavioral
problems. The Child and Adolescent Questionnaire (CAQ) measured post-traumatic stress symptoms in three domains re-experiencing traumatic events, avoidance of stimuli associated with traumatic event and symptoms of arousal due to traumatic events. The control/waitlist group showed no reduction in these trauma symptoms while waiting for trauma treatment to begin. The combined treatment and waitlist groups (after receiving treatment) demonstrated outstanding statistically significant changes ($p < .01$). This clearly demonstrated that it was the treatment program that produced these reductions in trauma symptoms. Gains in treatment were also maintained in the three-month follow-up period.

The Trauma Symptom Checklist (TSCC) measured trauma symptoms of anxiety, depression, anger, post-traumatic stress, and dissociation. The control/waitlist group showed no statistically significant reduction in these symptoms except for post-traumatic stress, which showed a reduction at the .05 level ($p = .05$). It is unclear as to the reason for this improvement. However, it may be hypothesized that the screening process, orientation process for children and parents, and periodic therapist contacts during the waitlist period may have facilitated this change. Wayne State University's Human Investigations Committee, which approved the Protocol for this study, required that all children assigned to the waitlist (control) group have therapist contact on a bi-weekly basis during the waitlist period. The purpose of the therapist contact was to ensure that intervention was provided if a child was in a crisis situation. It can be hypothesized that this intervention had a positive impact on some children in the waitlist/control group who demonstrated a statistically significant reduction of symptoms on the post-traumatic stress scale. For the combined/waitlist treatment group, all symptoms as measured by the Checklist (TSCC) showed outstanding statistically significant reductions of trauma symptoms between pre-test and post-test. Since both the control/waitlist group and the treatment group demonstrated statistically significant changes for the post-traumatic stress scale results are inconclusive for that one scale. Gains in treatment were maintained in the three-month follow-up period.

The Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) measured social, behavioral, psychological and emotional behaviors and problems of children. It is a widely used mental health measure for children and youth. The (CBCL) measured activities such as sports, social interactions, academic performance and total competence (a composite of activities, social and academic). It also measured eleven behaviors and problems: Anxious/depressed, withdrawn/depressed, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule breaking behavior, aggressive behavior and internalizing and externalizing behaviors. The waitlist/control group demonstrated no statistically significant changes for the activities, social and total competence scales as well as the withdrawn/depressed, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems and rule breaking behavior scales. However, the academic performance scale, aggressive behavior, anxious/depressed, attention problems, internalizing behavior, externalizing behavior and total problem scale demonstrated statistically significant changes ($p = < .05$). Here again, it may be hypothesized that the orientation process for children and parents screening process and therapist contact during the waitlist period may have contributed to these positive changes. For the treatment group and waitlist group all competence and syndrome scales demonstrated outstanding statistically significant improvements ($p = < .01$). Since both the control/waitlist group and the treatment groups demonstrated statistically significant changes for academic performance, anxious/depressed, attention problems, aggressive behavior, internalizing behaviors, externalizing behaviors and total problem scales results are inconclusive for these seven scales. At three-month follow-up, further improvement occurred in the aggressive, internalizing and externalizing behavior scales. Statistically significant declines on the social interactions and Total Competence Scales (Total Competence Scale is a composite scale which includes social interactions) occurred during the follow-up period as well. It should be noted again that much of the follow-up data was collected during the summer break and it may be hypothesized that children had fewer opportunities for social interactions and structured activity during the summer months that contributed to this change.

To summarize, overall most children demonstrated outstanding reductions in most trauma symptoms and psychological, emotional and behavioral problems as a result of their participation in the *I Feel Better Now!* program. Statistically significant reductions of trauma symptoms and problem behaviors occurred from pre-test to post-test. Because the average gains from pre-intervention to post-intervention were so great there was little additional improvement in gains from post-intervention to three-month
follow-up. However, reductions in trauma symptoms and psychological and behavioral problems were largely maintained during the 3-month follow-up period. Results of this randomized controlled trial of the SITCAP Treatment Model /Feel Better Now! supports the effectiveness of the model.

References


TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean Pre-Test</th>
<th>Mean Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig (2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anixiety</td>
<td>10.74</td>
<td>9.38</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.637</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>9.51</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>-.167</td>
<td>.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Traumatic Stress</td>
<td>13.79</td>
<td>11.77</td>
<td>2.026</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>.024*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation</td>
<td>10.82</td>
<td>10.64</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation Overt</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>.852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation Fantasy</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = < .05

TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Follow-up</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>(2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anixiety</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>214.63</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td>6.98</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>183.09</td>
<td>9.97</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>10.90</td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>296.69</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Traumatic Stress</td>
<td>12.76</td>
<td>9.57</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>354.22</td>
<td>14.68</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td>271.09</td>
<td>9.81</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation Overt</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>146.83</td>
<td>9.47</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation Fantasy</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>19.64</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Post/ Follow-up</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anixiety</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>2.91*</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>-.99</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td>6.98</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>3.79**</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>10.90</td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>3.63**</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>-.37</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Traumatic Stress</td>
<td>12.76</td>
<td>9.57</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>4.11**</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>-.68</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td>3.18*</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td>-.53</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation Overt</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>3.32*</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissociation Fantasy</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.02*</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>-.30</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*SIG  = p<.05
** SIG = p<.01
### TABLE IV

**CHILD AND ADOLESCENT QUESTIONNAIRE (CAQ)**

Paired t-test N = 39 (N = 83)

**CONTROL GROUP (WAITLIST)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean Pre-Test</th>
<th>Mean Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig (2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Re-experiencing Traumatic Event</td>
<td>33.03</td>
<td>30.92</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance of Stimuli of Traumatic Event</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>31.54</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>-.246</td>
<td>.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symptoms of Arousal Due to Traumatic Event</td>
<td>23.72</td>
<td>25.36</td>
<td>-1.64</td>
<td>-1.12</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE V

**CHILD AND ADOLESCENT QUESTIONNAIRE (CAQ)**

**COMBINED TREATMENT AND WAITLIST GROUPS (N = 83)**

**ANOVA (SPHERICITY ASSUMED)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Follow-Up</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Re-experiencing Traumatic Event</td>
<td>31.93</td>
<td>20.78</td>
<td>-19.51</td>
<td>3875.15</td>
<td>66.39</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance of Stimuli of Traumatic Event</td>
<td>30.95</td>
<td>23.10</td>
<td>20.75</td>
<td>6516.11</td>
<td>89.29</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symptoms of Arousal Due to Traumatic Event</td>
<td>25.51</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>17.25</td>
<td>4023.34</td>
<td>85.08</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE VI

**CHILD AND ADOLESCENT QUESTIONNAIRE (CAQ)**

**COMBINED TREATMENT AND WAITLIST GROUPS (N = 83)**

**POST-HOC PAIRED t TEST**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Post/ Follow-up Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Re-experiencing Traumatic Event</td>
<td>31.93</td>
<td>20.78</td>
<td>-11.15</td>
<td>8.61**</td>
<td>19.51</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance of Stimuli of Traumatic Event</td>
<td>30.95</td>
<td>23.10</td>
<td>-7.85</td>
<td>6.00**</td>
<td>20.75</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symptoms of Arousal Due to Traumatic Event</td>
<td>25.51</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>-6.76</td>
<td>6.049**</td>
<td>17.25</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SIG = p<.001**
### TABLE VII

**CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST (CBCL) SYNDROME SCALES**

N = 39 Paired t-test

**CONTROL GROUP (WAITLIST)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean Pre-Test</th>
<th>Mean Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig (2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxious/Depressed</td>
<td>8.821</td>
<td>6.128</td>
<td>2.692</td>
<td>2.475</td>
<td>.018*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawn/Depressed</td>
<td>5.590</td>
<td>6.513</td>
<td>-.923</td>
<td>-1.306</td>
<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somatic Complaints</td>
<td>4.205</td>
<td>4.513</td>
<td>-.3078</td>
<td>-.418</td>
<td>.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Problems</td>
<td>7.231</td>
<td>6.154</td>
<td>1.077</td>
<td>1.418</td>
<td>.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thought Problems</td>
<td>5.821</td>
<td>4.462</td>
<td>1.359</td>
<td>1.634</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention Problems</td>
<td>8.308</td>
<td>6.333</td>
<td>1.974</td>
<td>2.035</td>
<td>.049*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule Breaking Behavior</td>
<td>5.051</td>
<td>4.335</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td>.371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive Behavior</td>
<td>11.103</td>
<td>6.872</td>
<td>4.231</td>
<td>3.527</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalizing Behavior</td>
<td>16.359</td>
<td>10.179</td>
<td>6.180</td>
<td>3.483</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Problems</td>
<td>64.513</td>
<td>51.872</td>
<td>12.641</td>
<td>2.211</td>
<td>.033**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities***</td>
<td>8.872</td>
<td>8.679</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>.379</td>
<td>.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social (Interactions)***</td>
<td>5.500</td>
<td>5.526</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Perf.***</td>
<td>4.385</td>
<td>4.833</td>
<td>-.449</td>
<td>-2.052</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Competence***</td>
<td>18.218</td>
<td>18.795</td>
<td>-.577</td>
<td>-.838</td>
<td>.407</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<=.05

**p<=.01

***Increase in mean scores equals improvement

### TABLE VIII

**CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST (CBCL)**

**COMBINED TREATMENT & WAITLIST GROUPS N = 80**

**ANOVA (SPHERICITY ASSUMED)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Follow Up</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig (2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxious/Depressed</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>514.06</td>
<td>70.90</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawn/Depressed</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>169.52</td>
<td>23.38</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somatic Complaints</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>26.80</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Problems</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>195.68</td>
<td>25.41</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thought Problems</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>104.68</td>
<td>14.32</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention Problems</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>267.50</td>
<td>21.69</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule Breaking Behavior</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>124.46</td>
<td>17.72</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive Behavior</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>855.01</td>
<td>40.37</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalizing Behavior</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1634.43</td>
<td>49.52</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Externalizing Behavior</td>
<td>11.95</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1649.18</td>
<td>39.13</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Problems</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>26.91</td>
<td>27.02</td>
<td>17212.89</td>
<td>50.07</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities***</td>
<td>9.08</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>11.33</td>
<td>122.50</td>
<td>50.19</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social (Interactions)***</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>80.40</td>
<td>31.40</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Perf.***</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>20.39</td>
<td>20.39</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Competence***</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>24.02</td>
<td>22.04</td>
<td>70.90</td>
<td>70.90</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Increase = improvement
## TABLE IX
CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST (CBCL)
COMBINED TREATMENT & WAITLIST GROUPS N = 80
POST HOC PAIRED T TEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Post/Follow-Up</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxious/Depressed</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>-3.35</td>
<td>6.57**</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawn / Depressed</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>-2.73</td>
<td>5.89**</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somatic Complaints</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>-1.10</td>
<td>2.59**</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>-.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Problems</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>-2.78</td>
<td>6.31**</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thought Problems</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>-2.14</td>
<td>4.50**</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention Problems</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>-2.89</td>
<td>5.00**</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>-.50</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rule Breaking Behavior</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>-2.36</td>
<td>5.07**</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>-1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive Behavior</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>-4.26</td>
<td>5.41**</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>-2.16</td>
<td>3.192*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalizing Behavior</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>-5.98</td>
<td>6.03**</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>-2.89</td>
<td>3.61*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Externalizing Behavior</td>
<td>11.95</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>-5.91</td>
<td>5.20**</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>-3.01</td>
<td>3.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Problems</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>26.91</td>
<td>-25.46</td>
<td>8.55**</td>
<td>27.02</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities***</td>
<td>9.08</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>-7.01**</td>
<td>11.33</td>
<td>-.25</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Interactions***</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>-6.03**</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>7.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Perf. ***</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>-5.66**</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Competence***</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>24.02</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>-10.40**</td>
<td>22.04</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>6.00**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Increase = improvement

*p<.05
**p<.001
Creating a Community: Jews of Schenectady

Harvey Strum
The Sage Colleges

Jewish immigrants settling in upstate New York created a community out of nothing. Establishing institutions where none had existed, Jews carved out an identity for themselves as a small religious minority in an overwhelmingly Christian population. They created history from the bottom up. The community got its start from poor peddlers without any outside resources who joined together to create a religious community. These immigrants, from the German states and the Austrian Empire, maintained their identity as Jews in America by organizing a shul or synagogue and purchasing land for a cemetery, the key elements in the creation of a community. The Jewish community expanded and splintered from 1880-1925 with the arrival of immigrants from the Russian and Austro-Hungarian empires. Newer immigrants produced a proliferation of religious, social, political, and ethnic institutions in the first quarter of the 20th Century. Institutional expansion raised three fundamental questions Jews in each community in the United States grappled with since the first Jews arrived in America---how to maintain a Jewish identity, whether to cling to separate religious, ethnic and social values or unite under a common Jewish identity, and how to navigate between Judaism and Americanization. Determining what Judaism and ethnicity meant in the United States required an ongoing renegotiation of identity and a constant struggle with the larger society over Americanization. Jewish immigrants and their children faced another question---how did they respond to the problems of their co-religionists abroad? Looking at the creation and evolution of the Jewish community of Schenectady provides us with insights into the development of a poor immigrant community. Like other immigrants, the Jews of Schenectady made the transition to Americans, but they selected what to shed and what to retain of their religious and cultural values.

Starting in the late 1840s the first Jewish settlers arrived in Schenectady from Germany. At first, in 1854 they held religious services in community members’ homes. A year later the congregation rented space for a synagogue, and in October 1856 incorporated as Congregation Sharei Shomajim (Gates of Heaven), an Orthodox Jewish community following a German ritual. In the incorporation papers, the trustees described their community as an “Israelitish church.” The local press observed: “we are pleased to see that our Jewish friends have fitted up a building…for public worship.” Observance of the Jewish New Year got the attention of the local press: “All the places of business among the Jews in this city were closed…and their new synagogue was thronged.” Within a year, one of the founding members, peddler Jonathan Levi, purchased land for a cemetery. The first burial took place in 1857 when congregant Jacob Davis died. Members of the congregation persuaded a rabbi from Troy to take the pulpit. With a rabbi in place the first marriages took place. Jonathan Levi and his brother married the daughters of one of the other founding members, Alexander Susholz. In 1856 the congregation rented a converted store as a synagogue. Later, the congregation purchased property in 1865 to turn a fire station into a house of worship. The congregation also got permission from the city for ritual slaughtering to assure kosher meat so members could adhere to dietary laws, the third element in the formation of a traditional Orthodox Jewish community. For the next forty years, the Jewish community remained a German Orthodox congregation. By contrast, in the early 1850s their co-religionists in neighboring Albany were already split into two Orthodox congregations, German Beth El (1838) and Polish Beth El Jacob (1841). A third, a Reform congregation, Anshe Emeth (1850), was headed by the founder of American Reform, Isaac Mayer Wise. The uniformity of the Schenectady congregation remains surprising since a second group of German and Austrian Jews arrived from 1857 to the mid 1870s. The newcomers joined the congregation...
emerging as the second group of founding members. With the drawing up of a constitution in March 1862, the immigrants completed the evolution of their minyan into a formally organized Jewish community. Again, without outside help, a small group of Jewish immigrants arrived in Schenectady and established a community within a decade of their settlement.

Many of the first Jewish immigrants in Schenectady worked as peddlers. Other immigrants found employment as tailors or small dealers in liquor, clothing, second hand clothing or groceries. Peddling emerged as the most common occupation of many early Jewish immigrants from Germany and the Austrian Empire who settled in upstate New York. In Syracuse and Albany, for example, one third to one half of the males in the first synagogues worked as peddlers. As another example, “the earliest Jewish settlers in Poughkeepsie, often starting as peddlers...soon opened stores.” Similarly, in Buffalo, “the men of the city were often long absent from their families as they plied their wares along the Niagara Frontier” as the Jewish peddlers hunted for customers in western New York. Jews who settled Rochester “took up peddling over the Genesee area,” because they lacked the capital to open a store. Finally, as a historian of Utica’s Jewish community concluded: “the Jewish pioneers who came to Utica from 1847 to 1870 were practically all peddlers.” From Poughkeepsie to Buffalo, many of the founders of the first Jewish congregations started out as peddlers. Some found that peddling provided an income sufficient to graduate to opening a store, a pattern repeated in Schenectady, Albany or Rochester.

By the 1870s, some of the original Jewish peddlers in Schenectady opened small businesses, and some prospered. Alexander Susholz, the first permanent Jewish settler in Schenectady arrived from Germany and settled in the city in the 1840s. A founding member of Sharei Shomajim, he worked as a peddler. Upon his death in 1886 he owned a major clothing business that he left to his sons. Emanuel King, an immigrant from Austria, settled in Schenectady in 1862 and began as an itinerant tailor. Joining the congregation he represented the second group of Jews arriving in the city. They got involved in synagogue affairs and prospered as merchants. King became a leading clothing merchant and civic leader. He sent his son Louis King to Union College and Albany Law School. Julius Davidson came from Prussia and started out with a small retail clothing store which he turned into one of the city’s major retail clothing stores. Pfeifer Levi emigrated from Germany in 1851 as a peddler before thriving as clothing merchant. Isaac Levi and Henry Heilbronner came from Germany and achieved success in Schenectady as liquor dealers. The most successful of these early immigrants from Germany and Austria was Jonathan Levi who arrived in the early 1850s as a peddler in the rural community of Niskayuna, now a Schenectady suburb, which is the center of the local Jewish community. Prospering in the wholesale grocery business by the 1880s Levi, a founding member of Sharei Shomajim, gained status as a merchant and recognition as a leading businessman. He put together a group of bankers and businessmen that persuaded the Edison Company, now General Electric, to relocate to Schenectady. When he died in 1905, his death became front page news. Stores on the main commercial area, State Street, closed or draped their windows in black in honor of the most respected member of the German/Austrian Jewish generation.

The first generation of Jewish settlers in Schenectady founded or joined Sharei Shomajim and remained active members throughout their lives. Many members of the congregation achieved a degree of economic success and moved from peddling, tailoring, or running small shops into thriving clothing, liquor, grocery, or department stores. By the 1880s, this first generation of Jewish merchants not only achieved economic success, but also contributed to the economic growth of Schenectady. This generation of merchants remained active in the synagogue and Jewish organizations that emerged in the city. They also joined non-Jewish fraternal organizations, like the Odd Fellows, Knights of Pythias and Masons. In every upstate Jewish community, whether Albany, Schenectady, Buffalo or Rochester, German and Austrian Jews joined these three major non-Jewish fraternal organizations in search for brotherhood and social acceptance. The first generation of Jewish immigrants achieved a degree of social acceptance by the Gentile community and recognition of their economic contributions to the growth of the city. For German and Austrian Jews who settled in Schenectady, Albany, Rochester or other upstate cities from the 1830s to the 1870s they filled an economic niche in upstate communities that allowed them to move from poverty to security and economic success within a generation.
What had been a small but stable German Jewish Orthodox community underwent change in the 1890s as the congregation began a fifteen year journey to Reform Judaism. The Jewish population in Schenectady significantly increased, due to the migration of Jews from the Hungarian part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the Russian Empire, in the mid 1880s ending the monopoly of Congregation Sharei Shomajim. By the late 1880s the congregation grew prosperous enough to afford the construction of the first synagogue building in Schenectady. Construction of the synagogue got the attention of the local newspapers. Stories appeared about the laying of the cornerstone in 1891 and the dedication in 1892.

This extensive coverage and the presence of Schenectady’s mayor suggests that the German/Austrian Jews and their American born children were considered an integral part of the community in Schenectady by the early 1890s. During the 1890s, the local press reported on a regular basis on the impressive nature of Jewish ceremonies during Jewish holidays. The construction of the new College Street building raised the visibility of the Jewish community. Press coverage symbolized the acceptance of German Jews as members of the wider community. Older congregants did retain the use of German. The German Club’s officers as late as 1908 were German Jews who belonged to Gates of Heaven. While the children of the congregation’s founders identified themselves as Americans, the founding generation still retained a link to the German language and culture.

At the dedication a hint of change appeared with the presence of Rabbi Adolph Guttman of Reform congregation Temple Society of Concord of Syracuse, and Rabbi Max Schlesinger of Reform congregation Beth Emeth of Albany. A female member of the congregation, Laura Levi, daughter of the congregation’s president, Jonathan Levi, briefly addressed the assembled crowd. In 1895, the congregation moved away from Orthodox Judaism by hiring a rabbi who delivered services in a mix of Hebrew and English. In 1902 the congregation adopted a reform service. The congregation hired a Reform rabbi and joined the Union of American Hebrew Congregations in 1907, the major body of Reform congregations in the United States. As the congregation initiated changes members felt a need to rewrite its constitution in 1901 and 1906. By 1910 the congregation’s growth in membership and the movement of its members out of the neighborhoods of downtown Schenectady led the congregation to look for a new home in the upper part of the city. It took a decade to find a new home, but in 1920 the congregation moved into a former Christian Science Church on Rugby Road and Parkwood Boulevard where it remained until 1955. Upon its move in 1920 the congregation Anglicized its name to Gates of Heaven. The building that served the congregation from 1892-1920 was purchased by the Roman Catholic Diocese in 1923 it became a church for new Lithuanian Catholic immigrants (closed in 2006). The movement of the synagogue represented the desire of its middle class members to relocate the congregation from downtown to a residential area reflecting the improved status of the congregants and the desire to distance themselves from the new immigrants entering the city. By 1920, Gates of Heaven completed the transition from a poor shul of Orthodox German Jewish immigrants into a middle class American Reform congregation, with a synagogue building in a good residential neighborhood. Meanwhile, starting in the 1890s, members of Gates of Heaven won election or appointment to city, school board, Ellis Hospital Board, bank boards, and business association positions. For example, Myer Mann served three terms as President of the Schenectady Business Men’s Association, Arthur Mann got elected Secretary of the Taxpayers’ Association, and Ellsworth Cohen won election as President of the Board of Trade. Rabbi Joseph Jasin got appointed Chairman of the Schenectady Americanization Committee. German Jews and their American born children earned acceptance from their Gentile neighbors as an integral part of Schenectady’s civic culture.

Jews from Central and Eastern Europe arrived in Schenectady in the mid 1880s and early 1890s forming new congregations. Russian Jews arrived in the mid 1880s. Five families hired a cantor from New York in 1888 to officiate at Jewish High Holy Days services held in the home of one of the five families. By the following year, they rented space and formally organized as a congregation, Agudas Achim, now Agudat Achim. Known as the “Russian Congregation” the members wanted nothing to do with the German members of Sharei Shomajim, especially after its movement towards Reform Judaism. A gap developed between the newer Jewish immigrants and the German and American born members of
Sharei Shomajim that remained a visible demarcation line in the Jewish community until the 1920s and on some issues until World War II. This repeated a pattern that developed in virtually every Jewish community in the United States as German Jews viewed themselves as superior and more American in comparison to the East European brethren. Orthodox Jews from Eastern Europe often viewed the German Jews as no longer real Jews, especially if the practiced Reform Judaism.

Members of Agudas Achim held services at several rented facilities in downtown Schenectady, purchased land in 1903 for a synagogue, and began construction of a synagogue on Nott Terrace in 1907. Schenectady’s newspapers gave front page coverage to the laying of the cornerstone in June 1908. It had taken the press twenty years to acknowledge the presence of Russian and Polish Jewish immigrants in the community. The new Jewish immigrants made their presence visible. During the synagogue dedication the congregation carrying its Torahs processed from the site of the old congregation to the new one, a pattern repeated each time a new synagogue was built. The site of Orthodox Jews marching slowly through the streets of downtown Schenectady carrying Torahs and wearing prayer shawls in September 1908 impressed the Gentiles. Newspapers noticed that on Jewish High Holy Days many of the stores in the city closed.

When the Nott Terrace synagogue opened in 1908 it already had a constitution that the congregation published in 1901. The Constitution required that prayers follow “the customs of Lithuania and Poland’ revealing where in the Russian Empire its members emigrated from. All services shall never in any way be changed to resemble Reform customs.” Congregants wanted nothing to do with the German Orthodox ritual or the increasing Reform emphasis of Sharei Shomajim. Members insisted that “all books and protocol must be in the pure Yiddish language and in Yiddish letters. Also everything that takes place at meetings must be in Yiddish.” Ironically, to look more sophisticated members of the congregation wrote the constitution in a mixture of Yiddish and German. Again, this is history from the bottom up. Jewish immigrants from the Russian Empire banded together to form a congregation, collect funds to buy land and construct a synagogue. They wrote a constitution and expressed their desire to retain the religious values and Yiddish cultural norms of the old country. The 1901 Constitution of Agudas Achim staked out a position against both Reform Gates of Heaven and Americanization. Members of Agudas Achim wanted to replicate in America the religious and cultural values of traditional Judaism and Yiddish based Jewish culture of Eastern Europe.

The first Jews from Eastern Europe arrived in Schenectady as peddlers. Just like the earlier German Jews they used the city as a location to purchase and store goods while they went into the countryside to farm families and small towns to find customers. Eventually, they settled in the city and brought their families. As with the founders of Agudas Achim, this pattern got repeated over the next thirty years as additional East European Jews established new minyanim. Some developed into synagogues. Immigrants from the Russian Empire arrived in Schenectady from 1890 to 1914. Like the members of Agudas Achim each synagogue purchased land for a cemetery, established a women’s auxiliary, and acquired a Torah. Other immigrants worked as shoemakers, tailors, and painters. As with the German Jews, some of the East European Jews earned enough to graduate to storeowners who ran groceries or sold clothing, furniture, or dry goods. For decades three quarters of the stores on State Street closed to observe the Jewish High Holy Days.

Appealing to the dietary needs of Orthodox Jews, immigrants started kosher bakeries, butcher shops, delis, and restaurants. By the first decade of the 20th Century, members of Orthodox Agudas Achim or other congregations could choose from a number of kosher food stores opened by their fellow immigrants in Schenectady. Members of the community dined at Levanthal’s deli or Romanoff’s or the New York Deli, kosher restaurants. There were seven kosher butchers, like Oscar Green’s, and several kosher bakeries, like the Mont Pleasant Bakery, that observed traditional dietary laws. Because of the influx of Orthodox Jews to Schenectady and other Capital District cities kosher slaughterhouses opened to supply the needs of the growing Jewish community allowing Jewish immigrants to adhere to traditional dietary laws.
Families of Eastern European Jews consisted of five to eight children. Yiddish remained the main language of the home until World War I. Immigrants adhered to Orthodox ritual and family life followed the cycles of the religious holidays and festivals resembling life in the shtetls of Eastern Europe. Jews sought to recreate the community they lost by coming to America. Immigrants clung to Orthodox Judaism, created traditional Jewish institutions and followed folkways that reinforced their identity as Jews in America.

Change and Americanization

From its formation until the 1920s, Congregation Agudas Achim faced a series of challenges that led two factions of the synagogue to split off and form separate congregations. By the 1920s this traditional Yiddish based synagogue abandoned Orthodox tradition and Yiddish. Initially, with the opening of the synagogue building in 1908 the congregation grew to 160-180 members. Over 1,200 people showed up for High Holy Days Services in 1910. A local newspaper described the Nott Terrace Congregation, as Gentiles dubbed it, “as the leading orthodox congregation in the city.” For two decades the rabbi at Agudas Achim provided rabbinical services at other Orthodox synagogues. However, after World War I things changed as the older members of the congregation died. A younger generation born in Schenectady rejected Orthodox Judaism. Children of members switched to Reform Gates of Heaven which appeared to American born Jews as more modern and American, not a reflection of the old shtetls.

Younger members who remained in Agudas Achim wanted the synagogue to modernize and replace Yiddish with English as the main language of synagogue business. According to synagogue minutes of 1927 members of the younger generation did not understand Hebrew or Yiddish fluently. They needed “to have someone explain the various services in English for the benefit of those who do not understand Jewish literature.” The younger members did not use Yiddish except in conversations with members of the immigrant generation. Increasingly even the immigrants dropped daily use of Yiddish for English. Many of the younger members of the congregation wanted to abandon the Orthodox and Yiddish based constitutional structure created by the founders, but could not bring themselves to follow the path of Gates of Heaven to Reform Judaism. Instead, the congregation sought a compromise with the older members by affiliating with Conservative Judaism. In 1927 the congregation shifted to English in its minutes, introduced more English into services, and modernized the synagogue’s main sanctuary. It took two years before the Jewish Theological Seminary, the major training college for Conservative rabbis, sent a graduate to Agudas Achim to speak and conduct services. During 1929 the congregation adopted Conservative Judaism. With innovations like mixed seating they sought a half-way transition from Orthodox Judaism, because traditional Judaism no longer fit their lives or their self-definition as American Jews. This shift did not go down easily with some older members. Initially, the congregation remained divided over family pews and mixed seating. Two years of hesitation ended in 1931 when the congregation redesigned the synagogue, held a rededication service, and hired a full time Conservative rabbi. These decisions, especially the new rabbi created a positive response within the congregation. Agudas Achim completed the transition away from Orthodox Judaism.

What happened at Agudas Achim paralleled the emergence of Conservative synagogues in Albany and Troy. Disputes over mixed seating and the use of English in services led younger members of Orthodox congregations in Troy to split off and form Conservative Temple Beth El in 1929. In Albany, three Conservative congregations developed: Ohav Shalom in 1911, Sons of Israel in 1935, and Tifereth Israel in 1936 reflecting the growth of Conservative Judaism. American born Jews and younger immigrants sought an alternative to Orthodox Judaism and a more American form of religious expression. This parallels the emergence of Conservative Judaism in other upstate communities, like Beth El in Poughkeepsie in 1926 or Beth El in Utica in 1919, and the growth of the Conservative movement among the American born children of the East European Jewish immigrants. Members of Agudas Achim and other Conservative congregations faced an ongoing quandary—how to retain the faith of the immigrants, modernize to fit the American environment, and retain the loyalty of the younger generation attracted to the secular non-religious lifestyle devoid of any spiritual identification with Judaism. In the interwar years the commitment to traditional Judaism declined as the children of the immigrants grew up, became less
observant, and when they married “tended to drop many of the ceremonies which their parents conducted in their homes,” including a consistent observance of the Sabbath.

Gates of Heaven, the Reform congregation, faced its own dilemma about identity. Symbolic of its own crisis of identity was its Sunday school. Started in 1882, the first Jewish religious school in Schenectady, the Sunday school provided religious instruction for the children of members. However, by the 1920s, as congregant Lewis Lurie remembered, the congregation abandoned Hebrew classes. Teachers in the Sunday school “did not know much about the Jewish religion or background but that’s what most of the members liked.” The synagogue dropped bar mitzvahs and defined its role as a social center for members. Rather than offering a liberal form of Judaism the congregation became a half-way house to total assimilation. However, in the early 1930s, under the leadership of new rabbi, David Gruber, and with its membership growing, the congregation rewrote its constitution in 1930 to emphasize that it was a Reform congregation committed to maintaining Judaism and Jewish identity. Once again, the synagogue sponsored Hebrew classes and scheduled bar mitzvahs. Rabbi Gruber emphasized the restoration of both. He promoted social activism in the 1930s and during World War II. The congregation reaffirmed its belief in the Jewish faith, in the Torah, in Jewish learning, and ties to fellow Jews. Instead of accepting the slippage to assimilation of the 1920s, the congregation redefined itself as a liberal and American form of Judaism committed to maintaining the Jewish faith and identity of its members and children.

In the 1920s, members of Agudas Achim who disagreed with the movement to Conservative Judaism had the choice of four Orthodox congregations, and some members abandoned the modernized congregation. Two of the congregations reflected earlier splits in Agudas Achim. All represented the influx of immigrants from 1890-1916. The movement of the Edison Company to Schenectady attracted a group of Hungarian speaking Jewish craftsmen with greater skills than their East European brethren. While the Edison Company did not go out of its way to hire European trained Jewish scientists, it did hire skilled Jewish craftsmen. One of the first, Adolph Huppert, a Hungarian speaking Jew from Slovakia, became a molder that Thomas Edison hired in Hoboken, New Jersey and brought to Schenectady in the early 1890s. He persuaded Edison to hire other Hungarian speaking Jews who settled in the Mont Pleasant section of Schenectady in the 1890s. Huppert helped Agudas Achim establish a cemetery and had the unpleasant duty of seeing his daughter buried in the cemetery in January 1897. It is the oldest gravestone in the cemetery. Louis Starkman, a molder from Hungary arrived in Schenectady in the 1880s and like Huppert was one of the first Hungarian Jewish craftsmen hired at Edison. He became the unofficial historian of the Hungarian Jewish community, and one of the organizers of a separate Hungarian Jewish congregation. Working for the Edison Company brought the Hungarian Jews to Schenectady where they added a distinctive linguistic and cultural difference to the community.

Hungarian Jews joined with the Jews from Eastern Europe in Agudas Achim, but in 1893 the linguistic and ritual differences created conflict and the Hungarians organized their own religious community. About 1900 they rejoined, but in March 1902 split off as congregation Ohab Zedek, which remained an Orthodox Hungarian congregation until 1955. The First Hungarian Hebrew Congregation Ohab Zedek became the “Hungarian shul” within the Jewish community. After meeting at various locations in downtown Schenectady the congregation constructed a synagogue in 1907 on Hamilton Street in the Mont Pleasant neighborhood until it needed a larger building constructed in 1937 on State Street, the main thoroughfare in the city. The congregation remained a distinctly Hungarian congregation, but Americanized enough by 1937 that it invited President Franklin Roosevelt to attend the dedication. Americanization appeared in the movement from an old synagogue with a distinctly Hungarian Jewish façade, unique in the Capital District, to the new State Street structure with a modern synagogue façade. Americanization and death of the founding generation forced the congregation to consider merging with Agudas Achim in the early 1950s. For the remaining members joining a Conservative congregation remained unacceptable. In 1955 the congregation merged with Orthodox Ohab Sholom.

Meanwhile, dissenters who followed the leadership of Rabbi Solomon Hinden created a split in Agudas Achim in 1914 and formed a separate Orthodox congregation, Adath Israel. In 1925 the congregation felt secure enough to build a new synagogue in the Mont Pleasant neighborhood. Members of Agudas Achim unhappy with the movement to Conservative Judaism joined with their former
congregants in this synagogue. By the time of Adath Israel’s formation two other congregations formed. Starting in the mid 1890s some Jews did not feel comfortable in Agudas Achim and formed their own minyan Brith Sholom in 1894. This minyan started as a benevolent society that became a synagogue just as the branch in Buffalo also turned into a congregation. Later, in 1907, a group of peddlers and small dealers, from the most recent immigrants formed the Unterstueztings Verein. The two groups merged into Ohab Sholom about 1910-12. In 1931 the congregation built a new synagogue on Hamilton Street near the Hungarian congregation in the Mont Pleasant neighborhood, which in the 1920s and 1930s became the Jewish section of Schenectady for immigrants from Hungary and Eastern Europe and their American born children. Factionalism within the immigrant community led the most Orthodox members of the community to create a separate congregation Bnai Abraham in 1916 on Broadway near where another group of Jewish immigrants resided. Death of the founding members and Americanization of their children forced Bnai Abraham to merge with Ohab Sholom in the 1930s. In 1955 Ohab Sholom-Bnai Abraham merged with Ohab Zedek to become Orthodox Beth Israel, the only surviving Orthodox congregation in Schenectady. By 1959 Adath Israel lost the ability to hire a rabbi, but remained a separate entity for another twenty years before folding around 1980 with its last members joining Beth Israel.

Passing of the immigrant generation, immigration restriction, declining religious piety of the children and grandchildren, Americanization, suburbanization, and the decline of the downtown economy of Schenectady reversed the proliferation of synagogues created by the immigrant generation of Hungarian and East European Jews. The creation of six separate and distinctive Orthodox minyan from 1888-1916 was a search for community. Jewish immigrants wanted to recreate a sense of belonging with their fellow landsmen---it was history from the bottom up as Jewish immigrants established their own religious communities. For the immigrant generation traditional Judaism and multiple synagogues provided the means to preserve their identity in America. They created a reassuring sense of spiritual comfort in an alien environment.

Studying Schenectady’s Jews is history from the bottom up. If one looks at the creation of Gates of Heaven, Agudat Achim, and Ohab Zedek synagogues as examples they each illustrate the unique nature of the Jewish experience and the problems of immigrants. The German and Austrian Jews who established a congregation did so where there was no Jewish community. As poor peddlers and small shop keepers they pooled their resources and created a community out of nothing by establishing a minyan, renting and later buying space for a synagogue, purchased land for a cemetery, arranging for kosher meat, and hiring a rabbi. They created a community where none had existed before in a totally alien environment as a tiny minority. Similarly, a group of families of immigrant Russian Jews got together in the late 1880s hired a cantor and established their own minyan. Once again, they consisted of peddlers, tailors, and small shop keepers with limited resources who established a synagogue, wrote a constitution, and built a synagogue building. Their constitution made clear they were a group of Yiddish speaking Orthodox Jews who wanted to follow a specific ritual and not be identified with the emerging Reform trend in Gates of Heaven. The founders of Agudat Achim wanted to preserve their identity as Orthodox Yiddish speaking Jews from the Russian Empire. The Hungarian Jews could not accept participation in the “Russian” synagogue and wanted a congregation that respected their Hungarian origins. When they built a synagogue in 1907 the architecture of the building recreated the style of shuls in the old country. Ironically, German Jews in Gates of Heaven and Russian Jews in Agudat Achim would have described the Hungarian synagogue as “Oriental” in appearance.

Each of these three Jewish congregations established and maintained a community that reflected the values, language and ritual customs they brought with them from Europe. Each created institutions where none had existed. Hungarian and Russian Jews perceived the members of Gates of Heaven as an alien German congregation that became Reform and Americanized. Like Jews from Central and Eastern Europe who settled in upstate New York in the late 19th and early 20th centuries they refused to join with German Jews and their American born children in the same religious community. The newer immigrants demonstrated their differences and their own sense of community. They showed what their interpretation of Judaism and Jewishness meant by founding their own minyanim and synagogues. This pattern got
repeated in each urban Jewish community from Poughkeepsie to Buffalo as Jewish immigrants staked out their claim to community and sense of identity.

What these congregations could not stop was the journey to Americanization. The founders of Gates of Heaven started out as an Orthodox congregation. When they constructed a new building on College Street in 1891 they began the transition to Reform Jews as their American born children wanted a modernized and American form of Judaism that emphasized English and reduced the role of Hebrew and German. German Jews tried to cling to German Kultur, as the leadership of the German Club in Schenectady indicated, a common feature among a generation of German Jews, whether in Schenectady or Gloversville. Their American born children saw German and traditional Orthodox Judaism as holdovers from an immigrant generation that required change. Changes in Gates of Heaven and the new constitutions of 1901 and 1906 demonstrated the victory of an Americanized generation in synagogue leadership.

Ironically, although the “Russian” synagogue staked out its sense of identity as Orthodox Yiddish speaking Jews by the 1920s the forces of Americanization produced a parallel result. Children of the founding generation no longer spoke Yiddish fluently, knew less Hebrew and no longer identified with Orthodox ritual. Against the strict prohibitions in the synagogue’s constitution, Agudat Achim, went from Yiddish to English in its minutes, abandoned Yiddish in services, reduced the role of Hebrew, increased the use of English, and brought women down from the balcony to sit with their husbands, sons, and brothers. Agudat Achim had been the largest Orthodox congregation in Schenectady. Now it had become the more Americanized Conservative synagogue. Unlike the children of Gates of Heaven, the generation that took over leadership in Agudat Achim tried to strike a compromise between tradition and modernization by adopting Conservative, rather than Reform Judaism. At the same time, members of Gates of Heaven who by the 1920s had slipped from Americanized Reform Judaism into a social club on the way to assimilation underwent a spiritual renewal under the leadership of Rabbi David Gruber. Members of Gates of Heaven rewrote their constitution and reinstated Hebrew and bar mitzvahs as an indication of their desire to maintain their identity as Jews as well as Americans. Repeatedly, Jewish immigrants and their descendants redefined their identity as Jews and Americans in an open and pluralistic society.
Endnotes


Incorporation Papers of Sharei Shomajim (Gates of Heaven), 20 October 1856, Book A, 203, Schenectady County Clerk’s Office, Schenectady, N.Y.

Schenectady Reflector, 3 October 1856. Another copy of this section on Sharei Shomajim is in the WPA files, Schenectady, New York State Archives, Albany, New York. For a record of a Jewish wedding at the synagogue, see the photocopy of a Ketubah of Aaron David Orbanisky and Reichel Henry, 1865, Documents file, Schenectady, American Jewish Archives, Cincinnati, Ohio.


Stuart Rosenberg, The Jewish Community in Rochester, 1843-1925. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954), 6. For the occupations of the German Jews of Troy who were primarily tailors, and small shopkeepers, see Allan Cohen and Gabe Izraelevitz, “The Jewish Immigration into 19th Century Troy” (Student paper, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, 1981), Appendix A.


Rubinger, Albany Jewry,198 discusses the economic success of German Jews; Goldin, Jewish Community, 10; Adler, From Ararat to Suburbia, 38; Rosenberg, Jewish Community in Rochester, 11.

Schenectady Daily Union, 24 September1891, 23 July 1892; Schenectady Evening Star, 24 September 1891.

Schenectady City Directory, 1908, 441, 446. SCHS; For example, “The Jewish New Year,” Schenectady Evening Star, 28 September 1894; “The Jewish New Year,” Schenectady Daily Union, 1 October 1894.


Paula Binyamin, Huppert’s great-granddaughter to author, August 2006 email based in part on undated account by Eugene Berkun. Berkun is the grandson of Huppert and a trustee of the Jewish Historical Society of Northeastern New York; Arthur Mann, “The Newer Jewish Community,” The Tri-City Jewish Chronicle, December 1917, 19; Weingarten, “Biography of an American Jewish Community,”

Starkman who was still alive when Weingarten arrived in Schenectady in the early 1940s had repeated conversations with Weingarten about late 19th and early 20th Century Schenectady Jewish history. There is no record of material collected by Starkman on Schenectady’s Jewish history.

Mann, “Newer Jewish Community,” 21; “Hungarian Jews’ New Synagogue, Schenectady Evening Star, 14 March 1907; The President and Mrs. Roosevelt to Congregation Ohab Zedek, 17 February 1937 expressing regrets at not being able to attend the dedication of the new synagogue building on 27 February 1937, Archives of Beth Israel, Schenectady, New York. Analysis based on photographs of the Hamilton and State Streets synagogues of Ohab Zedek in Archives, Beth Israel.

Film Review
“American Teacher”

Ben Miles

Public school teachers have long been an object of ire among the pundits of right-wing talk radio and the Fox News Network. Framed by the wags of those airwaves as overpaid and underworked, these public educators – to whom we entrust more than 90% of our children daily, ten months a year, for twelve years – are often portrayed as having lifelong sinecures and a career path akin to a walk down Easy Street.

A new documentary film, “American Teacher,” debunks those manufactured mendacities and more. Are you aware, for instance, that 20% of urban public classroom teachers leave their jobs annually? Did you know that 46% of all public school teachers leave the profession within the first five years of their career?

But, “American Teacher” – directed by Vanessa Roth, with Matt Damon lending narration – is not just a statistical examination of the state of American pedagog and pedagogy in the public sphere. Told through the personal stories of four American public school teachers (some of whom have since resigned from their posts), “American Teacher” is a humane exposé on the less than functional conditions in which many of our public school teachers (and students) must perform.

From Brooklyn, we meet a first grade teacher – the very pregnant Jamie Fidler; she puts in ten hours a school-day and, in her first year as a teacher, she spent $3000 of her own money for classroom supplies (it’s revealed in “American Teacher” that 90% of public school teachers pay for supplies out of their own pocketbook).

We encounter a stellar social studies teacher from Keller, Texas – Erik Benner. In order to make ends meet, Benner must maintain evening employment as a forklift operator. Nevertheless, Benner’s house is foreclosed upon and his marriage is in a state of irreparable deterioration. Benner and his wife have two young daughters (“American Teacher” informs us that a third of public school teachers hold second jobs; if coaching and/or other extra-curricular assignments are included that amount rises to 62%).

We get to know Rhena Jasey, a teacher in New Jersey, who tells of the shock and dismay expressed among her acquaintances when she – an Ivy Leaguer with advanced degrees from Harvard and Colombia – discloses her plan to become a public school teacher (according to “American Teacher,” in countries where students score highest on standardized tests – Finland, Singapore, and South Korea – only the best and brightest people are recruited as teachers, and their higher learning is 100% government sponsored).

We also get to see and listen to the impressive but disconsolate Jonathan Dearman, a beloved educator in San Francisco, forced by familial and financial circumstance to abandon his calling as a teacher and instead go into the family real estate business (we’re told by “American Teacher” that public school teachers earn 14% less than other professionals with an equivalent level of education).

In the face of the unprecedented ridicule that has of late been unleashed on public school teachers by the talking-head commentariat, along with the regular pot-shots from pop culture, such as “Bad Teacher” and “Waiting for Superman” (the former is a fictional film; the latter is a cinematic documentary – both movies, however, stray far from the facts about what is actually happening in American classrooms), it’s about time that filmmakers take an empathetic look at the flight and plight of the relatively low paid American public school teacher. For this we have “American Teacher” producers Ninive Calegari and David Eggers to thank.

“American Teacher” has opened in limited engagements across the country. To check locations and schedules, and for further information, visit, www.theteachersalaryproject.org.