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Sustaining Cesar Chavez’s Legacy Through Education: ¡Si Se Puede! - O No?

Maggie Beddow,
California State University, Sacramento

Introduction

Recent demographic shifts in California indicate that 53% of K-12 students self-identify as Latinos1 as of 2014-2015. According to Geneva Gay (2000), students need to see themselves represented in culturally responsive curriculum to feel as if they are valued members of society; thus, teaching about César Chávez is especially important today in California because Chávez was one of the most prominent Latino role models and heroes in modern times, particularly to agricultural farm workers. Chávez devoted much of his life to organizing on behalf of the United Farm Workers, a labor union that he co-founded with Dolores Huerta during the 1960s – the era of the Civil Rights and Chicano Movement. A number of the founding civil rights leaders including Martin Luther King, Jr., Rosa Parks, and César Chávez have passed on; however, their legacy can and should be sustained through education. While many students learn about MLK, Jr. and Rosa Parks while attending California K-12 public schools, far fewer learn about César Chávez who dedicated his life to service, advocating on behalf of oppressed farm workers in order to improve their working conditions.

Policies and Legislation

As a result of his social justice advocacy and service to others, California Senator Richard Polanco authored Senate Bill 984 in 2000 as a way to commemorate César Chávez’s actions. The bill established California’s state holiday which is officially entitled “César Chávez Day of Service and Learning.” According to SB 984 Analysis,2 the purpose of:

“The bill would require the State Board of Education to ensure that the state curriculum framework, where appropriate, includes instruction on Cesar Chavez and the history of the farm labor movement in the United States and that state criteria for selecting textbooks include information to guide the selection of textbooks that highlight the life and contributions of Cesar Chavez and the history of the farm labor movement in the United States.”

Subsequent to the passage of SB 984, California Education Codes were enacted as a way to support the teachings about César Chávez and his life and work in California K-12 public schools. Shortly after the passage of California Education Codes, Sections 37220-37223, 3 the César Chávez Model Curriculum was created in 2002 by the California Department of Education which contains a multitude of grade-level and standards-based lessons and resources available to K-12 educators. In addition, student-centered projects have been created through the National History Day program including NHD documentaries about César Chávez and Dolores Huerta. A few years later, the California Department of Education’s 2005 History-Social Science (H-SS) Framework 4, or the curriculum guidelines for implementing the history-social science standards, referenced, albeit minimally, to the teaching of César Chávez in California schools. The H-SS Framework and State Academic Content Standards are the foundation by which teachers can justify the creation and implementation of K-12 lessons that focus on César Chávez and the plight of the farm workers; yet, the H-SS Standards do not reference César Chávez and the H-SS
Framework only references César Chávez in one sentence: “Students should understand the role of labor in industry and agriculture, including how César Chávez, through nonviolent tactics, educated the general public about the working conditions in agriculture and led the movement to improve the lives of farmworkers.”

Research Study

The purpose of this paper is to examine if, indeed, Chávez’s accomplishments and principles of enacting social change through non-violence are actually being manifested through education in California public schools, as authorized and encouraged by legislation. And despite a multitude of efforts that have been made by policymakers in recent decades to keep César Chávez’s legacy alive through education, including the declaration of César Chávez Day as an official holiday in three states – California, Colorado, and Texas – as well as commemorations in two other states - New Mexico and Arizona - Chávez’s birthplace – findings suggest that little effort is being made in schools to sustain his legacy, even since President Barack Obama’s visit to César Chávez’s UFW headquarters in La Paz, California back in October 2012 where he dedicated the site as a national monument and proclaimed March 31st to be César Chávez Day in the United States. It was during that ceremony that Obama declared his support of the late civil rights leader’s legacy by decreeing the following: “I call upon all Americans to observe this day with appropriate service, community, and educational programs to honor Cesar Chavez’s enduring legacy… Chávez left a legacy as an educator, environmentalist, and a civil rights leader.” In my conclusions, I argue that, based on an analysis of qualitative questionnaire data I have collected from random K-8 teachers in a northern California urban region, both in writing over the past three years as well as anecdotally over the past decade, it appears that the current educational system in California does not do an adequate job in promoting and supporting the teachings of César Chávez which is an important way to keep his legacy alive.

Methodology

In 2012 I began surveying my pre-service elementary social studies methods students and their cooperating teachers to glean a comprehensive snapshot of how César Chávez was being taught in K-8 classrooms in an urban region in northern California. Over the course of three years, I administered a total of 162 surveys to my pre-service teachers who, in turn, used the survey prompts to interview their cooperating teachers in their field placements located in nearby school districts. Taking into account for a small margin of error, I analyzed a simple random sample representing five percent of the questionnaire data collected from 22 teachers. A comprehensive analysis of the data are provided subsequently in this article, however, a snapshot shows that K-8 teachers in over half of the public schools in the region do not implement the teaching of this curriculum, primarily because it is not mandated or sufficiently included in the California CDE State Standards and Frameworks, nor is it supported by school administration. A brief questionnaire containing two simple questions or prompts was administered by pre-service teachers who interviewed 162 teachers:

- Have you made any changes in your curriculum in response to legislation and education codes [related to the teaching about César Chávez and his accomplishments]?
- Explain how and/or why you have or have not modified your curriculum.

Analysis and Findings

In this next section, I provide a comprehensive analysis of the data I collected from 22 of the questionnaires, representing four schools districts in the region. When examining the responses to the prompt, “Have you made any changes in your curriculum in response to this legislation and education codes?” eleven responders, or half of the responses, indicated that they either were unaware of the legislation and education codes related to César Chávez, or their colleagues were unaware of such proclamations. When analyzing the responses to the second prompt, “Explain how and/or why you have or have not modified your curriculum,” there was an array of responses, mostly ranging from not teaching anything about César Chávez and/or reading a book about César Chávez, while a few indicated that they
had planned a unit about César Chávez, using bilingual books to teach children about the UFW and migrant farm workers.

Specifically, of the six questionnaires I received from K-8 teachers in the FC school district, four of the teachers indicated that they teach something about César Chávez, for example, they might read a book about him or teach a miniunit. However, two of the teachers stated “I read a story but other than that, there is no time to teach about César Chávez” and “Neither the resources nor the time have been given to do so.” Hence, the greatest obstacle reported by one-third of the FC teachers I surveyed is the lack of instructional time.

When analyzing the four questionnaires from the K-3 SJ school district teachers, three of the responders indicated that they do not teach about César Chávez. One teacher emphatically stated, “I will not be teaching it because nothing was given to me, and materials are expensive. I would teach it if it was mandatory, but have heard nothing about it. The problem with things like this is they expect teachers to take their time and money to get materials for lessons and it is just not reasonable.” Another teacher stated “I have not made any changes in my curriculum in response to this legislation because it is not like Constitution Day where an email comes along telling us to teach about it. It is not emphasized or mentioned on the school calendar because it falls during spring break.” A third teacher simply stated “No,” meaning s/he did not state why or why s/he does not teach anything about César Chávez.

I received eight responses from K-8 teachers in the SC school district. While five of those eight responders stated they do teach about César Chávez, two of those responders were more eager than others about their curriculum. For example, one teacher stated “My 1st grade team and myself did a small unit on César Chávez and the students got to make an art project about what they learned. They learned about the UFW and how César Chávez grew up as a farm worker and son of farm workers...” Another responder stated, “I have planned a unit that starts with reading the book, ‘Cajas de Carton’ by Francisco Jimenez to introduce the life of migrant farm workers...” Both of these two teachers were identified as bilingual and their lessons reflected a connection to the farm workers’ plight. However, two other responders from the SC school district indicated they will not be teaching about César Chávez, with one stating, “No, completely unaware of it; not included in curriculum (Scott Foresman) so I won’t be including it” while the other stated “No, I was not planning on making any changes to my curriculum.”

Finally, when analyzing the three responses from the EG school district, only one responder explicitly planned a lesson about César Chávez. However, another responder stated, “No, I have not. I guess it's because it's one more thing piled on top of a million other things, and it's been lost in the shuffle. Not once in the eleven years I've taught in CA has anyone brought this up or to my attention.”

Thus, of the snapshot 22 responses I analyzed, only about half of the teachers indicated that they include César Chávez in their instruction. Despite all of the resources that are available for educators to teach about César Chávez, along with education codes and legislation authorizing a state holiday to commemorate César Chávez’s work in social justice activism, it is perplexing as to why so many teachers seem to be unaware, uninterested, or do not find time in their daily schedule to teach about one of the most important Latino civil rights leaders of California. In delving further into the results, one contributing factor that I have concluded is that when the federal bipartisan bill called No Child Left Behind 7 passed in 2001, it had a substantial impact on the teaching of social studies and civics-related lessons, particularly in K-8 schools identified as lower performing, due to poor standardized state scores. The focus of the NCLB act was to raise the reading and math scores of lower-performing students; hence, the teaching of science, and especially social studies instruction, were put on the back burner. Circa the time that César Chávez Day was enacted in California and the K-12 César Chávez Model Curriculum was created by the California Department of Education, the 5th grade social studies standardized test in California was eliminated. Math and reading standardized tests became the primary focus in many California elementary schools, while, for the first time, students would not be tested in their knowledge about history/social science and civics until the 8th grade. Thus, because teaching about César Chávez is generally aligned to social studies curriculum, it is apparent that for over a decade many elementary students in California have not received an adequate foundation in history and civics education. Further, one can conclude that teachers have not received enough support from their administrators to teach about César Chávez, despite the fact that student demographics in K-12 public schools show that over 50% of students are Latinos, and the numbers are increasing.
Conclusions

In the final analysis, I have reached a daunting conclusion that although public school teachers should be sustaining the legacy of César Chávez through education, based on the data I collected, only about half of K-12 students are actually learning about his legacy and if one applies this conclusion to the bigger picture at-large, the implications of this trend is that a great majority of students in California who identify as Latinos will grow up knowing little about an important leader and role model who made such a difference in the lives of farm workers. Fortunately, UFW’s co-founder Dolores Huerta continues the important work that she and César Chávez started, thus, carrying on a legacy that is particularly poignant, given the shifting demographics in California’s K-12 public schools.

Bibliography
Effectiveness of a Tenure Track Faculty Mentoring Program: Reflections of a Pilot Project

Bryan Berrett, Nancy Nisbett, Mitzi Lowe,
California State University, Fresno

Abstract
Faculty mentoring at universities takes on a wide variety of forms and levels of effectiveness but the research on the structure and effectiveness of mentoring program is limited. The informal mentoring that occurred between three faculty from different health and human service disciplines inspired the need for this project and the creation of a formalized mentoring program for their college. A pilot mentoring program for new tenure-track faculty was implemented during the 2013-2014 academic year. The program included structure, training, and ongoing facilitation. Best practices identified during a literature review and visits to other universities with established mentoring programs provided the framework for the pilot program. Eleven newly hired tenure-track faculty across five academic disciplines in the college of health and human services were strategically assigned tenured mentors. Over a two-semester period the mentors and mentees were provided resources and had regularly scheduled meetings to guide new faculty in adjusting to the University. Using a mixed methods design, data was collected throughout the year to assess program effectiveness. Focus groups, individual interviews, and survey data will be discussed from multiple perspectives that include new tenure-track faculty mentees and tenured faculty mentors. Both graduate and undergraduate students were included to assist with literature review, tool development, data collection, and data analysis. This article will discuss the inspiration for the program, its structure, methodology, funding, resources and recommendations for implementation of a mentoring program will be discussed.

Faculty Mentoring
The faculty mentoring program was created as a process of one person supporting, teaching, leading, and serving as the model for another person (Buell, 2004). Research indicates that participating in a formalized mentoring program provides new faculty members with higher self-efficacy (Feldman, et.al., 2010), encourages personal and professional growth (Mijares, Baxley, & Bond, 2013), and promotes collegiality (Mullen & Kennedy, 2007). Research has shown that structured mentoring efforts, where senior faculty members are assigned probationary faculty and there are established guidelines and expectations, are most effective (Bland, et.al., 2005). Mentoring can be described as the process by which a person, usually of superior rank and/or outstanding achievement, guides the development of another person who may be new to a place of work or field. In a university setting, mentoring can and should be used to exchange ideas, strengthen department relationships, enhance productivity, and integrate new faculty in the university community (Savage, Karp, and Logue, 2004).

A mentoring relationship is one that may vary along a continuum from informal/short-term to formal/long-term in which faculty with useful experience, knowledge, skills, and/or wisdom offers advice, information, guidance, support, or opportunity to another faculty member for that individual’s professional development” (Berk, R., Berg, J. et.al, 2005, p. 67).

Historical Background of Tenure Track Faculty
Mentoring has been suggested as a strategy for empowering junior faculty to contribute to their professional growth and the mission of the university and the need for faculty mentoring is clearly
supported in higher education literature (Savage, Karp, & Logue, 2004). Mentoring is seen as a means for empowering junior faculty to tap into their unique talents and skills and promote professional growth, hence, improving the institutions effectiveness and ability to serve students (Luna and Cullen, 1995). Studies on faculty mentoring discuss strategies and guidelines for implementing effective faculty mentoring programs and how to best help junior faculty understand the organizational culture of an institution of higher learning. Also, the literature discusses the importance of faculty empowerment during the early stages of faculty development (Pierce, 1998). For example, mentoring embraces a philosophy about faculty and how important they are to institutions of higher learning. Furthermore, mentoring is useful in understanding organizational culture, providing access to informal and formal networks of communication, and offering professional guidance and support to junior faculty members. Mentoring is a continuation of one's development across the lifespan as described by human development theorists (Erikson 1963; Levinson et al. 1978). Effective mentoring can provide new faculty members with the necessary support as they navigate the campus culture and the tenure process. Very little attention has been paid to the long-term viability of our faculty. What is really needed is an approach to mentoring tenure-track faculty that allows them to develop self-efficacy (Garman, Wingard, & Reznik, 2001) while minimizing the organizational barriers faced by junior faculty such as teaching loads, advising students, professional development, and service (Griffiths, Thompson, & Hryniewicz, 2010). The environment of mistrust that exists in many departments and/or educational institutions has led faculty and department chairs to battle over resources, and hoard information instead of using those resources to support the development of new faculty and reduce those barriers. Too frequently junior faculty members are overwhelmed by inconsistent information regarding their tenure and promotion process leading to high levels of stress and performance anxiety (Eddy & Gaston-Gayles, 2008). Maintaining better balance allows the faculty member to focus more effectively on student learning and growth while developing their faculty self-efficacy.

The purpose of this research was to explore the phenomenon of faculty mentoring in higher education utilizing a faculty self-efficacy approach. Many new faculty enter higher education feeling a sense of isolation which is often mixed with unclear expectations during their probationary period. Research shows that faculty mentoring can reduce professional isolation, increase rates of promotion, and reduce the likelihood of faculty leaving an institution prior to gaining tenure (Washburn, 2007). Deans and department chairs should commit to allocating roles and responsibilities (i.e. committee assignments, new preparations) that initiate new faculty into the institution without overburdening them (Thomas, 2005).

Organizational Challenges
One challenge that is evident on many university campuses is that faculty typically work as individuals rather than working as a part of an educational team. These ‘silos’ typically lack a sense of community that provides opportunities for collaborative mentoring. There is a need to change the culture of universities as well as among the faculty, to one in which mentoring is valued (Marcellino, 2011). While some institutions establish formal mentorship programs that pair junior faculty members with senior faculty members, little empirical evidence exists that indicates the frequency and effectiveness of such programs (Darviwn & Palmer, 2009).

Methods
Using a mixed methods design, data was collected throughout the project year to assess program effectiveness. Separate focus groups were held at the beginning of the pilot program in fall of 2013 with both the mentees and mentors. Individual interviews were conducted spring 2014 with all participants. A post program survey was developed utilizing content and information from a variety of existing survey instruments. There was a 64% (n=14) response rate with a total of six mentees and eight mentors completing the quantitative survey. Four formal meetings were held with mentees and mentors. These meetings were designed to facilitate discussion, identify participant needs, and share mentoring resources. In addition, both mentees and mentors participated in separate pre-program focus groups to gather information about their perceptions of mentoring. Both graduate and undergraduate students contributed to the project, assisting with literature review, tool development, and data collection.
Setting

The study was conducted with faculty members in a large public, comprehensive university in central California’s San Joaquin Valley. It is one of 23 campuses of the CSU system, distinguished in part by its extraordinarily large service area in the geographical center of California as well as its high percentage of rural, underserved students, many who attended high schools with Hispanic student enrollments of between 70% and 99%. The university has been recognized in the Community Engagement classification by The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The campus is also recognized by the U.S. Department of Education as a Hispanic Serving Institution (HSI) and an Asian American Native Pacific Islander-Serving Institution (AANAPISI). The university has more Hispanic students than the three other public universities between Los Angeles and Sacramento combined. Moreover, no other university in California enrolls as many rural Hispanic students, an overwhelming percentage of whom are educationally underserved and economically disadvantaged.

The College of Health and Human Services (CHHS) attracts more than 4,800 students each year from California and throughout the United States and internationally. The core mission of CHHS is to provide a professionally oriented education at the undergraduate level and to provide graduate programs in specialized disciplines that serve the needs of students - as well as foster the emerging needs of residents and health and human service providers in the Central California region. Prospective students are drawn to the undergraduate, graduate and doctorate level academic programs the college offers, including seven academic departments and various centers and institutes. Departments within the college include Communicative Disorders and Deaf Studies, Kinesiology, Physical Therapy, Public Health, Recreation Administration, Social Work Education and Gerontology, and the School of Nursing. The college also boasts two of the three total doctoral programs at Fresno State - Doctor of Physical Therapy and Doctor of Nursing Practice.

Institutional Support

This pilot program utilized the four critical components of a mentoring program identified by D’Abate & Eddy (2008) that include appropriate matching, preparation, interaction and outcome assessment of mentors and mentees. Once selected, the mentees and mentors were invited to join a faculty learning community lead by a faculty member with mentoring expertise. The intent of the faculty learning community was to provide a venue for faculty to share insights, discuss problems, learn new techniques, and support one another. Both mentees and mentors were provided with a $100 professional development stipend each semester as compensation for their participation in the faculty learning community. Our objective was to mitigate potential barriers to effective mentoring programs that could have included conflicts between gender roles, cultural differences, and power dynamics (Cowin, Cohen, Ciechanowski, & Orozco, 2012; Griffin & Reddick, 2011).

Beginning in the fall, four formal meetings were held with all of the pilot program participants. Both new faculty and mentors were provided with resources, including campus and community contacts, to assist new faculty in adapting to the campus. A benefit of the meetings, in addition to the resources provided, was an opportunity for new faculty to engage with both new and seasoned faculty from across the College, increasing their sense of community. The 11 newly hired tenure track faculty and their assigned mentors were encouraged to have regularly scheduled meetings to assist in adjusting to the university in addition to the four formal meetings with the mentoring learning community.

Funding for this project was provided by the Provost and the Dean. The Provost provided each author with a one-course release to develop, implement, and evaluate this project. Through the office of Technology Innovations for Teaching and Learning, the Provost also provided funding for the faculty learning community for all participants. In addition to the professional development stipends previously mentioned, this funding also provided a stipend to the learning community facilitator and paid for the lunches at each of the four formal meetings. The Dean provided funding for undergraduate and graduate students to assist with the project as well as funding for each author to visit other universities and interview directors of well-known mentoring programs.
Participants
There were a total of 22 participants in the pilot study. A total of 11 new tenure track faculty participated from five academic departments including Communicative Disorders and Deaf Studies, Kinesiology, Nursing, Physical Therapy and Social Work Education. Also participating were a total of 11 faculty mentors from five academic departments (Kinesiology, Nursing, Physical Therapy, Public Health, and Social Work Education). Due to availability of tenured faculty in some departments, some mentors were assigned from outside of the new tenure track faculty’s department, however, all mentors were from within the College of Health and Human Services.

Data Analysis
The specific focus was data collected from and about the 11 faculty mentors and 11 new tenure track faculty, who were all involved in the Faculty Mentoring Pilot Program in the College of Health and Human Services. This study collected data from these 22 informants and was reliant on focus groups and interviews. Each interview and focus groups was recorded and then transcribed by students. Each of the authors went through each of the focus group and interview transcripts to determine accuracy of content. Next, themes were identified independently and discussed in a series of meetings to determine consensus. First-level description was used throughout the collection of the data as a means of orienting the researchers to the mentoring context (Richards & Morse, 2012).

Qualitative Highlights
A review of the focus groups and interview transcripts presented a number of themes for exploration. The mentors reflected that working on this project reminded them of the importance of mentoring. One mentor described the result of his mentoring relationship as a rebirth of him (the mentor) and a growth of the mentee. Another mentor discussed the value and importance of mentoring across academic disciplines, stating that the experience has her:

… new ideas of how to go about (mentoring), one especially when you are mentoring someone outside of your discipline. It also I think provides opportunity for future collaboration. You are already crossing your disciplines so I thought that was really nice. It bridges a gap right there and provides a forum to hearing about each other works. From that regard, I think It extends opportunities through this mentoring.

Both the mentees and their mentors were appreciative of formalizing mentoring expectations, indicating it was helpful to have specific meeting times set as it increased accountability. Mentees identified the twice/semester group meetings as opportunities to network with not only their mentor, but also the other new faculty and senior faculty members from across the college. One mentee shared that he had shared his mentoring experiences on our campus with his colleagues at other campuses and told them that they should be jealous of his experience. This mentee was expressing a theme common among his fellow mentees of the usefulness of the mentoring relationship in connecting to the department and college as well as creating opportunities for collaboration.

Both mentors and mentees were also asked to identify recommendations for the development of a formalized mentoring program based on their experiences. A common theme for both the mentors and mentees was the need for a selection process, although many different ideas were generated. Suggestions ranged from connecting mentors and mentees based on schedule, mentee area of perceived weakness, and based on personality. The challenge of identifying a mentor during the first four months of your academic was explained by one mentee, who stated:

I would definitely make it clear either that the mentee gets to choose a mentor right away or is it going to be assigned. If it is going to be assigned, then of course hopefully the chair knows who will be the best fit for us. But if you have the option of choosing the mentor yourself, then we need to know who is eligible and make it clear right away.
Both mentees and mentors also identified the need for more information on mentoring; suggestions included reading lists, educational sessions or workshops, and teambuilding opportunities. Mentees commonly related the desire to have their mentors initiate more. Most felt they did most of the initiation in the relationship and reported feeling uneasy at taking the mentors’ time. One mentee explains:

I know that after attending one of the mentor focus groups that my mentor sent me an email with his cell phone number saying “oh I realized you should probably have this”. It took me literally seven months to text him. I always try to catch the person (mentor) in person first because I know we get so inundated that it just gets overwhelming.

Mentees also frequently identified a desire to have their relationship with their mentor last beyond the year timeframe of the project. One mentee explained that he recognized the university was providing a lot of support during year one. He anticipated he would have increased need for support from his mentor in the next few years as university resources lessened.

When asked how to increase faculty by-in to serve as mentors, most mentors involved in the project spoke of the need to give back and that faculty should want to do it. However, both mentees and mentors identified the importance of having the university reinforce and acknowledge the importance of mentoring. One mentor suggested that there needs to be:

Some recognition of both the mentor and the mentee maybe at the beginning of the academic year or end of the academic year. I think that certainly would be beneficial in terms of recognizing those folks who have gone in to participate in something like this.

Other suggestions included recognizing the role of the mentor as a part of faculty service, providing professional development funding for mentors, or providing resources for the mentor and mentee to meet for lunch or coffee regularly. Overall, the qualitative themes that emerged indicate that a critical component of mentoring is accessibility. The formal mentoring meetings allowed faculty to analyze specific types of developmental relationships and identify how they could impact the faculty mentoring process as well as the success of junior faculty. The qualities of an effective mentor included caring, approachable senior faculty members who are enthusiastic about working with a mentee and want them to succeed. Of particular value from the mentee perspective is that they acknowledged their responsibility to set goals and articulating their needs with their mentor. Ultimately, effective mentoring is evident when new faculty connect personally with the university, perceiving that they belong, have increased campus knowledge, develop an understanding of university politics, and successfully transition into tenure and promotion.

Quantitative Highlights
Fourteen out of 22 participants completed the post-project survey (64%). While the focus on the mentoring relationships varied, overall 78% of respondents found the relationship to be effective, with email, in-person meetings and the phone all used to communicate. The frequency of meetings/communications varied, 2-3 times/month was the most frequently reported answer (42%). The majority of respondents (78%) noted the relationship was beneficial to both individuals (mentor and mentee) and both were viewed as supportive and accessible partners. The words, ‘advisor,’ ‘teacher,’ and ‘counselor’ were used most often to describe the mentor. After the first year, 47% of respondents viewed their relationship as still beginning, while an other 47% reported viewing themselves in the middle of their mentoring relationship. Perhaps most encouraging 89% (n=9) stated interest in being a mentor.

Limitations
The scope of this research is narrow because it included only one college model for change and included a small number of subjects. This research discovered some findings that may be helpful to other colleges and universities exploring new models for faculty mentoring, but its generalizability to other...
institutions is limited due to the size of the study and the qualitative nature of the findings. The concept of mentoring remains imprecise and there is a need to continue to further develop instruments that can evaluate the effectiveness of mentoring programs in order to provide empirical evidence of the effectiveness of formal and informal faculty mentoring programs.

**Current Status of Mentoring**

With consultation with the Department Chairs and College Executive Committee, the Dean of the College of Health and Human Services formalized the mentoring program in Fall 2015. The Dean provides assigned time support of a mentoring coordinator, who consults with departments and provides oversight to the mentoring process. The mentoring coordinator currently works in partnership with the college executive committee, department chairs, and existing mentors to identify professional development opportunities, networking opportunities, community connections, and is responsible for the evaluative process. The overarching purpose of this faculty mentoring program is twofold:

1. To increase retention rate and overall job satisfaction, to encourage a sense of belonging
2. To increase the ability of new faculty members to contribute to student success

Recognizing that every new faculty member has different needs/goals, the focus for the mentoring relationship for each mentor/mentee is slightly different. The CHHS Mentoring Program is intended to offer structure to help guide the development of these relationships and to empower both the probationary faculty and mentor to create a strong and meaningful relationship.

**Conclusion**

Findings of this pilot project identify faculty perceptions of the mentoring process and how the self-efficacy mentoring model contributed to a sense of empowerment and collegiality. Interview results suggest that faculty participants believed that participating in the pilot project offered them more support and a greater sense of belonging. Faculty noted the program’s success in the following areas: increased opportunity to collaborate with other faculty, increased information about the promotion and tenure process, and a sense of connectedness with each other as new faculty. Overall, the faculty mentoring pilot program had significant benefits for the participants. Offering a structured faculty mentoring program has the potential to benefit not only the new faculty member but the institution as well. We recommend that intentional mentoring in higher education can develop faculty members with institutional self-efficacy who become tenured faculty members and administrators that contribute to the institution. As faculty members we value our commitment to lifelong learning, mentoring junior faculty, and collaborating with others while working towards change that improves the success of students and the long term sustainability of our degree programs. Success cannot be attained without successors (Maxwell, 1995).

**References**


Focus Group Questions Fall 2013, Tenure Track Faculty Year 1

What qualities/characteristics/strengths do you seek from your mentor(s)?
What benefits do you anticipate from a mentor relationship?
What do you anticipate your role/responsibility is in creating a relationship with your mentor?
What considerations are important to you in selecting a mentor(s)?
How do you believe your faculty mentor can best support you during the promotion and tenure process?
Faculty Mentor Questions

1. What is faculty mentoring?
2. What has been your experience with faculty mentoring?
   a. What aspects of faculty mentoring do you find most rewarding/most challenging?
3. What expectations do you have or have you had of the mentoring relationship?
   a. What do you anticipate the structure of your relationship with your mentee? Meeting times, locations, length, types of communication, etc. b. Describe typical activities that you do with your mentee. c. Describe the qualities of an effective mentor / mentee?
4. What are your thoughts about group mentoring?
5. Please describe qualities of an effective mentor.
6. What are some of your goals as a faculty mentor?
7. Please describe typical activities that you do with your mentee.

One on One Interviews Spring 2014, Tenure Track Faculty Year 1

1. Describe your experience with your mentee this year.
2. Moving forward, what will you seek in a mentoring relationship? (Characteristics of mentor, areas of focus, etc.)
3. How have your expectations of a mentee/mentoring relationship changed as a result of your experience?
4. What recommendations do you have for the development of a formalized mentoring program?

Faculty Mentor Questions

1. Describe your experience with your mentee this year.
2. How have your expectations of a mentee/mentoring relationship changed as a result of your experience?
3. How do we increase faculty by-in to serve as mentors?
4. What recommendations do you have for the development of a formalized mentoring program?
Radicalism versus Conservatism: The Forgotten Conflict Between Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Booker T. Washington in the Black Struggle for Civil Rights

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Abstract
This paper analyzes the conflict between Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Booker T. Washington as a forgotten episode in the Black struggle for civil rights in the United States of America. It argues that Wells-Barnett was a titan of a forgotten radicalism and progressive feminism. It also argues that Washington was a titan of a forgotten conservatism and regressive elitism. With regard to that context, this paper presents an analysis of the conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington. In terms of the conflict, this paper examines how Wells-Barnett and her husband Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr. were undermined by Washington for daring to oppose the social policies advocated by the Tuskegee Machine. This paper also examines how Wells-Barnett and her husband mounted a bold opposition to the machinations of Washington despite facing reprisals. In addition, it addresses how Wells-Barnett supported W. E. B. Du Bois when he took his radical stance against Washington in The Souls of Black Folk. Furthermore, the National Afro-American Council is identified as a key battleground for the conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington. This paper uses a mixed methods approach to trace out the controversial conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington.

Introduction
Within the Black experience of the United States of America (USA), there have been a number of conflicts between individuals centered around ideology and/or personality issues. There was a conflict between W. E. B. Du Bois and Booker T. Washington. It centered around ideological differences between Du Bois and Washington with regard to political nationalism. Du Bois took the position that Black people should engage in political nationalism, economic nationalism, and cultural nationalism. He felt that it was imperative for Black people to wage a struggle for equal rights and social justice in the USA. In contrast, Washington took the position that Black people should engage in economic nationalism, but not political nationalism. To curry favor with the White population, Washington encouraged Black people to give up the right to vote. Washington also took very little action to support cultural nationalism and cultural pluralism.

Another key conflict occurred between W. E. B. Du Bois and Marcus Garvey. As was the case with Washington, the ideological differences between Du Bois and Garvey centered around political nationalism. Garvey (1922) took the position that Black people should abandon political nationalism in this land because he said that, “America is a white man’s country” (p. 1). Instead of engaging in racial solidarity and collective behavior around political matters like the right to vote in the USA, Garvey posed that Black people should abandon the USA and take flight to Africa. The position of Garvey on political nationalism was applauded by the Ku Klux Klan. However, Garvey, like Du Bois, was a strong advocate of economic nationalism and cultural nationalism in the USA. Garvey’s Universal Negro Improvement Association (UNIA) encouraged Black people to engage in racial solidarity and collective behavior around economic matters and cultural matters.

The great irony of the conflict between Du Bois and Garvey is that both were proponents of Pan-Africanism. The social phenomenon of Pan-Africanism involves an international form of Black nationalism, which includes racial solidarity and collective behavior around political matters, economic matters, and cultural matters. Both supported the notion that Black people should fight for the liberation of Africa from the economic, cultural, and political domination of White people. Du Bois and Garvey are
on record for opposing the perpetuation of economic imperialism and cultural imperialism. Likewise, Du Bois and Garvey are on record for supporting the idea that Africans have the right to self-determination, including the formation of independent nation-states. The key difference between their two positions on Pan-Africanism is that Du Bois wanted Black people to fight for the right to vote and social justice within the USA and Garvey did not. Following Du Bois, social scientist Gerald Horne has warned us that, “If you want to protect your economic interests, you must have a political arm.”

This paper will analyze the conflict between Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Booker T. Washington as a forgotten chapter in the Black experience. It will argue that Wells-Barnett was a titan of a forgotten radicalism and progressive feminism. As a radical and a progressive feminist, Wells-Barnett advocated racial solidarity and collective behavior around economic, cultural, and political matters. It will also argue that Washington was a titan of a forgotten conservatism and regressive elitism. Washington, as a conservative and regressive elitist, advocated economic nationalism, but not political nationalism and cultural nationalism. With regard to that context, this paper will present an analysis of the conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington. In terms of the conflict, this paper will examine how Wells-Barnett and her husband Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr. were undermined by Washington for daring to oppose the social policies advocated by the Tuskegee Machine. This paper will also examine how Wells-Barnett and her husband mounted a bold opposition to the machinations of Washington despite facing reprisals. In addition, it will address how Wells-Barnett supported W. E. B. Du Bois when he took his radical stance against Washington in The Souls of Black Folk. Furthermore, the National Afro-American Council is identified as a key battleground for the conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington.

A mixed methods approach is used in this paper to trace out the controversial conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington. The methodological approach included observation (aka direct observation) and the case study. The research techniques involved content analysis of primary and secondary source documents. The research techniques also involved personal communication with staff at the archives of the University of Chicago and Tuskegee University, and the collection of visual images through digital photography.

**The Forgotten Radicalism and Progressive Feminism of Wells-Barnett**

Ida B. Wells-Barnett was a formerly enslaved person who became a national figure as a result of an 1884 lawsuit she filed against the Chesapeake, Ohio and Southwestern Railroad. She charged the railroad company with racial discrimination for being forced out of the first-class section and thrown off a train. Initially, Wells-Barnett won her case in a lower court. That event made her a relatively famous woman (“A Darky Damsel,” 1884a). However, Wells-Barnett eventually lost the case three years later as the result of an appeal by the railroad company to the Tennessee State Supreme Court (“Chesapeake,” 1887).

As opposed to Booker T. Washington, Wells-Barnett accepted the agitation and protest tradition of Frederick Douglass. Like Douglass and W. E. B. Du Bois, Wells-Barnett believed that Black people should wage a struggle for equal rights in the USA against the proponents of White supremacy. She shared the view of Douglass and made a conscious decision to wage struggle against the White supremacists. She encouraged Black people to fight for equal rights and said that they should reject second-class citizenship. Wells-Barnett took the position that the Black masses should have access to liberal arts education and industrial arts education. She also took the position that females should be treated equally to males. In her diary, pamphlets, speeches, and essays, Wells-Barnett delivered this message.

Wells-Barnett lived from 1862 to 1931. Before she died in 1931, Wells-Barnett became a prominent teacher, journalist, and newspaper publisher. Wells-Barnett also became a sociologist, political activist, civil rights activist, settlement house founder, and social movement leader. Some organizations founded or co-founded by Ida B. Wells-Barnett include the Ida B. Wells Club (1893); London Anti-lynching Committee (1894); National Association of Colored Women (1896); Frederick Douglass Center (1904); Negro Fellowship League (1908); NAACP (1909); and Alpha Suffrage Club (1913). With the help of the Black media and White media, her name became well-known in this country and abroad. To help spread the word about lynching in the USA, she made two trips to Great Britain (Wells-Barnett, 1970; Duster, 2010). Wells-Barnett appeared before large crowds who expressed gratitude for the information she disseminated about lynching.
The Forgotten Conservatism and Regressive Elitism of Washington

As a formerly enslaved person, Booker T. Washington became a national figure as a result of his famous Atlanta Compromise Speech. Before a predominately White audience, Washington said that he was an advocate of Black people giving up the right to vote and accepting the color line policy in the form of de jure segregation and de facto segregation. Unlike Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Washington rejected the agitation and protest tradition of Frederick Douglass. In the case of Douglass, he said that Black people should wage a struggle for equal rights in the USA against the proponents of White supremacy (Washington, 1901; Douglass, 1881; Wells-Barnett, 1970; Du Bois, 1903).

Washington did not share the view of Douglass. He made a conscious decision to accommodate himself to White supremacists. Instead of encouraging Black people to fight for equal rights, Washington said that they should accept second-class citizenship. Washington also said that the Black masses should reject liberal arts education in favor of industrial arts education (Washington, 1901; Du Bois, 1903). Evidently, Washington took the position that the Black masses should do as he said, not as he did. For example, Washington sent his daughter Portia Washington to Wellesley College, an elite, predominately White female college where she focused her studies on a liberal arts education with a focus on English, German and French literature (“Booker T. Washington’s Daughter,” 1901, p. 2). He also sent his son Booker T. Washington, Jr. to Fisk University and son Ernest Davidson Washington to Oberlin for a liberal arts education. Nevertheless, in books, speeches, and essays, Washington advocated that the Black masses should avoid the very thing he was providing to his own children (Harlan, 1983).

Washington, who lived from 1856 to 1915, became a prominent teacher, principal, and orator. He also became an adviser to presidents of the USA, newspaper publisher, writer, college founder and leader, and social movement leader. Some organizations or initiatives founded or co-founded by Washington include Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute (1881); Tuskegee Negro Conference, aka Farmers’ Conference and Workers’ Conference (1892); and the Negro Business League (1900). Washington’s name was known in this country and abroad because of the White media. They saw Washington as a “safe Negro” who would do their beckoning (Recken, 2008, p. 54).

As a general rule, Washington was cheered by the White media when he advocated Black disenfranchisement. Likewise, the elite of the White media cheered on Washington when he suggested that anybody without property should denied the right to vote. Whereas the White conservatives and Black conservatives cheered on his regressive elitism, Black progressives became increasingly alarmed. They expressed shock as Washington became more and more conservative between 1895 and 1903. From time to time, Washington did issue a public denunciation of lynching (Harlan, 1972a, 1983; Recken, 2008).

Under pressure from the radical wing of the National Afro-American Council, Washington (1899b) broke his silence on lynching and issued a statement wherein he asked White Southerners to stop the brutal practice. Washington pointed out that “lynching was instituted some years ago with the idea of punishing and checking outrage upon women” (p. 7). Based on his analysis of what he called the “cold facts,” Washington concluded that four-fifths of the victims of lynching had nothing to do with insulting women (e.g., rape charges). Instead, Washington noted that they were accused of murder, rioting, incendiaryism, robbery, larceny, self-defense, alleged stock poisoning, malpractice, alleged barn burning, suspected robbery, race prejudice, attempted murder, horse stealing, mistaken identity, etc. He also noted that White people were being lynched, too. In addition, the conservative Washington surmised that lynching injured the moral sensibility of White people and that Black people needed to reduce their criminal behavior.

Following the publication of The Souls of Black Folk by Du Bois (1903), Washington felt compelled once again to issue a public denunciation of lynching as an evil practice. Some five years after his first open letter, Washington (1904) issued a second one regarding lynching. In that second letter, Washington made a protest against lynching. He also complained about the lack of trials for Black people accused of murder and other offenses in the South. Instead of a trial, Washington lamented that those Black people faced a lynching by a White mob. Washington requested that ministers and the corporate press speak out against the mob violence in the form of a lynching. He complained that:
Within the last fortnight three members of my race have been burned at the stake; of these one was a woman. Not one of the three was charged with any crime even remotely connected with the abuse of a white woman. In every case murder was the sole accusation. All of these burnings took place in broad daylight and two of them occurred on Sunday afternoon in sight of a Christian church. (p. 2)

Washington added:

If the law is disregarded when a Negro is concerned, it will soon be disregarded when a white man is concerned; and, besides, the rule of the mob destroys the friendly relations which should exist between the races and injures and interferes with the material prosperity of the communities concerned. (p. 2)

In this particular letter, Washington was making the case that every person deserves a trial no matter what type of crime a person has committed. With that position, his ideas lined up more closely with those of Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., and W. E. B. Du Bois. Nevertheless, Washington continued his tendency to blame the Black victims rather than the White lynchers after terrible physical assaults.

The Battle Between the Radicals and Conservatives in the National Afro-American Council

From 1898 to 1907, the National Afro-American Council became the setting for a battle between radicals and conservatives. The radicals held the president position in the organization in 1898-1899, 1899-1900, 1900-1901, 1901-1902, 1905-1906, and 1906-1907. During those years, Alexander Walters, a bishop in the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, served as the president. The conservatives gained control of the president position in 1902-1903, 1903-1904, and 1904-1905. T. Thomas Fortune, a former radical turned conservative and close friend of Booker T. Washington, held the president position in the organization during those years. However, it should be noted that Fortune resigned the position in 1904 and was replaced by another conservative, namely William Henry Steward. In the case of the conservative William Henry Steward, he was defeated in a re-election campaign for the organization’s presidential post by the radical Alexander Walters.

In her autobiography, Wells-Barnett (1970) has provided important details about the battle which took place between the radicals and conservatives in the National Afro-American Council. She has explained that the battle between the radicals and conservatives emerged at the very first meeting of the National Afro-American Council in Washington. Wells-Barnett noted that T. Thomas Fortune, a major functionary in the Tuskegee Machine, had issued the call for the meeting, but exhibited a “pugnacious attitude” and “spent more time trying to point out the shortcomings of the race than in encouraging us to unite” (p. 256). For that reason, Wells-Barnett found him to be unacceptable to be at the head of the fledging organization. She reported:

When we returned to the afternoon service, the nominating committee which had been appointed in the morning brought in a report making Mr. Fortune permanent chairman. When the motion was put to adopt the committee report I halted it. I called attention to the fact that Mr. Fortune had said in his morning address that he had no confidence in the race’s ability to unite its forces in its own behalf and that he for one was through making sacrifices in its behalf. I wished to know if he planned to accept the presidency of this organization after having made such a declaration. He arose and answered that he did mean what he had said in the morning—that he did not have any confidence in the race’s support and that he declined to accept the presidency. It seems very clear, notwithstanding his declaration, that if I had not asked those pertinent questions he would have permitted himself to be elected president of an organization in which he had no confidence. (pp. 255-256)
In her view, Wells-Barnett had stopped a member of the Tuskegee Machine from ascending to the organization’s top position.

Wells-Barnett (1970) went into battle mode at the first meeting of the National Afro-Council and emerged the victor in an important skirmish. Instead of Fortune taking the top position, it went to an important ally of Wells-Barnett. She related:

Someone immediately nominated Bishop Alexander Walters of the AME Zion Church to be president in his stead. That motion prevailed and Bishop Walters became president of what was known as the Afro-American Council. Your humble servant was made secretary. (p. 256)

Like Wells-Barnett, Walters was a member of the radical camp in the National Afro-American Council. Walters (1917) was a leader who urged Black people to wage struggle against lynching and wrote in his autobiography that “the party of Lincoln had sold us out in 1876 in order to secure the presidency” (p. 95).

In November 1898, White people in Wilmington, North Carolina engaged in a brutal attack upon Black people in that city which left dozens, if not hundreds, dead. A Georgia White woman named Rebecca Felton had given a widely reprinted speech in Tybee, Georgia urging White people to lynch Black people to put the latter in their places. Alex Manly, a Wilmington Black man and editor of the Wilmington Daily Record, responded with an editorial denouncing Felton’s speech. The White press reprinted the editorial of Manly and used it to fuel longstanding White resentment to Black success. Soon afterwards, White terrorists in organizations like the Rough Riders, Red Shirts, and Ku Klux Klan began to terrorize Black people in various places, including Wilmington. On November 10, 1898, thousands of White terrorists assaulted the office of Manly and began to kill Black people. The White terrorists achieved the objectives of (1) forcing Manly to leave the city or die, and (2) destroying Black political power on the eve of an election (Giddings, 2008).

Giddings (2008) has pointed out that the National Afro-American Council responded to the crisis in Wilmington by calling an emergency meeting held during December 1898 in Washington, DC. Wells-Barnett was one of the members of the National Afro-American Council who made it there. At the emergency meeting, Wells-Barnett presented an address titled “Mob Violence and Anarchy, North and South.” In her speech, Wells-Barnett blasted William McKinley, the president of the USA, and Booker T. Washington. She charged that McKinley had ignored the rights of Black people and spent too much time decorating Confederate graves. Wells-Barnett asserted that Washington “made a big mistake in imaging that black people could gain their rights merely by making themselves factors in industrial life” (quoted in Giddings, p. 403). There was a split in the conservative camp at the Washington, DC meeting. Henry Cheatham, the recorder of deeds, opposed the criticism of McKinley, but T. Thomas Fortune felt compelled at the time to support such criticism. Giddings has informed us that Fortune even authored the resolution criticizing McKinley.

When she wrote about the Washington, DC emergency meeting, Wells-Barnett (1970) was relatively brief. She explained that the emergency meeting had attracted a large gathering. Wells-Barnett also related that there were “very strong resolutions passed condemning the president of the United States for ignoring that terrible affair” (p. 257). She continued:

Strange to say, there was objection to the passage of this resolution, and it finally developed that the president had been advised by some of the so-called leaders of the Negro race whom he had called into consultation to make no reference to the affair. When the Afro-American Council adjourned not only the president of the United States but the entire country knew that the men who had so advised him did not represent the best thought of the race. (pp. 257-258)

Wells-Barnett did not mention Washington by name, but it is clear that she lumped him into the so-called leaders category. In December 1898, McKinley made a speech at Tuskegee Institute and failed to mention or condemn the atrocities in Wilmington. Washington (1973a) had advised McKinley in a letter
written on November 27, 1898 to encourage “colored people to get education, property, and character, as a basis of citizenship” (p. 521). He also advised McKinley to urge that “both races be moderate, reasonable, self-controlled and live on friendly terms” (p. 521).

As Wells-Barnett (1970) has noted, there was a showdown between the radicals and conservatives over Booker T. Washington at the 1899 National Afro-American Council in Chicago. Although his functionaries in the conservative camp attended the meeting, Washington declined to do so. However, he was in Chicago during the meeting of the National Afro-American Council, but would only meet privately with Alexander Walters. Margaret Murray Washington was one of the conservative functionaries who attended the meeting of the National Afro-American Council. Upon being invited to make a presentation, Margaret Murray Washington declined and stated that she took exception to her husband being verbally attacked. Wells-Barnett said that she was surprised by the statement of Margaret Murray Washington. With regard to that incident in Chicago, Wells-Barnett (1970) wrote:

The Afro-American Council had not made any attack upon Booker T. Washington, but a statement had been made in the meeting referred to that Bishop Walters, our president, had gone from the meeting to the Palmer House to confer with Mr. Washington. Some delegate then rose and asked why the president of our meeting had to go to the Palmer House to confer with Mr. Washington for a secret conference and why Mr. Washington would not appear in our meeting. The speaker went on to state that he had been informed that Mr. Washington had been sent to Chicago to hold the Afro-American Council in check so that no expression against the president of the United States would emanate therefrom, as it had done in Washington the winter before. (pp. 261-262)

Although Walters told Margaret Murray Washington that those were the facts of the matter, the situation did not go away. Wells-Barnett has pointed out that a local reporter at the event wrote a report for the Chicago Journal wherein he stated that Booker T. Washington and Margaret Murray Washington had been attacked.

During the time of the 1899 National Afro-American Council meeting in Chicago, W. E. B. Du Bois was in the process of making the transition from conservative to radical. Wells-Barnett (1970) recalled that it was Du Bois who called for Booker T. Washington to be given the benefit of the doubt during a crucial session. Earlier that year, Sam Hose was the victim of a lynching which had taken place in Georgia. As was the case with many other radicals in the National Afro-American Council, Wells-Barnett found herself in an uproar about the matter. The lynching of Sam Hose became a wedge issue in the National Afro-American Council between the radicals and conservatives. On the one hand, the radicals wanted the organization to issue a statement condemning the dastardly deed. On the other hand, the conservatives wanted the organization to appease Washington by maintaining his customary style of silence on the issue of lynching (McMurray, 1998; Giddings, 2008).

Eventually, the National Afro-American Council, Wells-Barnett, and Washington released statements about the lynching of Sam Hose. The National Afro-American Council issued a statement calling for White politicians and White court officials to protect the rights of Black people. Wells-Barnett released Lynch Law in Georgia, a pamphlet with a focus on Hose’s ordeal. As mentioned above, under the pressure of the radicals, Washington released a statement. Washington (1899) posed that lynching was hurting the growth of the South; that crimes by Black people were widespread; and that Black people needed to condemn “any beast in human form guilty of assaulting a woman” (p. 7). Wells-Barnett took strong exception to Washington’s statement and began to criticize him in a public fashion by September 1899. Earlier that year, in January 1899, Wells-Barnett had praised Washington during a Boston speech she gave at a pro-Washington rally. That same month, Washington praised her during a New York speech he gave. However, the Sam Hose lynching changed that situation (McMurray, 1998; Giddings, 2008).

Nevertheless, as the social conditions for Black people worsened, Wells-Barnett became more radical and Washington became more conservative. Following the Sam Hose lynching, Wells-Barnett began to criticize Washington in print. In a September 25, 1899 letter to Washington, Timothy Thomas Fortune
(1976) felt compelled to inform him that Ida B. Wells-Barnett “has just written me a sassy letter complaining about the cutting out of her disparaging reference to you in her Chicago letter. Peterson however did the cutting. She is a sort of bull in a China Shop” (p. 220). By July 1900, Wells-Barnett was in full force against Washington and his social policies. During that month, Wells-Barnett wrote an editorial for the Chicago Conservator and charged that Washington “will not go anywhere or do anything unless he is ‘the whole thing’” (Quoted in Harlan and Smock, 1976, p. 589).

In the aftermath of the lynching of Sam Hose, Du Bois moved toward the radical camp and away from the conservative camp. Four years later, Du Bois released his landmark book which was welcomed with open arms by radicals like Ida B. Wells-Barnett and her husband Ferdinand L. Barnett. Shortly after the book was released, Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Ferdinand L. Barnett attended a gathering of Black people and White people at the home of Celia Parker Wooley, a White woman who happened to be a liberal and the founder of the Frederick Douglass Center. The expressed purpose of the gathering was to discuss the The Souls of Black Folk. In addition to Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Ferdinand L. Barnett, the other four Black people present at the gathering were Charles E. Bentley and his wife Florence Bentley, and S. Laing Williams and his wife Fannie Barrier Williams (Wells-Barnett, 1970).

According to Wells-Barnett (1970), most of the discussion focused on the chapter titled “Of Mr. Booker T. Washington and Others.” She has related that:

Most of those present, including four of the six colored persons, united in condemning Mr. Du Bois’s views. The Barnetts stood almost alone in approving them and proceeded to show why. We saw, as perhaps never before, that Mr. Washington’s views on industrial education had become an obsession with the white people of this country. We thought it was up to us show them the sophistry of the reasoning that any one system of education could fit the needs of an entire race; that to sneer at and discourage higher education would mean to rob the race of leaders which it so badly needed; and that all the industrial education in the world could not take the place of manhood. We had a warm session but came away feeling that we had given them an entirely new view of the situation. (pp. 280-281)

At the gathering in the home of Celia Parker Wooley, Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Ferdinand L. Barnett made it very clear that they supported the positions laid out by Du Bois in The Souls of Black Folk. It was the first time they had done so, but not the last. On May 30, 1903, Wells-Barnett sent W. E. B. Du Bois a letter. She informed him about the discussion of his book in Wooley’s home and about her plans to hold a similar discussion in her home during June to support the book. Wells-Barnett implied that the gathering in her home would be all-Black—unlike the gathering in Wooley’s home. In the manner of a mentor, she also urged Du Bois to send a letter of acknowledgement to Celia Parker Wooley about her autobiography The Western Slope and to get into contact with Jane Addams (Wells-Barnett, 1973).

The next year, Wells-Barnett (1904) published an article titled “Booker T. Washington and His Critics.” In her article, Wells-Barnett posed that there was a critical mass of Black people during his lifetime who criticized the accommodationist social policies advocated by Booker T. Washington. Although she did not name them, such people included Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., W. Calvin Chase, W. E. B. Du Bois, Reverdy C. Ransom, Monroe Trotter, Henry Turner, and Alexander Walters. Of course, those Black people were deeply involved in the affairs of the progressive wing of the National Afro-American Council. Wells-Barnett charged that Washington’s accommodationist social policies resulted in the following three things: (1) a growing prejudice in northern institutions of learning against the admission of Black students; (2) a contracting of the number and influence of the schools of higher learning so judiciously scattered through all the southern states by the missionary associations for Black people’s so-called benefit; (3) the lack of a corresponding growth of industrial schools to take their place; and (4) a cutting down of the curriculum for Black children in the public schools of the large cities of the South, few of which had ever provided high schools for the Black race.

Wells-Barnett (1904) noted that Tuskegee was the only endowed institution for Black people in the South, but could not accommodate even one-hundredth part of the Black youth in need of education.
Like Du Bois, Wells-Barnett took the position that Black people should take a both/and approach to a liberal arts education and an industrial arts education rather than an either/or approach. Wells-Barnett related that White capitalists like Collis P. Huntington were giving financial support to the efforts of Booker T. Washington to promote an industrial arts education over a liberal arts education. In her view, the industrial arts education advocated by Washington was nothing more than manual training instead of a college education. Wells-Barnett wrote:

"Mr. Washington’s reply to his critics is that he does not oppose the higher education, and offers in proof of this statement his Negro faculty. But the critics observe that nowhere does he speak for it, and they can remember dozens of instances when he has condemned every system of education save that which teaches the Negro how to work. They feel that the educational opportunities of the masses, always limited enough, are being threatened by this retrogression. And it is this feeling which prompts the criticism. They are beginning to feel that if they longer keep silent, Negro educational advantages will be even more restricted in all directions. (p. 520)"

For Wells-Barnett, Washington’s accommodationist social policies, which she called retrogression were, in fact, regression of the highest order.

Looking further at Washington, Wells-Barnett (1904) took the position that his critics were well aware that he was sacrificing the civil rights of Black people in order to get money from powerful White people.

"The demand from this class of Negroes is growing that if Mr. Washington can not use his great abilities and influence to speak in defense of and demand for the rights withheld when discussing the Negro question, for fear of injury to his school by those who are intolerant of Negro manhood, then he should be just as unwilling to injure his race for the benefit of his school. They demand that he refrain from assuming to solve a problem which is too big to be settled within the narrow confines of a single system of education. (p. 521)"

Elsewhere in the same article, Wells-Barnett remarked:

"Does this mean that the Negro objects to industrial education? By no means. It simply means that he knows by sad experience that industrial education will not stand him in place of political, evil and intellectual liberty, and he objects to being deprived of fundamental rights of American citizenship to the end that one school for industrial training shall flourish. To him it seems like selling a race’s birthright for a mess of pottage. (p. 521)."

Wells-Barnett and the other critics clearly took the position that, for the Black masses, there should be a both/and approach rather than an either/or approach to a liberal arts education versus an industrial arts education.

In addition to the issue of education, Wells-Barnett (1904) mentioned lynching and Black disenfranchisement in relation to Washington’s accommodationist social policies. With regard to Washington’s stance on lynching, she wrote:

"Mr. Washington says in substance: Give me money to educate the Negro and when he is taught how to work, he will not commit the crime for which lynching is done. Mr. Washington knows when he says this that lynching is not invoked to punish crime but color, and not even industrial education will change that. (p. 520)"

In terms of Washington and Black disenfranchisement, Wells-Barnett stated:
There are many who can never be made to feel that it was a mistake thirty years ago to give the unlettered freedman the franchise, their only weapon of defense, any more than it is a mistake to have fire for cooking and heating purposes in the home, because ignorant or careless servants sometimes burn themselves. The thinking Negro knows it is still less a mistake to-day when the race has had thirty years of training for citizenship. It is indeed a bitter pill to feel that much of the unanimity with which the nation to-day agrees to Negro disfranchisement comes from the general acceptance of Mr. Washington’s theories. (pp. 520-521)

She also blasted Booker T. Washington for using jokes during his public speeches that made fun of Black people to appease White people. Washington did not respond directly to Wells-Barnett, but he did engage in a secret campaign to try and destroy Wells-Barnett and her husband. There are letters in the Booker T. Washington Papers at the Library of Congress that make his actions very clear.

On the one hand, there are letters from Washington to his followers instructing them to attack or spy on Wells-Barnett and her husband Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr. as targets. Two letters written by Washington (1977, 1979) indicate that he used Charles William Anderson to spy on Wells-Barnett, Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., W. E. B. Du Bois, and others. For example, a June 16, 1904 letter written by Washington (1977) provides direct evidence that he used Charles William Anderson as a spy in the North and sent him to sabotage the activities of Wells-Barnett and her husband. With regard to the Negro Bureau of the Republican Party, Washington wrote:

Barnett and his wife who had it during the last two campaigns will want it again, but we must defeat Barnett if possible; he is a regular sneak. During the last two years of the Presidential campaign he and his wife spent their time and effort in stirring up the colored people and embittering them against the President, and the last few months of the term they spent their time in trying to prove their loyalty to the powers that be. Both Barnett and his wife abused McKinley shamefully during the first part of his administration and they did the same thing in regard to President Roosevelt, and in both cases at the proper time they laid low and proclaimed themselves loyal supporters of the administration. The time has come when such treachery should be punished as it ought to be. I rather think that Denan will have a good deal to say as to who shall be recognized in Chicago. The situation is a little complicated because Barnett is one of the assistants in his office, but I think there are other colored men in Chicago who have more influence than he has. (p. 533)

As Washington noted, Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr. had served two four-year terms at the helm of the Negro Bureau of the Republican Party. Washington wanted Barnett out of the position.

The following month, on July 21, 1904, Washington (1979) directed Anderson to tell George Bruce Cortelyou, a White man in the President Theodore Roosevelt’s administration, about the political activities of Wells-Barnett and her husband. Washington stated:

There is one thing which perhaps you omitted to inform Mr. Cortelyou about, and that is the fact that Barnett during the first part of McKinley’s term did all he could to prejudice the colored people against the administration and only came around to support him and his policy toward the end of his administration when he wanted to get hold of the campaign. He did the same thing in regard to Mr. Roosevelt. He and his wife were most bitter during the first year of Mr. Roosevelt’s administration. At some time, in the proper manner, Mr. Cortelyou should know all this. (p. 25)

In both letters, Washington told Anderson to take harmful action against Wells-Barnett and her husband. Washington sought to make things as difficult as possible for Wells-Barnett and her husband.

On the other hand, there are letters written to Washington by members of the Tuskegee Machine that show they followed his instructions to attack or spy on Wells-Barnett and Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., W. E.
B. Du Bois, and others. This is especially true of Charles William Anderson. Two of Charles William Anderson’s (1981a, 1981b) letters indicate that he embraced the role that Washington gave him to spy on Wells-Barnett, Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., and W. E. B. Du Bois. Anderson (1981b) reported to Washington in a letter dated May 31, 1909 that: “Du Bois, Waldron, Walters, Sinclair, Max Barber, Wibecan, Dr Mossell[,] Bulkley, Milholland[,] Ida Wells, and entire cosmopolitan dinner crowd in Secret conference to-day. Public meeting to-night have had newspapers cover it another secret session to-morrow. Think Villard is with them” (p. 127). During the previous day, on May 30, 1909, Anderson (1981a) sent another letter to Washington and informed him that he sabotaged a big public testimonial in honor of Du Bois. Anderson wrote: “I am doing all I can to discredit this affair. I think I have succeeded in defeating the dinner project to Du Bois, by asking all of my friends and yours not to subscribe to it. They will either have to drop it, or give him a small private dinner” (p. 127). Anderson added: “I feel confident that a big public testimonial, such as was planned, cannot be pulled off” (p. 127).

Like Anderson, Emmett J. Scott was a follower of Washington who saw Wells-Barnett, Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., and other progressives as targets who needed to be neutralized. As was the case with Anderson, Scott took delight in his role to sabotage and block the efforts of Wells-Barnett, her husband, and other progressives. Following the 1901 meeting of the National Afro-American Council, Scott (1977) wrote an August 13, 1901 letter to Washington wherein he bragged that, “I found the Convention most sympathetic in our direction. I am glad Mrs. Barnett was not there to complicate the situation” (p. 186). Scott wrote that Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr., without the presence of his wife, even issued faint praise for Washington as a “matchless orator & wise leader” (p. 186). Scott also noted to Washington that, “I am to be Chairman of the Business Bureau and am to bring the Business League & the Council into affiliation in promoting the business features of the organization” (p. 186). Some three years later, on July 12, 1904, Scott (1979) sent a letter to Washington which provides important verification about the latter’s plan to sabotage the activities of Wells-Barnett and her husband. In his letter, Scott praised the Tuskegee Machine in its “effort to block Barnett and his wife” (p. 16). The animosity of Washington and the Tuskegee Machine towards Wells-Barnett seems to have continued up to his death. In a letter he wrote to Emmett J. Scott on January 16, 1914, which was just over year before his death, Washington (1982) expressed delight that Wells-Barnett, Monroe Trotter, and Henry Mossell were no longer in the NAACP. He also reported that factions had developed in the NAACP and that “Villard and Du Bois do not speak to each other” (p. 417).

In addition to Anderson and Scott, Washington used members of the Tuskegee Machine like Cornelius Bailey Hosmer and Edward Elder Cooper to spy on Wells-Barnett or block them as an enemy. An April 20, 1912 letter written by Hosmer (1981) demonstrates his spying activity and how members of the Tuskegee Machine saw Ida B. Wells-Barnett as an enemy of their cause. In a report to Emmett J. Scott, Hosmer declared that, “I have heard Mrs. Ida-Wells-Barrett speak to her followers lately. Her talks bespeak jealousy at the influence of Dr. Washington, at the growth and importance of the Local and national Negro Business League, as well as at the success of the Chicago Negro Y.M.C.A. And so it goes” (p. 524). A November 25, 1903 letter written by Cooper (1977), another spy for Washington, also shows that members of the Tuskegee Machine saw Wells-Barnett and Du Bois as the enemy of their cause. Cooper called William M. Turner, a Memphis correspondent for his newspaper known as The Colored American, “a fourth edition of Ida B. Wells” and “a great admirer of Prof. Du Bois” (p. 352). He bragged that he cut out all of the poison in an article by Turner that “made several thrusts” at Washington (p. 352).

**Summary and Conclusion**

This paper analyzed the conflict between Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Booker T. Washington as a forgotten episode in the Black struggle for civil rights in the USA. It argued that Wells-Barnett was a titan of a forgotten radicalism and progressive feminism. It also argued that Washington was a titan of a forgotten conservatism and regressive elitism. With regard to that context, this paper presented an analysis of the conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington. In terms of the conflict, this paper examined how Wells-Barnett and her husband Ferdinand L. Barnett, Sr. were undermined by Washington for daring to oppose the social policies advocated by the Tuskegee Machine; how Wells-Barnett and her husband mounted a bold opposition to the machinations of Washington despite facing reprisals; and how
Wells-Barnett supported W. E. B. Du Bois when he took his radical stance against Washington in *The Souls of Black Folk*. The National Afro-American Council was identified as a key battleground for the conflict between Wells-Barnett and Washington.

Shortly before the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision was issued by the Supreme Court, Frazier (1953) published an important paper titled “Theoretical Structure of Sociology and Sociological Research.” Among other things in his paper, Frazier argued that it is necessary to study social attitudes (i.e., ideas) in the context of a system of social relations. He also argued that one must take into account the social context in which ideas are formed and treat them in reference to their organic relation to the social situation. Frazier proceeded to describe the social conditions faced by Black people during the nadir. He explained how White Southern demagogues used the ideology of White supremacy to gain political power. Frazier wrote:

In order to gain political power, they sought the support of the wealthy as well as the poor whites. First, they offered no threat to the economic interests and political power of the planters and industrial capitalists. Secondly, they convinced the poor whites that their condition was due to the presence of the Negro. Therefore, they proposed and carried through legislation which accomplished the following: (1) the disfranchisement of the Negro; (2) the public school funds which were appropriated on a per capita basis of children of school age were diverted from Negro to white schools (until then white and Negro children received the same per capita appropriation and white and Negro teachers the same salaries); and (3) the establishment of a legalized system of racial segregation designed to maintain the social and economic subordination of the Negro. In order to justify this programme before the nation, the demagogues with the support of planters and capitalists carried on a propaganda campaign for a quarter of a century against the Negro. This propaganda aimed to prove that the Negro was subhuman, morally degenerate and incapable of intellectual development. Therefore, an adequate sociological analysis of racial attitudes in the South cannot ignore the role of propaganda and the deliberate inculcation of racial prejudices. (p. 7)

Unlike Wells-Barnett, Washington made a decision to accommodate White supremacists by accepting second-class citizenship for Black people. When he gave speeches to predominately White audiences, Washington would often tell minstrel-type jokes that were designed to make White people laugh at Black people. Many Black people like Wells-Barnett and Trotter found his jokes to be offensive to Black people.

In the second part of his paper, Frazier (1953) outlined the role that Washington played in his acquiescence to White supremacists and White capitalists. He explained:

In the southern part of the United States where the Negroes were disenfranchised, it was necessary to set up an informal and extra-legal system of social control which was essentially political in character and had much in common with a system of “indirect rule.” In the Southern States, Booker T. Washington was the accepted spokesman for the Negro and practically dictated the appointment of Negro educators and other leaders to positions of responsibility within the Negro communities. Even on the national scene his authority represented a type of indirect rule in that he dictated the few political appointments which Negroes received at the time. Likewise, the activities of the philanthropic foundations which devoted themselves to the welfare of the Negroes may be placed in the same category. In distributing funds for education and welfare, the various foundations selected certain Negroes for leadership and these leaders played a predominant role in maintaining control within Negro communities. (p. 12)
Frazier understood clearly that Washington was one of the first of his types to emerge, but not the last. He argued that White supremacists and White capitalists created people like Washington to play a role in the social control of Black people.

The Black population in the USA managed to respond to White supremacy and White capitalists by developing another type of leader who was bold and uncompromising in the Black struggle for civil rights. Instead of telling White supremacists and White capitalists what they wanted to hear, this type of leader was willing to speak truth to power. Wells-Barnett fell into the category of being a type of leader who was willing to speak truth to power. Whereas Washington deserves to be remembered as a titan of a forgotten conservatism and regressive elitism, Wells-Barnett deserves to be remembered as a titan of a forgotten radicalism and progressive feminism. The conflict they had also deserves to be remembered.

Notes
1. It should be noted that Washington was strongly influenced by the position of Samuel Chapman Armstrong on assimilation. In one part of *Up From Slavery*, Washington (1901) said that Armstrong “was a great man—the noblest, rarest human being that it has been my privilege to meet” (p. 54). He stated in another part of *Up From Slavery* that Armstrong “was, in my opinion, the rarest, strongest, and most beautiful character that it has been my privilege to meet” (p. 73). However, Washington, to his own credit, had a high regard for the Negro Spirituals, which Du Bois (1903) referred to as the Sorrow Songs. Like Du Bois, Washington believed that Black people should embrace and hold on to the Negro Spirituals instead of rejecting them, as Harlan (1972a) pointed out. Further, see Cromartie (2008a, 2008b) for a discussion of a typology of Black nationalism with these three dimensions: economic nationalism, cultural nationalism, and political nationalism.

2. Gerald Horne made this statement during an interview with Wilmer Leon. It took place on September 6, 2014 and was broadcasted on the Sirius/XM Satellite Radio Channel 110 call-in talk radio program known as “Inside the Issues with Wilmer Leon.”

3. The Special Collections Research Center at the University of Chicago Library has digitized both documents and made them available online as part of the Ida B. Wells Papers 1884-1976. See “A Darky Damsel” (1884b) and “Cases” (1887). The Special Collections Research Center at the University of Chicago Library (2009) has prepared a very useful guide to its papers of Wells-Barnett. The guide was published by the Special Collections Research Center at the University of Chicago Library and is available online. On April 2, 2015, I had personal communication with the staff of the Special Collections Research Center when I went there. I also used the guide to select items I wanted to see.

4. It should be noted that DeCosta-Willis (Wells-Barnett, 1995) has posthumously published a very important diary that Wells-Barnett wrote during her stint in Memphis. Likewise, Thompson (1990), Harris (Wells-Barnett, 1991), and Royster (Wells-Barnett, 1997) have published important compilations of the writings of Wells-Barnett. For discussions of the sociological aspects of the writings of Wells-Barnett, see Cromartie (2009a, 2009b, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c, 2013d).

5. For important discussions of Washington’s various activities, see Abramowitz (1968), Boston (2012), Harlan (1971, 1972a, 1983), Harlan and Daniel (1970), Jackson (2009), and James (1968). Some of those writers have sought to revise the image of Washington and make him a secret militant instead of an accommodationist to White supremacy. Further, during his lifetime, Washington bought and published at least two periodicals. One was the *Colored American Magazine*, a Boston-based periodical he acquired in 1904. The second was the *New York Age*, which was a newspaper he took from T. Thomas Fortune in 1907 after they had a conflict over the Brownsville incident. To the dismay of Washington, the former militant (Fortune) found it difficult to refrain from engaging in protest when 167 Black soldiers were discharged from the military with dishonorable discharges after they clashed with White people in Brownsville, Texas. Washington kept his involvement with the *New York Age* secret and placed his stock in the name of Emmett J. Scott. Nevertheless, he closely watched the business and editorial aspects of both periodicals (Harland & Smock, 1976). Williams and Peck (2004) have prepared a very useful guide to the papers of Booker T. Washington in the Tuskegee University Archives Repository. The guide was first written by Daniel T. Williams and published in 1974 by the Tuskegee University Archives and Museums. It was updated by Sandra.
Peck in 2004. The guide has been digitized by the Tuskegee University Archives Repository and made available online. It should be noted that some very important documents related to Booker T. Washington have also been digitized and made available online by the Tuskegee University Archives Repository. On February 12, 2015, I had personal communication with the staff of the Tuskegee University Archives Repository when I went there. I also used the guide to select items I wanted to see.

6. According to Thornbrough (1961), the National Afro-American Council held its meeting in the following years and in the following cities: 1898, Washington, DC; 1899, Chicago, IL; 1900, Indianapolis, IN; 1901, Philadelphia, PA; 1902, St. Paul, MN; 1903, Louisville, KY; 1904, St. Louis, Mo; 1905, Detroit, MI; 1906, New York, NY; and 1907, Baltimore, MD.


8. For some contemporary media reports on the 1899 Chicago meeting and the battle between progressives and conservatives in the National Afro-American Council, see “Attack on the President” (1899); “A Law to Stop Lynching” (1899); and “May Blame the President” (1899). For an important contemporary media report on the 1903 Louisville meeting, see “Negroes Hostile” (1903). That report stated that “much of the hostility shown toward Washington in the Council is due to the charge that he is creating sentiment against the higher education of the negro” (p. 1). Washington delivered an address wherein he seemed to blame lynching on “idleness and crime” among Black people. For Washington, self-defense was not a viable option and he opposed Council members fighting for passage of anti-lynching laws. The progressives took the opposite position in Louisville during 1903 and subsequent meetings. For evidence in the contemporary media that the progressives were advocating the passage of anti-lynching laws and advocating self-defense activities against White supremacists at the 1906 New York meeting, see “Talk of War” (1906).

9. When he was still a conservative in 1895, the youthful Du Bois (1973) sent Washington a letter commending him for his Atlanta Compromise Address.

10. Davidson (2009) has noted that Wells-Barnett had an attitude towards race relations that was relatively close to Washington’s before the lynching of Moss, McDowell, and Stewart. Then, Wells-Barnett discovered through her research that getting ahead could provoke a Black person to be lynched by White people. Wells-Barnett had once held the conviction that “maintenance of character, money getting and education would finally solve our problem, and that it depended on us to say how soon this would be brought about” (Quoted in Davidson, 2009, p. 172). However, that conviction was transformed by the lynching of Moss, McDowell, Stewart, and Sam Hose. On November 30, 1890, Wells-Barnett (1977) wrote a letter to Washington praising him for criticizing the foibles of Black ministers. Wells-Barnett commended Washington for issuing a “manly criticism of our corrupt and ignorant ministry” (p. 108). She also commended him for “condemning the practices of our ministers” (p. 108). That letter showed that the two formerly enslaved people had very similar ideas up to that point. On March 19, 1911, Washington was physically attacked in New York City by Albert Ulrich and several other White men and suffered serious injuries (“White Man Assaults Booker Washington,” 1911). After the physical attack on him, Washington appeared to become more sensitive to the plight of Black people suffering from physical attacks by White people, including lynching. During the final two years of his life, he published a number of letters protesting the brutal treatment of Black people by White people. Whereas he tended to blame Black people for provoking White people tolynch them before 1911, Washington tended to blame White people for lynching Black people after he was beaten in 1911. For example, see (Washington, 1913a, 1913b, 1913c, 1913d, 1914). Also, see (“Spread of Negro Crime,” 1906; “Booker T. Washington’s View,” 1906; “Negro Pastor Doubts Washington’s Loyalty,” (1906); “Mobs Lynched 53 Persons,” 1915; “Dr. Booker T. Washington Protests,” 1915). For a contemporary media report about Washington’s beating, see “White Man Assaults Booker Washington” 1911.

11. For a discussion of Wells-Barnett’s editorial in the Chicago Conservator, see Harlan (1972a) and Harlan and Smock (1976). In her editorial, Wells-Barnett charged that Washington sought to establish the National Negro Business League as an organization wherein he “will be president,
moderator and dictator” (Quoted in Harlan, 1972a, p. 267). Wells-Barnett also stated that Washington “had ample opportunity to suggest plans along business lines and Prof. Du Bois, the most scholarly and one of the most conservative members of the Council, who is chairman of the Business Bureau would have been glad to receive Mr. Washington’s co-operation” (Quoted in Harlan, 1972a, p. 267). In his discussion of Wells-Barnett’s editorial, Harlan (1972a) said that, “According to Du Bois’s complaint some years later, President Walters promised to give him the money, but at an executive committee meeting several months later T. Thomas Fortune killed the appropriation. . . . There is considerable evidence to support Du Bois’s interpretation” (p. 267). Looking back at the emergence of the National Negro Business League, Harlan and Smock (1976) have written: “While it was BTW who developed the National Negro Business League, the idea grew out of the work of Du Bois and others at Atlanta University during the Atlanta Conference of 1899 on the subject of ‘The Negro in Business.’ Du Bois was a member of the committee that drafted a call for the creation of local, state, and national associations of black businessmen. Later that year Du Bois became the director of the Afro-American Council’s Negro business bureau with the responsibility of organizing local business leagues. Du Bois accepted this post with the stipulation that postage money was to be supplied by the council. Several months later, however, BTW’s friend T. Thomas Fortune killed the appropriation of postage funds and Du Bois was unable to carry out his plans. Later BTW asked Du Bois for his list of names, which became part of the base on which BTW built his organization” (p. 526). Harland and Smock continued: “At the Afro-American Council convention held in Indianapolis in Aug. 1900, just a week after BTW had launched the NNBL, Du Bois was not re-elected as director of the Negro business bureau. Emmett J. Scott succeeded Du Bois in the position, thus assuring BTW’s control of activities related to black businessmen in both the NNBL and the Afro-American Council” (p. 526). For an insider account on the development of the Negro Business League, see Washington (1902). See Du Bois (1976) for the important letter he wrote to Washington on May 16, 1900 about a list of business people he had developed because of his interest in economic nationalism. In that letter, Du Bois stated: “My Dear Mr Washington: I shall try & get the list of business men to you in a week or two. I have been very busy” (. 526). Thus, there is ample evidence that (1) it was W. E. B. Du Bois, not Booker T. Washington who first came up with the idea of the Negro Business League, and (2) Booker T. Washington and members of his Tuskegee Machine blocked the efforts of W. E. B. Du Bois and more progressive forces in the National Afro-American Council to develop an effective Negro Business Bureau and effective local business leagues.

12. As Giddings (2008) has noted, there is no record of the reply of Du Bois to Wells-Barnett. There is also no record of any letters to Wooley and Addams in 1903 or 1904. Although the letters have not been located, that does not mean he did not respond. This is significant given that later in the same year Wells-Barnett and her husband joined with the local Equal Opportunity League to sponsor a Chicago lecture by Du Bois. The lecture took place in December 1903.

13. One White capitalist, Andrew Carnegie, has disclosed that he gave Washington money for his own pocket as well as money for Tuskegee Institute. One allocation totaled “my gift of six hundred thousand dollars,” according to Carnegie (1920). Part of the money went to Tuskegee and part of that money went to Washington.

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The Federal Reserve’s Changing Board of Governors

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Introduction
Since its inception in 1913, much of the characterization, discussion and analysis of the Federal Reserve has focused on questions related to its “independence” as a central bank and policy making entity. Realizing that independence is never an absolute, but rather a matter of degree, in what respects and to what degree should a central bank be independent?
The Fed never has been, nor was it ever intended to be, truly independent of government. After all, the U.S. is a democracy, with elected representatives accountable to its citizens. The idea and the ideal remain that the Fed should be free of undue influence from both those inside the government and those outside—from the President and Congress as well as from business, especially banking and the financial sector. However, it is a truism that whatever Congress giveth, Congress can take away. The Federal Reserve is a creature of Congress, meaning that Congress can change the rules under which the Fed operates—and on numerous occasions it has done just that. In the words of Minneapolis Fed economist Bruce MacLaury (1977),

“…let’s be clear on what independence does not mean. It does not mean decisions and actions made without accountability. By law and by established procedures, the System is clearly accountable to congress—not only for its monetary policy actions, but also for its regulatory responsibilities and for services to banks and to the public. Nor does independence mean that monetary policy actions should be free from public discussion and criticism—by members of congress, by professional economists in and out of government, by financial, business, and community leaders, and by informed citizens. Nor does it mean that the Fed is independent of the government….It has a degree of independence within the government—which is quite different from being independent of government. Thus, the Federal Reserve System is more appropriately thought of as being “insulated” from, rather than independent of, political—government and banking—special interest pressures.”

Statutory Provisions for Federal Reserve Independence
The basic structural features intended to insure this independence are covered in virtually every elementary academic treatment of the Federal Reserve. Long, staggered terms, geographic distribution requirements, and reappointment and removal restrictions are aimed at preventing any “stacking” of the Board of Governors. By statute, terms on the Board are 14 years, with new terms beginning on February 1 of even-numbered years. No member may be reappointed to a second full term, and removal of a Governor may be accomplished only “with cause.” It is noteworthy that no Governor has ever been so removed from the Board. Considering that there are seven members of the Board and that the terms are staggered, this means that if each newly appointed Governor were to serve his/her full term, then a one-term President would appoint only two members, and a two-term President would make their fourth appointment only at the beginning of their last year in office. Statute also provides that no two Governors may come from the same Federal Reserve district. Finally, and perhaps most importantly in terms of freedom from political interference, the Fed, unlike other federal agencies, does not have to rely on the good graces of Congress and the President for its operating budget. The Fed recently announced that after
paying all its own operating expenses (including required dividends to member banks) in 2014, it turned over a record $98.7 billion in “profits” to the Treasury.

Historical Note

Technically, the Federal Reserve’s Board of Governors did not come into being until the passage of the Banking Act of 1935. The Federal Reserve Act of 1913 created a seven member Federal Reserve Board with the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency serving as ex-officio members. The remaining five members were appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate. Unlike today, only two members of the original Board carried the title governor—the active executive officer, Governor of the Federal Reserve Board and the second-in-command, Vice Governor. Both came from the five appointed positions and were designated for their leadership roles by the President. The original term of office of the appointive members was 10 years, though the first group was phased in with terms of two, four, six, eight and ten years. In 1922 the number of appointive members was increased to six, and in 1933 the term of office was increased to 12 years. The Banking Act of 1935 changed the name of the Federal Reserve Board to the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System and provided that the Board should be composed of seven appointive members. All seven members were given the title Governor. The Act also removed the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency from the Board, increasing its independence from the executive branch of government. It is noteworthy that the meetings of the Fed were also moved from the Treasury Department to a new building to be constructed. The Act also increased the length of terms for Governors to 14 years, and provided that the designation of Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Board should be for terms of four years.

The Banking Act of 1935 also significantly reduced the policy independence and overall stature of the twelve Federal Reserve District Banks, along with changing the titles of the chief executive and chief operating officers from Governor and Vice Governor to President and First Vice President, respectively. On a more substantive level, the role of district reserve banks regarding open market transactions was substantially modified. Though open market operations had already become an important policy tool years earlier, it was not until the Banking Act of 1935 that the current structure of the Federal Open Market Committee (FOMC) was formalized. Originally, each bank directed open market operations in its own district. However, during the 1920s the banks realized that each bank’s actions influenced markets in other districts and that uncoordinated simultaneous actions affected markets throughout the nation. Consequently, in 1922 the Reserve Banks of New York, Boston, Chicago, Cleveland and Philadelphia created a committee of Presidents (then called Governors) to plan and execute joint purchases and sales. In 1923 this group and voluntary arrangement became formalized as the Open Market Investment Committee (OMIC), and directed a single account that conducted open market transactions for the entire system. In 1930 this five-member OMIC was replaced by a twelve-member Open Market Policy Conference consisting of all twelve bank Governors (Presidents)—still a voluntary organization of equals, each retaining the right to decide whether or not to participate in joint action. It was not until the country was in the throes of the Great Depression that the Banking Act of 1933 (Glass-Steagall) created the Federal Open Market Committee (FOMC), maintaining the same membership, but making FOMC decisions binding on the reserve banks.

Who Runs the Fed—Inside and Outside

Sherman Maisel (1973), who served as a member of the Board of Governors from 1965 to 1972, looked at the policy making process from the standpoints of both the decision making power within the Fed and also the sources and nature of external influences on the Fed. His assessments are considered in Table 1.:

As the highly visible public face of the Fed, as well as its official spokesperson, the Chair of the Federal Reserve wields enormous power or clout—over and above that which routinely inures to the office of chair. Pointing out what is obvious to any student of monetary policy, Maisel notes that the power embodied in the Chair can vary greatly, depending on economic and political circumstances as well as on the individual office holder. Even a casual comparison of the different leadership styles, the critical competencies required at their particular moments in office, the economic/banking/financial backgrounds and even the raw personalities embodied in chairs as diverse as an Alan Greenspan to a G.
William Miller, and Paul Volcker punctuates the truism that not all Fed chairs command the same degree of policy making power and influence.

Relative to the Board and FOMC staffs, (including the two managers of the open market desks in New York and their assistants) this group is to a high degree the data source and the analytical eye of the policy makers. Clearly, the importance of this group has not diminished since the time of Maisel’s service on the Board. As noted by Justin Fox (2014), “The Fed staff is loaded with economics PhDs. In fact, the Federal Reserve System is almost certainly the nation’s largest employer of PhD economists, with more than 200 at the Federal Reserve Board in Washington and what is likely a similar number… scattered among the 12 regional Federal Reserve Banks.”

Considering that in recent times the “other six Governors” frequently are not six in number (but rather four or five), it seems doubtful that the power share of this group has increased in recent times. On the other hand, there is evidence that the relative influence of the regional banks—as represented by their presidents—may be increasing. That argument in Table 2.

Maisel defines “outside influences” as including “the groups whose speeches, phone calls, letters, memoranda, articles, and so forth are likely to be heard in monetary policy decisions.” It is not surprising that he adjudged the largest share of “external” influence on the Fed to be the President/Administration. After all, the President directly impacts the Fed through the appointment of Board members and designation of the Chair and Vice Chairs. A second important avenue of Presidential influence is through signaling and pressuring current members of the Board. These tactics may involve pressuring members to support the President’s favored policy agenda, or may be even stronger. Hyman (1976), Kettl (1986) and Meltzer (2009) have argued that Presidents can also exert significant pressure to resign on unaccommodating board members. Chappell, Havrilsky and McGregor (1993), however, argue that the more effective channel of influence is for the President to appoint members whose views on monetary policy are similar to his. Along those lines, Havrilsky and Gildea (1992) argue that there are identifiable characteristics of prospective appointees which identify their monetary policy views and their willingness to support the monetary policy preferences of the President after they are selected for the Board. As will be shown below, opportunities for Presidents to exert their influence by Board appointments have increased greatly over recent decades.

Ellis and Schanberg (2000) note that congressional and presidential pressures are somewhat interdependent, suggesting that during periods when there are congressional threats to reduce the independence of the Fed, Governors may be more responsive to signals from the executive branch. And while there has been no shortage of very public and bitter congressional assaults on the Fed during its history (think Wright Patman, Henry B. Gonzales, Ron Paul, and Rand Paul), Kane (1982) argues that Fed independence is a useful scapegoat for both the Congress and the President.

Regarding the external influence shares of 10% and 5% that Maisel assigned to “financial interests” and “foreign interests” respectively, those allocations seem quite low today considering (a) that since Maisel’s time the Fed’s mission has been expanded to include specifically responsibility for “maintaining the stability of the financial system and containing systemic risk that may arise in financial markets” and (b) that foreign interests currently hold more than one-third of all Treasury debt outstanding, with the two largest external holders, China and Japan, matching the Fed’s holdings. Without doubt, the increased concern (or noise level) among academicians, politicians and the media regarding the danger of “bureaucratic capture” and the Fed’s disturbing “coziness” with Wall Street giants suggests a public fear that the Fed may not be quite so independent of outside influences.

Evolving Issues

It is interesting to consider Maisel’s observations and assessments relative to the current concerns and ongoing debate regarding the “independence” of the Fed. While on the one hand it may be regrettable that Governor Maisel’s assessment of influences on and within the Fed applies to an era from which we are now more than forty years removed, it may at the same time provide a fortuitous benchmark. Since Maisel, there have been several very pronounced developments that have significantly impacted the governance and/or independence of the Federal Reserve. Among these are: (1) Shorter average tenure of members of the Board of Governors, providing the President the opportunity to appoint more members and in less time; (2) Increased incidence of the Fed’s operating with less than a full Board; and (3) a
pronounced shift in the pattern of FOMC policy dissents from Governors versus Reserve Bank Presidents. These three phenomena are discussed in turn.

Tenure of Governors

While members of the Board of Governors have never, on average, served anywhere near the statutorily allowed 14 year terms, Table 3 reflects an unmistakable trend in terms of how long they do serve. Whether calculated according to the decade in which members were initially appointed, or by the President who initially appointed them, the average tenure on the Board has become shorter. As extreme cases, two recent Board members, Frederic Mishkin and Jeremy Stein, each served less than two years before resigning. The obvious implication of this shorter tenure is that Presidents are able to appoint more members to the Board, and much sooner than the statutory schedule provides. Table 4 reflects one of the important effects of that trend. Today’s President is able to appoint a majority of Governors well within his/her first term in office. To the extent that the President/Administration exerts the strongest external influence on the Fed (a la Maisel), and considering the widely held view that the appointment of Governors is the President’s most direct avenue of influence on the Board, this trend undoubtedly increases the ability of the President to influence Fed policy.

Though the term of individual members of the Board of Governors has shortened considerably over time, there is no such pattern involving the Board Chair position. See Table 5.

Operating with Vacancies

Throughout most of its history, replacing a departing member of the Board of Governors has been a relatively unremarkable procedure. When the Board was formally created by the Banking Act of 1935, President Roosevelt nominated six men to the newly created Board on a Monday morning in January 1936. All gained Senate confirmation and took office within a week. For the next half-century, the Board was rarely short-handed. Replacements for departing Governors were named and tended to be confirmed without undue fuss or delay. But in the last two decades, the Fed has had a full complement of Governors less than 40 per cent of the time. Since the beginning of the financial crisis in 2007, the Board has operated much of the time with just five governors, with the count dropping to four at times in 2014. And at one point it came within days of having only three members.

One effect of operating with a “short Board” is that in recent years the Fed’s monetary policymaking body, the FOMC—statutorily comprised of the Governors and five Reserve Bank presidents—has not always maintained its historic strong Board majority. Consider, for example, the period from 2000 through 2014, during which time there were 126 policy votes. During that time seven Governors participated in only 26.2% of those votes, and six participated in 10.3% of the votes. On the other hand, there were five voting Governors 60.3% of the time, and only four Governors 3.2% of the time. Thus Governors did not represent a majority of the voters on a majority (63.5%) of those policy setting votes. Since 2000, the Governors had a full seven member complement for every FOMC vote in only two calendar years, 2003 and 2004. In contrast, from 1945 – 1977, the Governors had a majority on the FOMC in all but 16 days (of that 32 year period)—and never a minority. Governors had a FOMC majority 85% of time during Carter Administration, and 90% of the time during the Reagan Administration. But then the percent skidded under Bush41 (to about 80%), Clinton (about 62%), Bush43 (52%) and Obama (40-45%)—and for the first time in history the Governors actually fell to a minority on an FOMC vote.

It is not entirely clear how the “short Board” phenomenon has affected monetary policy decisions, but it is clear that the phenomenon has raised certain concerns. One of those concerns has to do with accountability. Donald Kohn, the Fed’s Vice Chair from 2006 to 2010 (and now a Brookings scholar) notes, “Congress created an FOMC with a majority of presidential appointees on it, and it would be unfortunate not to continue that and to honor that….It seems to me consistent with democratic accountability.” (Appelbaum, 2014) New York Times writer Binyamin Appelbaum (2014) notes that “Unlike the members of the Fed’s board, who are presidential appointees, [Reserve Bank presidents] are selected by business leaders in each district, and are not subject to Senate confirmation.” And in a recent Senate Banking Committee session, Ohio Democrat, Sherrod Brown, worried that with large portions of the regional banks’ boards being chosen from the banking industry, it “raised a lot of questions” about the potential capture of regulators by the banking industry. (Flaherty, 2015)

Pattern of FOMC Dissenting Votes
As he was retiring from the presidency of the Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas, Richard Fisher (2015) proposed a restructuring of the FOMC, based on his observation that “for at least a couple of decades, the governors have tended to vote as a block….” His proposed restructuring would involve eliminating the permanent FOMC voting slot for the New York Fed and having the twelve Reserve Bank presidents rotate annually as voting members. In Fisher’s words, that would “give the Federal Reserve Bank presidents an equal number of votes as the Washington-based governors, save the Chair.” His rationale:

“I would change it to balance out the division of power between the Federal Reserve Banks that are out in the field and among the people and businesses that operate our economy and have their own independent research staffs, and the Board of Governors, which is Beltway bound geographically and is briefed and guided by a single staff….The members of the Board get their opinions from the same staff; the Fed bankers who sit at the FOMC table get theirs from 12 disparate staffs of the same high quality as that which resides in Washington.”

Whether one embraces Fisher’s proposal or not, he is absolutely accurate in pointing out that the Governors have a tendency to vote as a block on policy issues. Thornton and Wheelock (2014) looked at FOMC dissenting votes over the period 1936 through 2013 and found that of the 7,094 policy votes cast, approximately 94% (6,645 votes) supported the majority, and only 6% (449 votes) involved dissents. Of the 449 dissenting votes cast, 241 (54%) were cast by Reserve Bank presidents and 208 (46%) by Governors. The 208 dissenting votes by Governors involved 33 different individuals, with six accounting for 119 (57%) of the total—and none of that six served after 1991. In recent years the dissents have come overwhelmingly from presidents. Between 1994 and 2013 Reserve Bank presidents accounted for 72 of 76 dissents, and 100% since 2006.

Several researchers have noted that Reserve Bank presidents have historically cast a majority of dissents favoring tighter policies, whereas Governors have cast more dissents favoring easier policies. Thornton and Wheelock’s analysis confirms that. See Table 6.

Presidents accounted for 22 percent of all dissents for easier policy and 72 percent of all dissents for tighter policy. Governors, on the other hand, accounted for 78 percent of dissents for easier policy, but only 28 percent of dissents for tighter policy.

How does one explain this pattern? Noting that Reserve Bank presidents are appointed by their district boards of directors (though requiring Board of Governors approval), but that Governors are appointed by the President of the United States (with Senate approval), some Fed watchers argue that Governors are thus more responsive to the desires of politicians. The argument is that since politicians must consider reelection, they are more prone to favor lower interest rates and unemployment rates in the short term—even at the cost of higher inflation and perhaps even higher interest and unemployment over the longer run. When considered in light of Fisher’s argument, however, it is open to date whether a policy making body that is dominated by a group that is itself increasingly dominated by politicians (both the President and members of Congress), is necessarily best for the economy.

Importance and Impacts
Both the importance and the impacts of the trends described above are broad and varied. Relative to the goal of insulating the Fed from undue political influence, the short tenure and high turnover rates of Board members have clearly become a cause for concern. By virtue of the fact that a President can appoint a majority of the members of the Board within two to three years of assuming office, he/she gains the power to significantly influence the Board’s agenda and decisions. An unmistakable offshoot of that development is that Congress has also become much more intrusively involved in the confirmation process. This impact is especially keen when the President and Senate are of different political parties. As evidence of same, Bloomberg (Kearns, 2014) notes that as of mid-2014 it had taken an average of 119 days to gain confirmation of Obama’s 10 Board nominees. It took 89 days for the Senate to confirm Janet Yellen as Chair, and 128 days to confirm Stanley Fischer as Vice Chair in 2014. Fischer’s confirmation came just one week before Jeremy Stein’s departure—which would have left the Board with only 3
members for the first time in its history. Nobel economist Peter Diamond withdrew his name from consideration for Board membership after 14 months when he became convinced that his confirmation was unlikely.

The impact of the above-described changes in the composition of the Board of Governors and the FOMC on monetary policy decisions is harder to ascertain. The key question is whether monetary policy has become more politically driven in response to these changes. While economists have done considerable work and made significant progress in developing models and metrics appropriate for answering these complex questions, there are still normative questions, as well as empirical difficulties to be addressed. Unfortunately, those issues are beyond the scope of this paper.

Notes

1 The Fed’s 2014 profits represented an increase from the $79.6 billion it turned over to the Treasury in 2013. The previous record was $88.4 billion in 2012. Overall, the Fed has returned some $500 billion in “profits” to the Treasury since 2008—most of that coming from interest earned on the more than $4 trillion in bonds it has purchased since 2008 in its efforts to stimulate the economy.

2 Since 2010 the Board of Governors has had two vice chair positions. Section XII of Dodd-Frank created a new “Vice Chairman for Supervision” position. Statutorily, the new position involves different responsibilities, but carries the same designation, term of office and confirmation requirements as the other vice chair position. However, as of May 2015 no one had been nominated to fill the new vice chair position.

3 Bernanke and Yellen are the only two Governors to have served two non-continuous stints on the Board. In each case the first stint was as regular member, and the second as Chair, or else Vice Chair leading to Chair. For each, the first (non-Chair) term is treated as independent of the second term. Yellen’s entire second stint was not spent as chair; she was initially vice chair. Calculations for the 2000 decade exclude Daniel Tarullo, who took office January 28, 2009. That term expires January 21, 2022.

4 Effectively, Eccles served 13.2 years as chair. He had served 1.2 years, from November 15, 1934 until February 1, 1936, before the Banking Act of 1935 changed the title of the office from Governor to Chairman.

5 The most recent dissent by a Governor was in September 2005 when Mark Olson voted against raising the federal funds target 25 basis points.

References


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Table 1: Maisel Scale: Internal Influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence Source</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Chair</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board and FOMC Staff</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Other Governors</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Reserve Banks</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Maisel Scale: External Influences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence Source</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Administration</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(The President, Treasury, CEA, OMB…)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Congress</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(House &amp; Senate Committees on Banking, Joint Economic Committee, Senate Finance, House Ways and Means)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The public directly</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Unorganized, the press, economists, lobbyists)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The financial interests</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Banks, Savings institutions, stockbrokers, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign interests</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other regulatory agencies</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(FDIC, Comptroller, FHLBB, SEC, etc.)</td>
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</table>
Table 3: Average Tenure of Governors, excluding Chairs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decade</th>
<th>Average Tenure</th>
<th>Appointing President</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1940s</td>
<td>9.3 years</td>
<td>Truman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950s</td>
<td>8.2 years</td>
<td>Eisenhower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960s</td>
<td>9.6 years</td>
<td>Kennedy-Johnson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970s</td>
<td>5.1 years</td>
<td>Nixon-Ford</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>6.6 years</td>
<td>Carter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990s</td>
<td>5.0 years</td>
<td>Reagan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000s</td>
<td>4.7 years</td>
<td>Bush-41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Time required for each President to appoint majority of members of Board

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>President</th>
<th>Time Required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Truman</td>
<td>5.4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eisenhower</td>
<td>5.1 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kennedy-Johnson</td>
<td>4.3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nixon-Ford</td>
<td>4.4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carter</td>
<td>2.5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reagan</td>
<td>5.1 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bush-41</td>
<td>2.9 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinton</td>
<td>3.4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bush-43</td>
<td>1.5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obama</td>
<td>1.7 years</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 5: Tenure of Board of Governors Chairs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chair</th>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. Eccles</td>
<td>12.0 years</td>
<td>1936-1948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. McCabe</td>
<td>3.0 years</td>
<td>1948-1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Martin</td>
<td>18.8 years</td>
<td>1951-1970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Burns</td>
<td>8.0 years</td>
<td>1970-1978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Miller</td>
<td>1.4 years</td>
<td>1978-1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. Volcker</td>
<td>8.0 years</td>
<td>1979-1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Greenspan</td>
<td>18.5 years</td>
<td>1987-2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Bernanke</td>
<td>8.0 years</td>
<td>2006-2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Yellen</td>
<td>8.0 years</td>
<td>2014-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Dissents by Member Type (1936-2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dissent direction</th>
<th>Presidents</th>
<th>Governors</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Easier</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tighter</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction: Team Based Learning at the University of South Alabama

The University of South Alabama (USA) is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (SACSCOC). In 2012 as a component of the Universities reaccreditation process a five year Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP) was developed to improve student preparation in the classroom, classroom learning, and the retention of classroom material for use beyond graduation. After an evaluation phase collaborative learning and critical thinking were chosen as the two main project goals for improvement. Desired student outcome were as follows:

Project Outcome 1: Students will achieve higher mastery levels of course content and real world application of the content.
Project Outcome 2: Students will develop higher levels of critical thinking skills as defined by Bloom (1956).
Project Outcome 3: Students will develop higher levels of collaborative skills.
Project Outcome 4: Students will have higher levels of engagement.
Project Outcome 5: Students will increase persistence in STEM courses.

After a review of collaborative teaching and learning best practices and literature, an instructional strategy called Team-Based Learning (TBL) was selected to facilitate the achievement of the project goals. Team-Based Learning, a form of collaborative learning, utilizes a specific sequence of individual work, group work, and immediate feedback to create a motivational framework in which students are accountable to the instructor and other members of the team for coming to class prepared and contributing to discussion (Michaelsen & Sweet, 2008).

The decision was made to focus on the disciplines of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) based on data contained in the listings of USA’s top 25 most difficult courses as determined by a lack of student success. There is a substantial body of research (Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne, 2000; Kalaian & Kasim, 2009; Prince, 2004; Project Kaleidoscope, 2012; Springer, Stanne, & Donovan, 1999) indicating that when compared with lecture-based instruction, all forms of small-group learning methods including Team-Based Learning have a positive impact on student achievement, attitude, and persistence in STEM courses. The implementation team referred to as TEAM USA initiated efforts to recruit faculty from the STEM disciplines. However, the recruitment was not restricted to STEM disciplines. All interested faculty were encouraged to participate regardless of subject concentration. The authors of this paper, Dr. Phillip Norrell (Exercise Science) and Dr. Shelley Holden (Health Education) chose to undertake the training and to become part of the project. Dr. Larry Michaelsen, one of the original developers of Team Based Learning and viewed as a central figure in its worldwide dissemination, was selected as a consultant to conduct workshops to train faculty in this instructional method. Research methods to assess the effectiveness of Team-Based Learning were planned and are currently ongoing. First year results were encouraging and are described later in this document.
Principles of Team Based Learning

Team-Based Learning was developed by Larry Michaelsen in the 1990’s and grounded in constructivist educational theory (Hrynchak & Barry, 2012). It is an example of a flipped classroom approach where the content is learned by independent study and the application occurs in the classroom (Moffet, 2014). According to Michaelsen, Davidson, and Major (2014), six fundamental principles guide every aspect of designing and facilitating a TBL course: (1) Plan backwards and execute forwards, (2) use mutually reinforcing activities in a specific sequence, (3) use a majority of class time for higher-level thinking application activities, (4) use activities and assignments so that they both promote learning and build team relationships, (5) provide frequent and immediate feedback on individual and team performance, and (6) employ a grading/reward system that promotes both individual and team accountability for doing high quality work. In traditional lecture-based courses, teachers typically begin planning a course by identifying what content they need to “cover.” In contrast, the design of a TBL course requires instructors to use “backward design” to get real clarity on what meeting the requirements of their course means by the answering of four questions.

1) “What do I want my students to be able to do with the material in this unit?” This question guides the development of behavioral (not just knowledge) objectives.

2) “How can I assess whether or not students can do what I want them to be able to do?” This question guides the design of activities that require students to do something that is as close as possible to the desired behavioral outcomes specified in question 1 above.

3) “What will students need to know in order to do what I want them to do?” This question guides the selection of the content that students will be expected to master prior to the first class meeting of the unit.

4) “How can I assess whether students are ready to engage in the activities in which they will demonstrate their abilities to do what I want them to be able to do?” This question guides the assessment of students’ pre-class preparation.

Michaelsen, Davidson, and Major (2014) further assert that TBL is an instructional strategy, not just a teaching technique. It is a set of learning activities, in a particular sequence, not just an individual activity that can be plugged into a course taught in more of a traditional lectured based manner. The whole course is restructured by dividing it up into five to seven units. Within each of these topical units, the teacher then sets up a three-phase sequence: preparation, application, and immediate feedback. In the preparation phase students ready themselves which can include reading assignment, reviewing Power Points, and/or viewing videos. Then when they come to class they engage in the Readiness Assurance Process (RAP) to ensure students are ready for the next phase of the sequence, which is when they learn how to apply or use the content. In the RAP students take a relatively short multiple choice test individually and then in their teams. This incentivizes students to do the assignment and gives them some immediate feedback as to the correct answers. The teacher further facilitates this process by giving “corrective instruction” or clarification regarding difficulty students might have with the material. Preparation is followed by application in which the students in their teams over several class sessions use the content to answer questions, solve problems, create explanations, make predictions, or do whatever it is that constitutes using” the content for this particular subject. Team-Based Learning is not about covering content. From a student standpoint, the overall “feel” of the class must be that the class is about learning to do something as opposed to learning some facts so they can pass a test. These application team assignments largely determine the effectiveness of the learning groups. Assignments requiring a high level of group interaction promote both learning and team development. In most cases, team assignments will generate a high level of interaction if they require teams to use course concepts to make decisions that involve set of complex issues and enable teams to report their decisions in simple form preferably simultaneously reported decisions on application-focused assignments. This further provides teams with immediate
feedback. Providing immediate feedback on the level of students’ understanding is one key to holding individuals and teams accountable for doing high quality work. However, for many students providing immediate feedback is not sufficient source of motivation to ensure that they will do the work needed to master and apply course concepts. For many students, another key is using a reward system linking students’ grades to each of the activities that is essential for their own learning, and for the success of their team. Thus, an effective grading system for TBL must meet two criteria. One criterion is that the grading system must include three components: (1) individual performance, (2) team performance, and (3) a peer assessment of the individual member’s contribution to their team to eliminate the “free rider” complaint often expressed by students asked to perform group work. The other is that each of the three components must “count” enough so students care about their scores (Michaelson, Knight, & Fink, 2002).

Implementing TBL

TBL implementation consists of four steps. Step 1 is to explain the use of TBL to students. Step 2 is to strategically structure teams in a way that will maximize learning and development for each and every team. Step 3 consists of using two items necessary for designing a typical TBL class session (the readiness assessment process and the design of application exercises). Step 4 is the use of peer evaluations (Saldivar, 2013).

Because TBL is so fundamentally different from traditional courses, it is important for students to understand both how the class will be conducted and the rational for this approach to learning (Michaelson, Knight, & Fink, 2004). Teachers experienced in TBL have also reported (Saldivar, 2013) that students often describe their previous experiences with group work in negative terms (I will do all the work but the others will get the same credit). This requires incorporating TBL in the syllabus and explaining the method thoroughly in the beginning to get a better “buy-in” by students. Particularly important is explaining how the peer evaluation process makes students accountable to each other on the teams. This can be reinforced by using videos which can be obtained on the TBL Listserv (www.teambasedlearning.org) featuring students who discuss their experience in a TBL class. USA has produced its own film (www.youtube.com/watch?v=kZgtacfI+3Ac) utilizing a professor experienced in TBL demonstrating the method and that also includes interviews with her students. At USA some professors have brought students in who have had favorable experiences with TBL to share these with students taking a TBL class for the first time.

Related to Step 2, Michaelsen, Davidson, and Major (2014) based on their experience and citations from others suggest that in TBL, the team formation and management processes are particularly critical for two reasons. One reason is because the primary objective is developing students’ higher-level thinking and problem-solving skills, students will be faced with a number of highly challenging assignments. Thus, the groups need to be fairly large (5-7 members), and intellectual assets and liabilities in the class should be evenly allocated across groups in a class. The other reason is that in TBL, groups must develop into effective self-managed teams. As a result, the team formation and management process in TBL has two important dimensions. First, the groups must be formed in a way minimizing potential disruptions from cohesive subgroups (for example fraternities/sororities or athletic teams). Second, the membership of the groups must remain stable over a long enough period for the team-development process to fully develop. Therefore, structuring teams is the responsibility of the instructor and students should stay in the same group for the entirety of the semester (Michaelson, Knight, & Fink, 2002). Students should not be allowed to form their own teams. Self-selected teams result in more homogenous groups with unequal distributions of member resources and less divergent thinking (Saldivar, 2013).

In forming TBL groups as previously discussed, two factors must be taken into consideration when forming the groups are the assets and liabilities of the students, and the potential for the emergence of sub-groups. As a result, the starting point in the group formation process is gathering information about the specific student assets and student liabilities that could potentially impact student performance in the class and the potential for the emergence of subgroups or cliques (Michaelson, Knight, & Fink, 2002). For example, Saldivar (2013) gathers information from her institution’s student information system, including cumulative grade point average (as a proxy measure of academic ability), age, race/ethnicity, gender, classification (freshman to senior), full-time or part-time course load, and town or borough of residence.
Subsequently on the first day of class she assigns a student self-evaluation concerning personal information such as their self-esteem, self-discipline, motivation, and individual circumstances. She then attempts to arrange groups that are balanced yet diverse not only related to student assets and liabilities, but also demographics, circumstances, and experiences. She explains to students that they cannot select their team just as the will be unable to select co-workers, clients, or citizens they will interact with in a professional capacity. Similarly, Dr. Norrell hands out a survey the first day of class, which queries students as to their classification, age, gender, ethnicity, GPA, level of interest and past experience with the subject matter, professional aspirations, involvement with sororities/fraternities, and athletic teams. He then attempts to formulate balanced and diverse teams based on this data.

As has been previously described the primary learning objective in TBL is to go beyond simply dispensing content and focus on ensuring students have the opportunity to practice using course concepts to solve problems. Although some time is spent on ensuring students master the course content, the vast majority of class time is used for team assignments that focus on using course content to solve problems students are likely to face when they have to apply course material in real life.

Michaelsen, Davidson, and Major (2014) describe a typical TBL course as organized into 5-7 major units, each of which begins with a pre-class individual assignment (i.e. readings, Power Points, videos) that is designed to familiarize students with the key concepts from the unit. For example, Dr. Norrell assigns readings from the textbook and provides voiced over unit summary Power Point presentations, videos, and study guides. The first in-class activity for each unit is a Readiness Assurance Process (RAP), which consists of a short individual Readiness Assurance Test (iRAT) usually consisting of ten to twenty-five multiple choice questions over the key ideas from the pre-class assignment. Following the completion of the iRAT, students re-take the same Readiness Assurance Test as a team (rRAT) by coming to consensus on their answers. The use of the IF-At “scratch-off” answer sheet (www.epsteineducation.com/home/about) is highly recommended. This type of answer sheet enables students to receive both real-time feedback on each of their decisions and partial credit for partial knowledge. After reviewing their iRAT scores, if the team feels they can make valid arguments for an answer on which they failed to receive full credit, they then have the opportunity to write evidence-based appeals. The final step in the RAP is an instructor clarification review (usually very short and very specific) through which the instructor corrects any misperceptions of the material that may still remain, as indicated by team test performance and the appeals.

The final stage in the TBL instructional activity sequence for each unit of instruction is both the most important and the most challenging aspect of implementing TBL. It involves having groups use the concepts to solve some sort of a problem so that students have the opportunity to enrich their understanding of the concepts as they try to apply them. This gets back to the principle of “backward course design” in which the construction of these problems require some reverse engineering, emphasizing what you want the student to be able to do with the information acquired in the course over what you want the student to learn from the course.

Michaelsen, Davidson, and Major (2014) emphasize that two important elements in the application assignments are they must foster accountability and promote give-and-take discussion first within and then between teams. They must follow the concept of the “4S’s:

1. Assignments should always be designed around a problem that is **Significant** to the student.
2. All students in the class should be working on the **Same** problem.
3. Students should be required to make a **Specific** choice.
4. Groups should **Simultaneously** support their choice.

Saldivar (2013) summarizes the justification for the first three of the 4S’s as follows: “The first S, a significant problem, is paramount: students must feel their course content is relevant and useful. Assignments that are perceived as busywork will likely result in students dedicating the minimum amount of effort required to score a satisfactory grade. The second S, a same problem is required because
the efficacy of group assignments rests on whether the assignment promotes discussion both with a group and then between groups. Using the same problem allows for a common frame of reference that is the basis for meaningful discussions to occur among the teams in the class. The third S, a specific choice, is based on cognitive research that shows students must be challenged and directed to engage in higher-level thinking” (pg. 153).

Michaelsen, Davidson, and Major (2014) emphasize that the fourth S, the opportunity for students to simultaneously report their choices, provides everyone with immediate feedback on how their choices compare to those from other teams and, most important, highlights difference among the set of choices. A second reason for simultaneous reporting is the team choice is clearly visible to the rest of the class, requiring teams to be accountable for, explain, and defend their position. By contrast, when teams report sequentially, the initial report sets a standard influencing all subsequent reporting, a phenomenon identified in social psychology as “answer drift”, or the tendency of later responding groups to adjust their answers to accommodate the emerging majority view, even if that majority’s response is wrong.

The fourth and final step necessary to implement TBL is the student-to-student peer evaluation. Saldivar (2013) suggests formative peer evaluations should be done periodically throughout the semester, at least twice (at midterm and end of term) and that this is absolutely necessary to enforce accountability for student preparation and interdependence between team members. She further elaborates on the process maintaining instructors should allocate a certain amount of points to each student and then have students distribute their points to their teammates with instructions on forced differentiation (meaning that students are not allowed to give each teammate the same amount of points). Here, instructors facilitate the process by providing students with prompts (in the form of key questions) and room for both numerical points and narratives. Michaelsen’s (2002) prompts address individual preparation, contribution, respect for others’ ideas, and flexibility. Dr. Norrell further attempts to simulate a real world job evaluation by asking students to rate one another as to whether each member of their team should receive a merit raise, a cost of living raise, be placed on probation, or be discharged. The written rationales are then shared with the student being evaluated. Instructors should consider moderated anonymity and include their own feedback on student performance. Formative peer feedback should be done several times throughout the semester to allow students to correct inappropriate behaviors; these periodical evaluations should then inform the summative and final peer evaluation (which is confidential between student and the instructor). The final peer evaluation should make up at least 10% of a student’s final grade.

Why Team-Based Learning

Schleicher Deputy Director for Education and Special Advisor on Education Policy to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development’s Secretary-General has noted that jobs with routine cognitive skills such as memorizing and carrying out of simple procedures are disappearing and that the jobs of the 21st Century will require non-routine cognitive skill involving the ability to think critically and creatively. Consequently, student outcomes in the 21st Century need to focus on the acquisition of critical thinking skills. Over a decade ago Bligh (1998) observed that the prevailing teaching method in higher education emphasizing lecture is problematic because research consistently shows that critical thinking skills cannot be taught through lecture, since this instruction method places students in a passive role which does not require actual practice in solving problems and applying principles to new scenarios. Alternatively, dialectic teaching is the practice of logical discussion used when determining the truth of a theory or opinion (Michaelsen, Parmelee, McMahon, & Levine, 2008). TBL is a form of dialectic teaching grounded in constructivist educational theory (Hrynchak & Baty, 2012). It is an example of a flipped classroom approach where the content is learned by independent study and the application occurs in the classroom (Moffett, 2014).

In today’s context, organizations are increasingly requiring employees to work in teams and to have good interpersonal skills, to process complex information, and to value individual differences (Baldwin, Bedell, & Johnson, 1997). TBL would appear to address these issues with its emphasis on diverse teams that are properly managed, individual and group preparedness and accountability, application of key course content, peer evaluations, and team development and interpersonal communication skills (Saldivar, 2013).
Since Michaelsen’s development of TBL there has been considerable research on the efficacy of this method. Haidet, Kubitz, and McCormack (2014) conducted a literature review of 40 articles published since 1996 representing a current “state of the art” for studies that describe the implementation of minimal or no modification from the methods described by Michaelsen and the TBL community. They concluded that there was “early evidence of positive educational outcomes in terms of knowledge acquisition, participation and engagement, and team performance.” However their review also revealed that “TBL challenges both learners and teachers to adopt a new paradigm of education, and some find this challenge difficult.”

In general, when knowledge acquisition was examined, most articles described improvements for students who experienced TBL, often with comparison of students at the low and high ends of the class, as defined by other academic measures. Whereas all students tended to benefit from TBL, students at the low end of the class usually benefitted the most. Team performance was consistently observed to be positively impacted, both through better performance of teams as compared to individuals on course exams and through improved communication and awareness within teams.

Most of the articles that examined learner participation or attendance did so through either direct comparison to or teacher recollection of attendance during lecture-based teaching, and these comparisons consistently suggested that learners demonstrated greater participation in TBL-based classrooms. Data on learner perceptions and attitudes toward teamwork suggested greater self-efficacy and higher interest. This was tempered by some studies finding lower student enjoyment or satisfaction. Measurements of learner impressions of pedagogical effectiveness and attitudes toward teamwork demonstrated both positive and negative perceptions. In the two studies that tracked learner performance in actual work environments, both suggest that learners were able successfully to transfer TBL classroom learning to improve their job performance. Finally, the studies that examined faculty suggested teachers encountered an initial increase in their workload as they learned the method and prepared course materials and a relatively steep learning curve as they gained experience using the method. In their discussion the researchers hypothesized that the reason some students and teacher struggle with the method, and view it as less enjoyable, less effective, and less efficient than lecture-based methods is team-based learning asks both teaches and learners to believe that practice with concepts rather than memorization of or telling about them in messy, uncertain application exercises is the key to actually being able to use such concepts in real life. Teachers who try TBL but do not actually adopt this practice-based paradigm risk lapsing into didacticism during the session, shutting down learners’ creativity, openness, and critical thinking. Learners who experience TBL but do not adopt the paradigm tend to feel cheated out of hearing more facts; thus, they feel they have gained less knowledge. To the extent that these assertions are true, the potential benefits of TBL (and many other active-learning strategies) will be tempered as both teachers and learners struggle with adapting to the method. The researchers called for more research at a higher level of rigor that goes beyond “Does it work?” query to providing evidence and stimulating conversations that will help the method to continue to evolve. Research since 2013 includes a study by Frame et al., (2015) that addresses the effect of the order of experience with TBL compared to lecture. They found that students who experienced TBL in the fall and went back to traditional format in the spring reported improved perceptions of teams and preferred TBL format over traditional format more than students who experienced a traditional format followed by TBL. Students at both universities agreed the TBL format assists with critical-thinking, problem-solving, and examination preparation. Students also agreed that teams should consist of individuals with different personalities and learning styles.

Persky, Henry, and Campbell (2015) sought to determine the impact of personality traits on learning, particularly if introverted students were adversely impacted by a TBL environment. To date, extroversion has not been shown to be a strong influence on academic performance, but there is little data specific to cooperative learning environments. This study did not find a notable difference between introverts and extroverts in course performance. While introverts tended to rate the team experience lower, the association was weak. The researchers suggested in their discussion that one reason introverts may not be impacted negatively is that, in a true cooperative learning environment, there is time for individual focus and reflection prior to engaging in conversation, a situation which may favors introverted personalities.

To assess the effectiveness of TBL at the University of South Alabama, data comparison has been made on the classroom level, and project wide comparisons of critical thinking, engagement, and skill in
collaboration has been undertaken. Students from the TBL pilot classes were compared to randomly selected groups of students on the ETS Proficiency Profile, course engagement, and their self-reported (and/or peer reported) ratings of their ability to work in teams. Another project-wide aspect of the QEP concerns course withdrawal, student satisfaction based on course evaluations, and student grades. Along with analyzing outcomes, the project examined the fidelity of instructors to the TBL approach using as a guide the framework developed by Century, Rudnick, and Freeman (2010). The framework talks about the structurally critical components (Does the instructor know how to organize a TBL lesson, and is he or she aware of what belongs in it?), and instructionally critical components (Does the instructor use the pedagogical strategies that are part of TBL in class? Are the students engaged?). The TBL scorecard was used along with self-reported questionnaire for professors and students and a protocol for observing professors using the TBL materials and consultants.

First year data analysis suggested the goals of the project were being met. Major findings included: 82% of SLO Critical Thinking Mastery Targets were met. Higher post-test scores were achieved with statistically significant differences in evaluating, analyzing, creating, and collaboration constructs as compared to pre-test scores. Higher percentile scores for students enrolled in Team USA courses as compared to students who were not, and a statistically significant difference constructs found on the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (Induction, Deduction, Analysis, Inference, Evaluation, Interpretation, and Explanation). There were 50% fewer students withdrawals form Team USA courses, and a statistically significant difference in withdrawals as compared to non-Team USA courses. Students earned significantly higher grades for Team USA courses, with more A’s and B’s, and fewer D’s and F’s in TBL courses as compared to non-Team USA courses.

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Challenges and Barriers in the Change Process: Developing an Innovative Educational Administrative Preparation Program

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Peter Drucker, the “father” of modern management, is often noted for saying that “Management is doing things right. Leadership is doing the right things” (http://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/authors/p/peter_drucker.html). In organizational research, the distinction between managing and leading is a much-reviewed topic (Boyatzis, Smith, Oosten & Woollard, 2013; Cohen, 2013; Drucker, 2008). Management revolves around building and maintaining systems; it is essentially structural and organizational. Leadership is about guiding development and helping others move into new possibilities that are more functional (Cohen, 2013).

Much of what transpires in the bureaucracy of universities is management. Universities build routines into their systems just like individuals do in their daily lives. Simple things, like processing paperwork, are routinized; even more complex tasks, like how the university communicates with employees and trains new hires, are set as routine processes and procedures. Universities thrive on routines that become the status quo. The entire educational system in the United States has shown amazing resiliency in maintaining systems and forms that look much like they did during the 1920s and 1930s (Tyack & Cuban, 1997). Educational administration preparation programs are part of university systems. Over the last decades organizations like the Council of Chief State School Officers (2008) have led efforts at the state and national levels to codify, often through accreditation standards, the “right” way to prepare school leaders. This codification often leads to what might be considered status quo visions and approaches in educational administration preparation programs. These are often considered the “right” ways. However, realities change—and the “right” way can become routine, failing to respond to new realities and becoming less than effective.

For decades there have been consistent calls for university faculty to reconsider the manner in which we prepare future educational leaders (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson & Orr, 2009; Hallinger 2003; Milstein and Krueger 1997; Murphy, 1992). In this article, we will review the development process we used to propose and launch a pilot project that aimed to provide training to future administrators in a more innovative and effective manner, breaking away from the status quo of “doing things right,” and focusing, instead, on “the right things to do.” In the course of proposing and developing this pilot, we encountered routines at the university (“the way things are done here”) that were designed to “do things right”; these routines became barriers that were embedded in the structure of the university. Among the issues with which we grappled were communication challenges, control, resources, and the slow pace of change. In this article we will explore the issues that impacted the development of the project. We conclude the article by discussing the implications of the change dynamics we experienced, encouraging others to consider how their own change efforts “to do the right things” at universities might be impacted by the barriers and challenges we encountered.

Background and Genesis of the Exploration

Western Washington University (WWU) is one of four regional public universities and primarily serves Northwest Washington State. The enrollment is approximately 15,000 undergraduate and graduate students. WWU’s educational administrative preparation efforts have a long history. The program began in 1944 and has continuously served the state by preparing administrative leaders for K-12 education. Currently, more than 500 practicing school administrators trace their preparation and certification to Western. Combined enrollment in M.Ed., post-master’s principal certification, and superintendent
certification programs in recent years has varied between 100 and 130 candidates annually. The program has been considered successful, and even laudable, by traditional standards of evaluation, such as internal graduate reviews and external accreditation reviews. If the reviews showed that the program was “doing things right,” why change the status quo?

The Challenge to Consider a New Model

In the fall of 2012, an education activist approached university administrators at Western Washington University, challenging that educational preparation programs need to change their approaches to preparing educational leaders. The individual encouraged the university administrative leaders to consider innovative national models from Harvard and the University of Virginia, indicating that he might be willing to help the university fund exploration and development of an innovative model for training future educational leaders. At the behest of the dean of the College of Education, the educational administration program faculty considered the opportunity to examine the Harvard and the University of Virginia models, as the philanthropist suggested. The lead author of this article (and an educational administration faculty member), accepted the challenge to review these and other national models, as well as the literature in the field. Below is a summary of key concepts we used to consider how WWU trains educational leaders, while we asked ourselves, “Are we doing things right, or doing the right things?”

Review of the Profession and Literature

One of the major weaknesses of traditional certification programs is that they do not adequately prepare new principals and superintendents for a number of the most challenging aspects of those positions (Childress, Moore-Johnson, Grossman & Elmore, 2007; Fullan, 2010). For instance, even a quick search of the literature on school leadership continues to echo Hallinger and Heck’s assertion made back in 1998, that “Schools that make a difference in students’ learning are led by principals who make a significant and measurable contribution to the effectiveness of staff [who are in charge of students’ learning]” (p. 158). So, if principals are central to school improvement, it is important to consider the criticism found in research: in many cases new leaders are ill-prepared for the toughest challenges of leadership, like improving student performance. For instance, we have known for a long time that culture and context have a dramatic influence on student outcomes, and school leaders need to consider these variables. Murphy and Torre (2014) reinforce this concept, explaining that context plays a role: “Researchers over the last few decades have solidified an essential law of school improvement: leadership for school improvement is shaped by the contexts in which schools and the leaders of those institutions find themselves” (p. 12). To reinforce this, Murphy & Torre (2014) reference Coldren & Spillane (2007), who say leadership is contextual, and multifaceted, and leadership accounts for these local variables (p. 387).

Although researchers have highlighted that both culture and context of individual schools and districts are important factors in the exercise of effective leadership, education administration preparation programs have not historically provided enough training for preservice leaders in this area (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson & Orr, 2009). Educational administration programs need to look at restructuring so as to reflect current best practice, which includes embedding training of future leaders in authentic, district-based work because isolated, unconnected work on the theory of leadership does not tend to develop skills that transfer to effective practice (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2009). Embedding the training of future leaders in their own districts allows the future leaders to develop a deeper understanding of the culture and context where their leadership will be applied. The real challenge is to prepare school leaders who, through an understanding of culture and context, and through their vision and willingness to embrace what may be radically new, are committed to rethink traditional systems and develop new structures that spawn continuous improvement.

After reviewing the research and studying leadership models from Harvard and UVA, the administration program faculty, using action research methodology, proposed a pilot project to test a new program design. In the next section we describe what the pilot project sought to do and the results of the implementation. Following that we discuss the main subject of this article: the barriers and challenges to the change initiative, and the lessons learned in trying to develop a new model.
Methodology and Action Taken

Gall, Gall, and Borg (2010) define action research as “a form of research carried out by educators in their everyday work settings for the purpose of improving their professional practice” (p. 488). The key characteristics of action research are observable in its purpose and strategies. The main purpose is to solve a local problem of practice. The methodology borrows techniques from other research paradigms in an emergent design; as one works on the problem, the evidence guides the researcher in choosing the appropriate strategies for the investigation. Data collection and analysis focuses on practical significance of the results, most often using descriptive statistics (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010, p. 489). Using these parameters, we used research journals to define the problem of practice, developed a literature review, designed an action to address the problem of practice, and then analyzed the results of the action taken. In our research the action to improve the program appeared simple and effective; however, in application, analyzing the research journals, email communication, meeting agendas, and minutes, the barriers and challenges emerged as an important learning.

Action: Pilot Project

We received a grant in November 2014 to run a pilot called the “School Improvement Seminars.” We framed this pilot to reflect some aspects of both the Harvard and UVA models, as well as the idea of district and school-embedded administrative training found in the work of Darling-Hammond et al. (2009). The goal of this pilot project was to help local districts with school improvement initiatives by providing them financial support and pro bono professional services while we simultaneously provided advanced learning opportunities for teachers that the districts viewed as potential future administrative leaders. After the districts identified these potential future leaders, the university’s educational administration program leaders provided professional development and training opportunities to them through the coursework and other coordinated learning experiences. By focusing on their district’s improvement projects, the students developed an understanding of the culture, context, and the change dynamics associated with leadership.

The program began December 2014 and culminated in a three-day seminar with the two pilot school districts during August 2015. At the end of this seminar, all the participants in the project were surveyed to ascertain both the actual and the potential future impact on individuals and districts if they were to use the new model for developing future leaders and school improvement work. The consensus was that the new model was very successful in the two pilot districts. On a 5-point Likert scale, all data indicated very positive perceptions, with a mean score of 4.15, where 5 was the most positive score possible. Furthermore, among the 10 other districts who sent observers to assess the model, all 10 of them perceived positive potential for their own districts if the model were adopted.

Barriers and Challenges

This article is not primarily about the efficaciousness of the new model; the key focus here is to discuss the barriers and challenges that emerged as we addressed a problem of practice. The action research design allowed us to develop a pilot project that shows promise. However, the major challenges we encountered in this project were in the structural organization of the university; the systems that are set up to facilitate routine processes in the academy actually functioned as barriers to the innovation and change we sought in our program improvement effort.

At the beginning of this article we looked at the power of routinization and how difficult it is to change the status quo in highly complex systems, like universities, that set up the “right way” to do things. One of those barriers was the university system of managing communication and resources.

Communication and Resources: Who’s in Control?

Universities have multiple layers of leadership within a loosely coupled bureaucratic system, and these leadership layers complicate change initiatives. Indeed, this was important for us to consider as we attempted to create a new program approach. Since the university often creates “silo” structures, where each college within the university is semi-autonomous, ferreting out the power structures, and the overlapping, interdependent, and interrelated variables, was challenging. This was especially true as we attempted to navigate the hierarchical power structures between deans of individual colleges and how
they interact with the university’s central administration, which had significant influence in the exploration and funding of the pilot project. Related to this reality, two of the barriers we encountered in this change initiative were (1) communication to and within the hierarchy, and (2) who controls the process.

One of the first complex issues we confronted in the exploration and development of this pilot project was the question, “Who is in control of the project?” Universities can have strict hierarchies, and communication is designed to occur in a chain-of-command format. The expectation that communication would follow the traditional chain of command presented challenges in ensuring timely communication, decision-making, and action. On many occasions, our progress in developing and implementing the project was complicated or slowed by a delay at an essential step along the chain of command tasked with reviewing, approving, or communicating essential details.

The question of “Who is in control?” is not just about power. For instance, we saw this in answering the question of “who needs to be at the table so that we can make a decision?” We found that due to the complex hierarchy of the university, it was often necessary to include not only our direct supervisors, but others in the system who had direct or indirect influence and responsibility for the project and its funding, or for the potential impact of the project. An example of this was in the development of a memorandum of understanding between the university and the school districts involved in the pilot. This agreement needed to be reviewed for policy compliance. The legal advisors did not have a political/power agenda related to the project; however, their input was essential, and they needed to be part of the process. Nevertheless, what may have been an unavoidable delay in that department’s review of the agreements caused a delay in implementation.

Control of Resources, and the Pace of Change

Supervisory control and access to financial resources involve hierarchical power structures, and we had to navigate this in a way that would address barriers to implementation. Because university funding and leadership systems are interwoven, this change initiative necessarily involved understanding and managing the systemic nature of hierarchical power and the complex nature of resource management. A failure on our part to consider this, and navigate the complexity, could have led to rejection of the pilot project in concept, or to a barrier to funding. We had to diplomatically advocate for resources inside and outside of the university in a way that did not politically compromise either internal or external stakeholders. For instance, one source of funding initially courted was from a politically conservative philanthropist, whose perspectives on change were very different from those held by key figures in the university. We needed to navigate this reality in such a way that the funds secured were not publicly associated with any individual, but still allowed us to pay respect to the donor.

Finally, the multi-layered, hierarchical system of the university created a barrier due to the amount of time it took for reviewing and approving the implementation of the pilot project. The pace of change in universities is glacial, due, in part, to the numerous levels of supervision and oversight. The pilot we developed had to be reviewed at the program level, the department level, the college level with the dean, and then at the vice-president level for alignment with university initiatives and resources. Furthermore, a unique recursive review at the nexus between internal and external stakeholders was important since the university’s fundraising foundation was working with external philanthropists. It took significant time for each of these levels to review the proposed pilot, gain approval, and identify resources. At times it appeared that the project would not be realized because an individual responsible for review and approval would delay the review and approval for many weeks.

Final Comments

In our attempt to develop a new way to train future educational leaders, we encountered a number of barriers and challenges. In this article we shared our efforts to develop a new approach to training future educational leaders, but focused primarily on the biggest barriers and challenges we faced, that included communication, control, resources, and the pace of change in hierarchical, routinized university systems. Others who pursue organizational change in the academy may experience similar challenges. Below we share the specific strategies we used to manage the barriers and challenges.
**Successful Strategies: Communication and detailed documentation**

The single most important strategy that helped us address the barriers and challenges was *communication*: Not simply informing stakeholders, but intentionally communicating in significant detail, beyond the usual expectations for notification and information. The second most important strategy for us was *detailed documentation* of processes and decisions. Although academic deans and provost-level leaders may communicate effectively within their own offices, colleges, or departments, efficient and effective mechanisms for communicating between the many layers of the hierarchy may not exist or may require special attention, as was true for us. We found that requests for hierarchical decisions related to the project languished without a key individual providing regular “updates.” The lead author used this strategy to help reduce the negative impact that a slow review and decision making process can have on a development project. Specifically, every few weeks a *progress report* was emailed to key individuals with decision making responsibility. In addition to these progress reports, about once a month a *detailed review* of key meetings, discussions, and decisions was broadly distributed by email to stakeholders. In the monthly detailed review, impending developments and future decisions and actions were foreshadowed. This regular communication helped nudge key decision makers throughout the hierarchy to take action and communicate as needed up and down the chain of command. In this way the project leader effectively documented consultation with all stakeholders and kept them informed. This simple act of regular and detailed communication helped keep busy faculty and administrators engaged, and maintained support for the work.

Finally, the regular updates and reviews also “documented” the process in public view. Because university funding and leadership systems are complexly interwoven, *publicly* communicating the actions between key individuals provides a level of accountability for all involved. We believe the detailed and public documentation of processes and decisions held individuals accountable, and helped us avoid potential project-ending delays or capricious barriers. Public visibility, as news reporters have proven many times, helps most of us behave in more accountable ways. It is our hope that other leaders in higher education will use our experiences to anticipate and address some of the obstacles and challenges their own change initiatives may encounter in the academy.

**References**


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Imbedding Student Voice in the Classroom:
The Upcoming Teacher Performance Assessment Mandate and Instruments that Facilitate Implementation

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Abstract
An upcoming mandate that will greatly impact teacher education will require teaching candidates to pass the Teacher Performance Assessment in order to be certified. In Washington and Illinois, this policy has already been adopted. This mandate is also being considered by 19 other states. Washington’s additional edTPA component on student voice adds another layer of expectations for the teaching candidate. In this paper, an overview of the edTPA will be presented to increase a general understanding of the instrument and its origin. A discussion on student voice will follow including identifying the Washington-specific student voice criteria. Two instruments, that this researcher designed to assist teaching candidates with implementing student voice effectively in order to better-meet the student voice criteria of the Washington State Teacher Performance Assessment, will also be included.

Introduction
In a warehouse, an employee is directed by his boss to “move the boxes that have colored labels to the sliding door so that they can eventually be loaded onto a truck.” Hopefully, if there is confusion, the employee knows how to identify the boss’s target (moving the boxes with the colored labels to the sliding door) and identify his (the employee’s) needs in the way of support, tools, and resources required in order to meet the boss’s target. For example, in order to meet his own support needs, is the worker able to identify that he needs to ask some questions to clarify the target, such as, “Do you want the boxes that have just a colored dot on them (but no colored label) moved?” Perhaps he may need to identify that to further meet his own support needs, it is necessary for him to receive the directions in writing if he is hearing impaired. Is he then able to determine what procedure he may need to use in order to meet the target most efficiently? “Because I have a bad shoulder, I need to use a handcart,” he may decide. Before that, he must already be familiar with why the handcart is a helpful tool. In order for the workplace to run more efficiently then, it is most helpful if the employee (not just the employer) is able to identify the target, the procedure for meeting the target, and the support, tools, and resources needed in order to most efficiently meet the target.

K-12 education plays a crucial role in facilitating the success of students so that as adults, they can thrive in the workplace, as well as be empowered to learn more in every grade along the way. A key component that must be imbedded in the educational system is pupils taking ownership of their learning by being given opportunities to voice learning targets, the procedure(s) to meet the target(s), and the support, tools, and resources they need in order to meet the target(s). These student voice items are just three required elements, which teaching candidates in Washington State must implement efficiently when teaching their K-12 pupils in a field experience in order to pass the Washington Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) and eventually be certified to teach. Practicing teachers seeking the teaching certificate renewal in Washington and other states and/or National Board Certification must also provide evidence that they are implementing student voice in their classrooms. Washington State’s newer “Standard 5” that appears in a list of accreditation criteria for teacher certification programs states that an effective teaching component is “aligning instruction to the learning standards and outcomes so all students know the learning targets and their progress toward meeting them” (Washington Professional Education Standards Board, 2011, p. 1). Furthermore, states where practicing teachers’ evaluations are influenced by the work of Danielson (2007) have incorporated student voice criteria. However, this
paper’s focus will be on the upcoming edTPA mandate, which is also being proposed in 19 other states. First, an overview of the edTPA will be presented to increase a general understanding of the instrument and its origin. A discussion on student voice will follow including identifying the Washington-specific student voice criteria. A few instruments that this researcher designed to assist teaching candidates implement student voice effectively in order to better-meet the student voice criteria of the Washington State Teacher Performance Assessment will also be included.

An Overview of the Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA)

The Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) is an instrument developed in order to increase accountability regarding the teaching competency of candidates seeking certification. An upcoming mandate that is already in place in Washington and Illinois and being considered in 19 other states will require that all candidates seeking teaching certificates must pass the Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) in order to be certified. Jones, 2011 states:

The edTPA mandate will have one of the single largest impacts on Teacher Education Programs of all teacher preparation proposals and mandates that have surfaced in the last decade because of its rigor, expense to evaluate, and pressure that will compel teacher education programs to infuse edTPA concepts in coursework to better-prepare teaching candidates (p. 1).

The edTPA has evolved from California’s Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT), which was created by Stanford with input from a national design team of teacher educators. PACT was influenced by the National Board content-specific assessments and the BEST assessments. A 21-state consortium has refined the PACT each year since its beginnings and has evolved into the National version of the edTPA. The edTPA has the support of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) who are edTPA co-sponsors, and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) (Darling-Hammond, 2010). CCSSO’s influence on state policy to improve teacher quality and accreditation/licensure procedures is also significant regarding edTPA implementation work at the state level since they endorse the high quality of the edTPA instrument (personal communication, K. Stansbury, June 17, 2011).

Each state may consider adding its own additional requirements of supplemental rubrics and artifacts. However, each state’s version of the edTPA requires candidates to demonstrate proficiency in three common areas: (a) Planning for Instruction and Assessment, (b) Instructing and Engaging Students in Learning, and (c) Assessing Student Learning. Washington State has chosen to add a component on student voice.

Teacher Performance Assessment Artifacts and Rubrics

To address each of the EDTPA components, candidates collect artifacts that are evaluated using a five-level rubric. Eventually, a national and/or state standard will be established regarding what is considered to be a passing score, but in the earlier edition of the edTPA, when a four-level rubric was being used, obtaining a score above a “1” was considered to be a “pass” for that standard. Washington students must score an average of a 2.33 for each rubric until the state changes its requirements. Each of the first three components of the edTPA includes a lengthy commentary requirement where candidates reflect and respond to several writing prompts. In addition to the commentaries, each component requires different artifacts to be collected. The Planning for Instruction and Assessment component requires candidates to provide information about the context of learning in their classrooms to establish familiarization of their pupils’ language and learning needs, the school curriculum, resources available, classroom policies and other contextual information that influence planning and instruction. Other artifacts required in the Planning for Instruction and Assessment component include three-five lesson plans for a specific learning segment, the instructional materials, assessment tools, procedures, and criteria implemented in the learning segments and a planning commentary. Rubrics used to specifically evaluate the Planning Instruction and Assessment component assesses how well the candidate creates plans that “build students’ conceptual understanding” of content skills (Standard 1), “uses knowledge” of students “to target support for students to develop conceptual understanding” of content (Standard 2), “uses knowledge of students to
justify instructional plans” (Standard 3), identifies and supports language demands associated with a task” (Standard 4), and selects or designs informal and formal assessments “to monitor students’ conceptual understanding, procedural fluency,” and content skills (Standard 5) (Stanford, 2014, pp. 16-20).

The Instructing and Engaging Students in Learning component requires candidates to submit video clips that demonstrate pupil instruction and an instruction commentary. At the Elementary level, the video clip is to be no more than 15 minutes long. It can include two segments of the same lesson that add up to 15 minutes, or it can include one 15-minute uninterrupted segment. At the Secondary level, depending on the content area, the video clip is collected from two different learning segments that take up no more than 15-20 minutes (total) for both learning segments. All candidates are also able to include a second or third clip of up to three minutes that demonstrates pupils expressing their understanding of learning targets if this was not accomplished in the first or second clip. Rubrics used to specifically evaluate this instructional component address how well the candidate: “demonstrates a respectful learning environment that supports students’ engagement in learning” (Standard 6), actively engages students in developing their understanding” of content (Standard 7),” and “elicits” students’ responses to “promote thinking and develop understanding” of content (Standard 8), “use representations to develop students’ content concepts (Standard 9), use evidence to evaluate and change teaching practice to meet students’ varied learning needs” (Standard 10) (Stanford, 2011, pp. 20-21).

The Assessing Student Learning component requires candidates to collect pupil work samples, demonstrate how they provide feedback to pupils; and provide an assessment commentary, evaluation criteria, and pupil self-reflections. Rubrics used to evaluate the assessment component include determining how well the candidate: “analyzes evidence or student learning of conceptual understanding, procedural fluency,” and content-related skills (Standard 11), chooses the type of feedback to provide to focus students (Standard 12), provides “opportunities for focus students to use the feedback to guide their further learning” (Standard 13), analyzes “students’ use of language to develop content understanding” (Standard 14), and uses “the analysis of what students know and are able to do to plan next steps in instruction” (Standard 15) (Stanford, 2014, p.34-38).

Each state may also choose to add an additional standard to the edTPA. So far, only Washington State has done so by adding rubrics that address student voice. Before providing the edTPA criteria regarding student voice, it is first necessary to define student voice.

Student Voice Defined

Individuals exposed to student voice opportunities in every grade of the K-12 system are not only better prepared for the workplace, but learn more every step of the way in their development as they are able to “express their understanding of their learning process” Washington Professional Education Standards Board, 2009, p. 1). Stanford (2014) defines student voice as:

on-going reflective self-assessment expressed in the words of the learner for the purpose of improving teaching and learning. Student voice is important evidence, in addition to student work, of student understanding of his/her own learning process and progress toward learning target(s) (p.37).

A classroom rich in student voice is a positive learning environment (Lincoln, 1995), that is non-teacher centered (Kordelewski, 1999), non-retro-fitting (Lincoln, 1995); and is authentic, non-marginalizing, and culturally relevant as students make connections between concepts and their own experiences (Freire, 2001). Pupils are empowered to have ownership of constructing their learning and futures, as opposed to having their destinies prescribed for them by their teachers (Paciotti & Bolick 2009; Lincoln, 1995). This promotes self-efficacy, which correlates with engagement in learning, motivation, and academic success (Bandura, 1993).

Now that student voice has been defined, it is necessary to identify the edTPA’s evolving measurement criteria regarding student voice, which is an additional section added to the edTPA in the state of Washington. The introduction of a few instruments that effectively facilitate the implementation of student voice edTPA criteria will then be presented.

Student Voice: Modifications and Instruments that Facilitate Implementation
The most significant change that has occurred regarding the edTPA in Washington is the Washington-specific section on student voice. In the 2014 (January) edition of the edTPA, the student voice rubrics simply measured how well the candidate provided “clear, consistent, and convincing evidence that both the teacher and student understood and were able to explain the learning target, how to proceed to the learning target, and the kinds of support needed to reach the target” (Stanford, p. 29). However, the newer version of the student voice rubrics (that came out by Stanford in September of 2015 (p.39-41) include some additional criteria regarding this target language if teacher candidates want to excel when assessed.

The student voice rubrics measure how well the candidate: “focuses student attention on the learning targets” (Standard 16). More specifically, if students want to excel regarding this standard, they now need to be able to communicate the learning targets, ask students to articulate, in their own words, the learning targets and why they are important. Teaching candidates must then refer back to the learning targets during the lesson. Furthermore, they are to end lessons by asking pupils to reflect on where they are in relation to reaching the learning targets and combine evidence from student voice and student work for the purpose of teacher reflection and decision-making.

Standard 17 measures how well the candidate “supports students’ use of resources to learn and to monitor their own learning progress” and standard 18 measures how well the candidate uses “student-voice evidence to identify instructional improvements.” To excel regarding this standard, the rubric specifies that the candidate needs to be able to work with their students to “create one or more tools or strategies to assist students in identifying what they are doing well and what they need to improve upon in order to meet the targets; and identify both general and individualized human or material resources to support their progress toward the learning target(s).” Standard 15 measures how well the candidate “uses student-voice evidence to identify instructional improvements.” More specifically, to excel, the candidate needs to “collect and reflect on student voice evidence integrated with student work evidence and identify at least one next step for two or more students with different needs” (Stanford, 2014, pp. 28-29). It should also be noted that to measure student voice, like the academic language rubrics, all artifacts for all components are analyzed.

Communicating the edTPA pupil voice modifications to teacher preparation program faculty and teaching candidates has been challenging (not to mention how daunting it is to communicate the upcoming mandate that requires candidates to pass all competencies (not just the student voice criteria) in order to be certified to teach in Washington State. Because of the lengthy compound sentences used throughout the edTPA rubrics, it can be difficult for others to fully internalize the edTPA concepts addressed in the rubrics. Therefore, to facilitate more clarity, it became necessary to develop a two-page more “user friendly” version of the student voice rubrics that divides the rubric sentences into topic and sub-topic levels that both faculty, teaching candidates, and supervising teachers can more easily internalize when determining what specifically must be demonstrated by teaching candidates in order to excel in meeting the student voice component’s criteria. This instrument is called, “A Summary of edTPA Student Voice Criteria and Suggested Activities for Implementation” (See Appendix A).

**A summary of edTPA student voice criteria and suggested activities for implementation.**

Included as part of this instrument are specific activities that can better-enable teaching candidates to pass the edTPA student voice criteria. Some of these ideas are written in parenthesis on the instrument and include a few ideas like teaching candidates using think-pair-share discussions that show collaboration between teacher and pupils. Having pupils team up to develop rubrics that address the target-reinforcing assignments is suggested. Furthermore, obtaining a film clip of these collaborative efforts serves as excellent student voice documentation. Teaching candidates can also meet some edTPA student voice criteria through having pupils complete journal entries and perhaps “earn their ticket” to recess or another activity upon completion of a task. Another suggestion includes implementing the use of a one-page reflection that incorporates ideas measured in student voice rubrics that was designed by this researcher called “The Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils” (See Appendix B).

**The student voice self-assessment for pupils.**

The Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils asks pupils to respond to the following items: (a) What is the target (in your own words, not the teacher’s)? (b) Why is this target important? (c) You know that you have met the target when... (d) How are you progressing towards meeting the target? (Compare your progress to the rubric.) (e) What are your strengths in meeting the target? (f) What do you need to improve upon? (g) What resources are available to help you reach the target? (h) Why are these resources...
helpful? This instrument can be used by pupils at any time during the 3-5 lesson mini-unit that is implemented during the edTPA as a homework or class assignment. It can be broken up so that students respond to a few items at one sitting, or it can be completed entirely in one sitting.

After implementing the Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils (Appendix B) with college students, one college professor shared that her students said that they felt like they were writing an essay and that the task was really difficult. This response validates a very important point that is possibly a symptom of an education system without student voice consistently imbedded. If students aren’t used to being asked questions that require them to “voice” their learning process and are instead, overly dependent on being told what to do, it is, indeed, a difficult task for them to suddenly be asked to reflect. If all students are given opportunities to have a voice in the rubric that will be used to measure their progress in meeting a target (as well as voicing the learning targets, why the targets are important, where they are in relation to the target with regard to their strengths and weaknesses, what resources are available to them and why the resources are useful) throughout their entire K-College education, there is no limit to their aspirations and triumphs.

Conclusion

In this paper, the box-moving example was used to illustrate the importance of student voice in that it facilitates students’ ownership of their learning so that they can be more successful academically and later, in the workplace. Evaluations of current teachers, and state accreditation criteria that imbed student voice were presented as well as an instrument used to evaluate future teachers, the edTPA. The upcoming mandate of teaching candidates being required to pass the edTPA to be certified was discussed as well as how it is already adopted in Washington and Illinois and is being considered in 19 other states. An overview of the edTPA was presented. A discussion on student voice followed, including identifying the Washington-specific student voice criteria. A few instruments that this researcher designed to assist teaching candidates implement student voice effectively in order to better meet the Washington State Teacher Performance Assessment student voice criteria was then provided including, “A Summary of edTPA Student Voice Criteria and Suggested Activities for Implementation” (Appendix A) and “Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils” (Appendix B). In closing, it is important to suggest that it is not desirable that future and current teachers strive to implement student voice in order to just pass the edTPA or meet certification/accreditation requirements, but it is the hope that student voice will be deeply imbedded in educators’ curricula as a result of educators experiencing the satisfaction of witnessing their eager, engaged, and self-motivated pupils learning more through student voice empowering activities.

References


Appendix A
A Summary of edTPA Student Voice Criteria and Suggested Activities for Implementation

Standard 16
Candidate needs to be able to:

- **communicate the learning targets.** (Demonstrate on video clip: Use a visual so you remember!)
- **ask pupils to state target in their own words:** (Demonstrate on video clip or in a reflection. In their reflection, students can complete a portion of the “Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils as a “ticket to lunch or another desirable activity. State what you will do in your plans.)
  - the learning targets.
  - why they are important.
- **refer back to learning targets** during the lesson. (Demonstrate on video clip. This can be part of your closure.)
- **end lessons by asking pupils to reflect** on where they are in relation to reaching the learning targets. (Demonstrate on your video clip and indicate that you will do so in your lesson plans in case you run out of time on your clips. This can also be tackled through pupils completing a journal entry or homework assignment such as the “Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils.”)
- **combine evidence from student voice and student work** for the purpose of teacher reflection and decision making. (This will be demonstrated in your commentary where you analyze student work samples. Complete daily reflections even though they are not required in the edTPA, for your daily reflections can be used as a resource and as documentation for how you are making “next step” decisions.)

Standard 17
(These items will be demonstrated in video clip, plans, and/or commentaries. Record in your plans that you will use the “Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils,” or a journal entry, if this is your intention. Collaborating with your pupils will take a lot of time. Build collaboration into your lesson plans and/or videotape some collaboration between you and your pupils. Give students input in building the rubric you will use as a homework assignment, a group activity, or a reflective journal entry for example. A rubric can be designed by pupils hung on the wall, and used to identify strengths and weaknesses throughout the unit. When/how assessment results of projects/assignments will be shared with class members needs to be recorded in plans since this may or may not be recorded on your video clip. Collaborate on identifying resources and why they are helpful as well.)

**Collaborate with your pupils to:**

- **create one or more tools or strategies to assist pupils in identifying:**
  - their strengths in meeting the target.
  - what they need to improve upon in order to reach the targets.

**Collaborate with your pupils to:**

- **Identify both:**
  - **general human or material resources** to support their progress toward the learning target(s).
  - **individualized** human or material resources to support their progress toward the learning target(s).

Standard 18
(You will demonstrate the following in daily reflections, which you will refer to in your commentaries.)

**You need to:**

- **collect** student voice evidence integrated with student work evidence.
- reflect on student voice evidence integrated with student work evidence.
- identify at least one “next step” for 2 or more pupils with different needs.

**Appendix B**

Student Voice Self-Assessment for Pupils

1. What is the **target** (in your own words, not the teacher’s)?

2. **Why** is this target important? Be specific.

3. **You know** that you have met the target when:

4. How are you **progressing** towards meeting target? Compare your progress to the rubric.
   
   What are your **strengths** in meeting the target?
   What do you need to **improve upon**?

5. What **resources** are available to you to help you reach the target?

**Why** are these resources helpful?
Violent Behaviors Among African American Youth: 
Substance Abuse Connection

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Abstract
The high rate of violence involving adolescents is a significant social and public health problem. This study aimed to determine the prevalence of violent behaviors and substance abuse and also to recognize the causes of these behaviors among African American youth. This study examined underlying social issues to establish a safety network for open communication and emphasis on the importance of self-control among the youth. Results from a large cross sectional survey of African American high school students indicated a strong correlation between substance abuse behaviors and violent tendencies among African American youth. Research findings indicated significant gender differences in substance abuse, especially in relation to hard drugs. Male students had significantly higher rates of binge drinking, marijuana use and cocaine use, while female students were highly involved in alcohol. This study recommends a comprehensive approach to deal with substance use, including tailored interventions for adolescents based on individual differences and considering gender, age, and type of substance involved.

Introduction:
Recently, there are growing concerns of violent tendencies and risky behaviors among preteen and adolescents (Swahn, Bossarte, & Sullivent, 2008). According to CDC, there was decrease in incidence of substance abuse and some violent behaviors in the 90s (CDC 2012). However, there have been significant changes since 2000. Many studies have found significant problems related to adolescents’ substance abuse including suicide, fighting, and other violent behaviors. Researchers have found that pre-teen children who have abused substances appeared to be at great risk of emotional and behavioral difficulty (Kim & Kim, 2015; Swahn et al., 2008) that affected school work negatively and eventually caused the student to drop out of school (CDC 2012, 2007 ). For example, research on alcohol use showed that it not only caused emotional depression and suicide ideation (Kim & Kim, 2015; Swahn, Bossarte, Ashby, & Meyers, 2010), but also led to binge drinking and other abuse of other substances such as smoking, marijuana, and hard drugs. Some studies indicated that female students suffered from suicide ideation and attempts as a result of alcohol abuse (Cho et al., 2007; Kim & Kim, 2010), while males suffered from depression and suicide ideation as a result of smoking (Cho et al., 2007). Moreover, exposure in the pre-teen years to substance abuse including alcohol use was associated with violent tendencies, and risky behaviors including suicide attempts (Kim & Kim, 2010; Swahn et al., 2010). Therefore, risk behaviors in youth are highly correlated to the type of substance individuals used, how long they used it, and when they started.

The main objectives of the study were: 1) To examine the prevalence of violent tendencies and the prevalence of substance abuse in African American youth; and 2) To evaluate the effects of substance abuse on violent behaviors among African American youth. The hypothesis for this study was “indulging in substance abuse will increase the likelihood of involvement in violent tendencies.” This study was based on the 2006 Adolescent Health and Behavior Survey (AHAB) which involved self-reported responses of the large numbers (over 1200 students) of African-American youth who completed the surveys. The large number of respondents afforded the researchers the opportunity to relate the population of youth in these two school cluster areas to the prevalence of violent tendencies and substance abuse among the participants.
Methods

Study Population

The authors/or researchers obtained the data for this study from 8th, 10th and 12th grade students enrolled in two school cluster-areas within an urban South Carolina city, and a school cluster-area in a suburb contiguous to the city. School cluster-area refers to a 9th-12th-grade high school and the 6th-8th-grade middle school(s) and K-5th-grade elementary schools that feed into the high school. The three school cluster-areas are within communities that are the recipients of a five-year comprehensive school/community teen pregnancy prevention and health promotion initiative begun in the fall of 2003.

The Office of Research and Evaluation in the School District coordinated and administered the Adolescent Health Attitudes and Behavior Survey (AHABS) in January 2006. This office regularly administers all district testing and has strict protocols for the designated coordinator and the teachers at each school supervising the testing sessions and data collection. Passive informed consent from parent/guardian was obtained prior to the testing.

Sample

The intent was to survey the entire 8th, 10th and 12th grade populations attending school on the designated testing day. Total population by school and grade is established annually by the District’s “45-Day membership and Attendance Report” for students in the first 45 days of the school year. From 10th and 12th grade students 679 usable surveys were obtained; and from the 8th grade population 542 usable surveys were obtained. Not included were the students absent on the testing day, opt-out students without parent consent, blank answer forms, mutilated answer forms, and answer forms with less than 50 responses. Final sample for the study analysis included 1012 participants upon using all the exclusion criteria.

Instrument and Measures

The Adolescent Health and Behaviors Survey (AHAB survey) was the instrument used in this study. The following instruments were used in the creation of the AHAB survey instrument: CDC Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS), the Adolescent Curriculum Evaluation (ACE), the Youth Sensitive Survey, and the Survey of Student Resources and Assets by the Search Institute. The content validity has been established through an extensive review of literature, a group process and factor analyses (Reininger 2003). Reliability was established through Cronbach’s α coefficients. Factor loadings ranged from 0.48 to 0.84 for scales measuring attitudes towards adolescent sexual behavior and α coefficients ranged from 0.61 to 0.81. Factor loadings ranged from 0.34 to 0.90 for scales measuring youth asset and α coefficients ranged from 0.69 to 0.85.

Variables used for this study included violent behaviors, substance abuse and suicidal tendencies. Figures 1 and 2 represent the specific variables used for this study. Violent behaviors were measured by the questions: indulgence in physical fight in the past 3 days; carried a weapon in the past 30 days; and ever attempted suicide. Inconsistent and improper responses towards grade levels, gender, and questions related to indulging in physical fight accounted towards exclusion criteria for this study. The variables for substance abuse were derived mainly from the questions regarding cigarette smoking; alcohol consumption; binge drinking; use of marijuana; use of cocaine; glue sniffing and other inhalants in the past 30 days. All questions regarding substance abuse was based on specific behaviors attempted in the past 30 days – and were coded as yes/no.

Analysis

Basic descriptive statistics included means, and percentages of the study variables categorized by grade levels. The null hypothesis for the study stated substance abuse has no effects on violent behaviors among 8th, 10th and 12th graders. Testing the hypothesis was done using chi-squares for all the variables. The level of significance was set for \( p = 0.05 \) for all analyses.

Results

Violent Tendencies by gender:

Figure 1 represents the prevalence of violent tendencies by gender. Boys had a significantly higher rates of most substance abuse variables including smoked cigarettes in past 30 days, smoked marijuana in past 30 days, used crack / cocaine in past 30 days and sniffed glue / aerosols in past 30 days. Girls had a slightly rate of alcohol consumed (29%) in past 30 days than boys (28%). However, this difference was
not statistically significant. Although girls had higher incidence of overall alcohol consumption, binge drinking was significantly higher among boys (14%) than girls.

**Substance abuse by gender:**

Figure 2 represents the prevalence of violent tendencies by gender. Boys had significantly higher rates of weapon carrying (23%) and involving in physical fight (43%) compared to girls (10% and 35% respectively). Boys had a higher percentage of ever attempted suicide (91%) compared to girls (86%). However, this difference was not statistically significant.

**Substance abuse and violent tendencies:**

Table 1 represents the correlation between violent tendencies and substance abuse behaviors, testing the study hypothesis. All the study variables for violent tendencies had a statistically significant correlation with all the substance abuse behaviors. Cocaine users had the highest risk for indulging in physical fight and weapon carrying compared to all other behaviors. Glue sniffing was significantly associated with all the violent behaviors. Highest rates of attempting suicide were found among cigarette smokers, followed by cocaine use and other risk behaviors. All students who attempted suicide at least once had smoked in the last 30 days.

**Discussion:**

This study echoed previous research which studied the relationship between substance abuse and violent behaviors in youth (Kim & Kim, 2010; Swahn et al., 2010). Like other studies, our study indicated that adolescents indulging in substance abuse had greater risk of violent tendencies compared to those who did not. This study showed there were gender differences in substance abuse, especially in relation to hard drugs. Male students had significantly higher rates of binge drinking, marijuana use and cocaine use, while female students were highly involved in alcohol consumption and cigarette smoking. These findings related to gender differences are consistent with other studies.

Cocaine users, binge drinkers, and glue sniffing users in that order tended to carry weapons, according to this study. The order for tendencies to be involved in physical fights was cocaine users, glue sniffing users, and binge drinkers. Thus, cocaine users had the highest risk for both physical fights and weapon carrying compared to other risky behaviors. The highest rates of attempting suicide were found among cigarette smokers who reported attempting suicide at least once when having smoked in the last 30 days. The correlation for cigarette smokers was followed by cocaine users and glue sniffing users.

All measures had significant differences when violent tendencies were compared with substance abuse (Cho et al., 2007). Indulgence in one or more substance abusive behavior has been shown to result in greater likelihood of violent tendencies (Cho et al., 2007).

Our study demonstrated a great need for a comprehensive approach to deal with substance use, including individually tailored interventions for adolescents that require considering differences by gender, age, and type of substance involved (Swahn et al., 2010). To that end, these programs should include procedures for screening children and adolescents in order to check early exposure to addictive substances (Swahn et al., 2008). Furthermore, counsellors and mental health professionals should be considered an essential part of the program in the schools. These professionals can contribute to increasing awareness of the high association between substance abuse and violence by educating youth and teachers about the effects of risky behaviors (Swahn et al., 2010). Acknowledging that the children and adolescents live in a risky community with easy access to addictive substances, counsellors and mental health professionals should work to help establish collaborative relationships among schools, homes, and the community (Swahn et al., 2008).

**Strength and limitations:**

This study had several statistically significant findings. First of all, this study had a large sample size (more than 1200 students completing the surveys) and also included a range of questions that encouraged the participants to reveal their experiences of substance use and violent tendencies. Secondly, research findings provide experts and educators with strong reasons for early preventive education and tailored interventions for both girls and boys. These tailored interventions should take biological and social gender related characteristics into consideration.

Nonetheless, this study has a few limitations. First of all, the data collected relied on students’ anonymous and self-reported responses, which prevented researchers from identifying and providing
assistance for them. Secondly, this study involved only one ethnic group of adolescents, African American youth, who lived in a high risk community in an urban city in one southern state. Therefore it cannot be generalized to examine racial or ethnic differences or other areas. Thirdly, even though this study showed apparent gender differences in substance abuse, it had difficulty explaining or exploring some gender-specific substance use behaviors in detail. Finally, the data were collected in 2006, and may have changed in the intervening years.

Conclusions
Results of this study showed the magnitude of risky behaviors and the prevalence of substance abuse among African American youth in a high risk community in an urban city in South Carolina. Research findings indicated that there were gender differences between substance abuse and violent behaviors. Since a lot of middle school students were found to be indulging in substance abuse, interventions should be designed to target children and adolescents, not only to increase awareness of the high association between substance abuse and violent behaviors, but also to reduce the incidence. Furthermore, specific interventions should be tailored for schools having significant African American populations to make it culturally appropriate. The study indicates that the number of children and adolescents at risk for substance abuse can be significantly reduced by implementing a comprehensive approach which includes tailored interventions, procedures for screening students for early exposure to addictive substances, and providing counsellors and mental health professionals in the schools.

References
**Figure 1:** Prevalence of Risky Behaviors By Gender

![Bar chart showing prevalence of risky behaviors by gender with specific questions and their respective genders' percentages.]

- **Q13:** Smoked cigarettes in past 30 days
- **Q14:** Consumed alcohol in past 30 days
- **Q15:** Binge drinking in past 30 days
- **Q16:** Used marijuana in past 30 days
- **Q17:** Used crack/cocaine in past 30 days
- **Q18:** Sniffed glue/aerosols in past 30 days

**Figure 2:** Prevalence of Violent Tendencies by Gender

![Bar chart showing prevalence of violent tendencies by gender with specific questions and their respective genders' percentages.]

- **Q9:** Carried a weapon in past 30 days
- **Q10:** Involved in physical fight in last 12 months
- **Q12:** Ever attempted suicide
Table 1: Prevalence of Substance Among Students Having Violent Tendencies

<table>
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<th>Violent Behavior</th>
<th>Q13 (%)</th>
<th>Q14 (%)</th>
<th>Q15 (%)</th>
<th>Q16 (%)</th>
<th>Q17 (%)</th>
<th>Q18 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carried a weapon in past 30 days</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>69.1</td>
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<td>11.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>13.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Involved in physical fight in last 12 months</td>
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<td>63.7</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>69.4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>31.5</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ever attempted suicide</td>
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<td>18.1</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>33.9</td>
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<td>9.9</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend:
- Q13 Smoked cigarettes in past 30 days
- Q14 Consumed alcohol in past 30 days
- Q15 Binge drinking in past 30 days
- Q16 Used marijuana in past 30 days
- Q17 Used crack/cocaine in past 30 days
- Q18 Sniffed glue/aerosols in past 30 days
Opportunities and Barriers for Community-Engaged Scholarship: An Exploratory Study at a Comprehensive University

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Juhong Christie Liu
Edward J. Brantmeier
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Abstract
Community-engaged scholarship (CES) overlaps the traditional boundaries among research, teaching, and service in higher education. This exploratory study identifies opportunities and barriers for faculty member’s participation in CES at an undergraduate-focused university. The study was conducted using a newly developed survey instrument to assess its participation and related barriers through analysis of available university reports. The results indicate that while participation in CES varies, there is a clear interest in this type of scholarship. Barriers for both those currently conducting and currently not conducting CES include teaching load, logistics of getting started, and access to communities. CES has many benefits for both institutions of higher education and the community. This study provides insight and a basis to consider how CES can potentially gain visibility on similar campuses.

Introduction
Community-engaged scholarship (CES) holds the potential for integrating the traditional boundaries among research, teaching, and service in higher education (CCPH, 2013a). According to Boyer (1990), there are four separate, yet overlapping types of scholarship: discovery, integration, application and teaching. Scholarship can be generated through a variety of activities within and outside the traditional forms. CES, often situated in the scholarship of application, integration, and sometimes scholarship of teaching and learning categories of Boyer’s typology, can connect higher education, where original research or traditional scholarship occurs, to the adjacent community (Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010). Boyer (1990) outlines a number of benefits to CES, including the enabling of scholars to effectively reevaluate their research, to explore possibilities of putting theory into practice, to effectively communicate knowledge to communities, and to utilize knowledge to provide consultation or services. Because CES integrates learning, research, and service, it has the potential for creating a mutually beneficial environment between faculty at institutions of higher learning and the adjunct community (CCPH, 2013b) (Figure 1).

Community-engaged scholarship is multifaceted, and involves a wide range of activities, including:

- **teaching** that is oriented toward practical theories and concepts in combination with structured service-learning based in communities with reflections;
- **research** projects that equally involve community members and academic researchers;
- **clinical care** projects and/or services in which academic partners respond to the needs of local communities; and
- practicing **outreach** with the professional knowledge to raise community awareness to certain social phenomenon, and advocate corresponding possible solutions (Calleson, Jordan, & Seifer, 2005, p. 318).
Rather than isolated research in the confines of the university, the thread that ties these activities together is connecting to people and to communities where scholarship has the potential for real world impact focusing on some of the most pressing problems of society and the natural world (Calleson, Jordan, & Seifer, 2005; Hynie, Jensen, Johnny, Wedlock, & Phipps, 2011). The history of CES can be traced to physicians in the mid-twentieth century who maintained a close connection with the communities they served, often providing care within patients' homes (Steiner, Calleson, Curtis, Goldstein, & Denham, 2005). Many physicians continue to be involved in community activities, within and outside of their profession (Steiner, Calleson, Curtis, Goldstein, & Denham, 2005). Over the past several decades, there have been significant efforts in broadening CES to disciplines beyond medical and health care professions. Some disciplines are more likely to participate in CES activities (Calleson, Jordan, & Seifer, 2005; Moore & Ward, 2010). Disciplines in education often provide learning opportunities as outreach programs to those residing in the community. For example, social workers and educators engage in ongoing data collection via community-based, participatory research to provide better services to their clients (Jagosh et al., 2012; Marullo & Edwards, 2000). Disciplines in health sciences often provide clinic-based education and services to benefit patients. These forms of engagement connect professional learning to communities and people, beyond the brick and mortar confines of the traditional university setting (Hynie, Jensen, Johnny, Wedlock, & Phipps, 2011; Lockwood, Lockwood, Krajewski-Jaime, & Wieneck, 2011). These will also lay a solid foundation in the basic sciences to develop a multidimensional paradigm for community interventions (Trickett, et al. 2011).

This exploratory study provides an overview of the opportunities and barriers faculty perceive related to community-engaged research at a master’s level public university.

**Literature Review**

There seems to be an interest in CES however significant barriers exist. Moore and Ward (2010) interviewed 20 full-time faculty from 15 research institutions about their perceptions on both anticipated support and barriers to CES (Moore, 2010). They found that while the faculty in their study attempted to connect teaching and research to their functional contexts, the prevailing definition of scholarship, and limited funding remained barriers to CES. The study suggests that support including funding, institutional commitment to CES, and a good mentoring system could serve to increase implementation of CES (Moore, 2010).

Faculty development opportunities could be critical to achieving placement of community-engaged research on faculty research agendas. There have been multiple studies in higher education institutions that serve to raise awareness of the importance of CES in faculty development (Gelmon, Blanchard, Ryan, & Seifer, 2012). These studies have found that institutions that participated in CES programs have benefited from the process, such as updated tenure and promotion policies that include CES activities, innovative faculty development programs to help build CES-based research portfolios, and new dissemination channels for CES products (Hamel-Lambert, Millesen, Harter, & Slovak, 2012; Jordan et al., 2012).

A trend in outreach and engagement programs is to integrate service-learning opportunities into curriculum design. According to the Association of American Colleges and Universities, service learning is a high impact educational practice that fosters significant learning outcomes (available at https://www.aacu.org/leap/hip.cfm). Service-learning can connect learning within the classroom to real world practice and application (Cashman & Seifer, 2008; Hynie, Jensen, Johnny, Wedlock, & Phipps, 2011). For faculty members, these project-based activities can connect them to their local communities, as well as provide opportunities for conducting applied and participatory research (Nicotera, Cutforth, Fretz, & Summers Thompson, 2011). There are a variety of benefits associated with participatory research, both for the development of faculty and the community (Jagosh et al., 2012). For example, Moore and Ward (2010) found that in service-learning the impact of teaching and learning is not limited to the teacher and student, but also extends to those in the community. CES can enrich the learning environment and benefit the community as a whole.
Advocates of CES maintain that in order to increase adoption of CES, it is important to communicate to all members in higher education institutions (Rogers, 2003; Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). Previous studies have shown that engaging in CES is an educational process (Lockwood, Lockwood, Krajewski-Jaime, & Wiencek, 2011). For example, showcasing successes in CES can provide administrative leaders examples of the value that CES can bring to both the institution and their adjacent community. A review of the current perception of opportunities and barriers to CES in a higher education institution is essential to begin this educational process. There are a number of factors that can affect the expansion of CES in higher education. These factors include institutional culture, curriculum structure, tenure and promotion, professional value of scholarship, and resources including funding.

**Background**

James Madison University (JMU) is a comprehensive public institution of higher education in the Commonwealth of Virginia. The University offers programs at the bachelor’s, master’s and doctoral levels. There are 19,927 enrolled students at JMU, the majority of whom are undergraduates (91%) from the state of Virginia (72%) (JMU, 2013a). JMU’s mission and value statements are student focused (JMU, 2013b), and there is a strong emphasis on teaching. JMU is an ideal environment for conducting CES because of the institution’s focus on teaching coupled with engagement in scholarship. JMU defines its approach to research and development as an interdisciplinary student-oriented approach where proposals and projects are developed in response to identified societal needs that emphasize student and community engagement (JMU, 2012). The Faculty Research Council at JMU developed a document to provide a common understanding of scholarship at the university, which adopts Boyer’s (Boyer, 1990) classification of scholarship in four key areas: (1) Discovery, (2) Teaching, (3) Application, and (4) Integration (JMU, 2013c). This classification of scholarship is compatible with CES.

JMU’s emphasis on community engagement, particularly through service learning programs, is reflected in the University being selected by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as one of 115 colleges and universities for its 2010 Community Engagement Classification. The importance of community engagement is further reflected in JMU’s portfolio of funded research. As seen in Figure 2, funding for public service and outreach accounts for about a quarter of the total award portfolio from 2001 to 2013.

While some of JMU’s attributes make it a well-suited environment to conduct CES, evidence suggests that there are barriers that keep some faculty from engaging in this form of scholarship. For example, while the approach between research and teaching is intended to be balanced (JMU, 2012), a recent study conducted at JMU suggests that faculty perceive an increased expectation for scholarly production without the sufficient support of resources (e.g. time or funding) to conduct the research (CFI, 2010). Perceived expectation, coupled with perceived lack of resources, can create conditions of pressure and stress related to scholarly productivity.

Because of these perceived barriers, a group of interdisciplinary faculty members at JMU spent one academic year (2012-2013) exploring the topic of CES in a dynamic learning environment. The authors received support from the Center for Faculty Innovation (CFI) at JMU. In 2009 the CFI began offering yearlong research fellowships (known as the Madison Research Fellows) that bring faculty from various disciplines together to explore current topics in higher education. The 2012-2013 Madison Research Fellows focused on exploring Community Engaged Research. The goals of the fellowship were to 1) understand the current status among JMU faculty, 2) access the perceived support and challenges in practicing CES and 3) investigate the culture of CES at JMU.

**Methodology**

The authors decided to meet with various university partners who were involved in community-engaged research on campus to obtain input in preparation for the study. The literature and in-depth conversations with offices and administrators with vested interests in community-engaged research served to set the boundary conditions for the research (Creswell, 2013). The conversations were not part of the
data collection process, but used to gain preliminary background information. Stebbins (2001) describes this type of exploratory study as being flexible and open-minded in his text on Exploratory Research in Social Sciences. A close-ended survey instrument was developed to assess CES activity at JMU and barriers to participation in this type of scholarship. After receiving Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the survey was sent to all full-time faculty via email. The survey was administered via Qualtrics and remained open for two weeks between March and April 2013. Each email to the faculty contained a cover letter stating that by completing the survey, they give consent to participate. Similarly the web-based consent form included the same cover letter on the front page of the survey. Only after a participant read the letter and gave consent, could they proceed to the survey questions on the subsequent page. A reminder was sent a week after the initial email with the survey.

The researchers perceived no more than minimal risks from participation in this study. All participants were at least 18 years of age, and participation was entirely voluntary. Participants could withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. However, once survey responses were submitted and anonymously recorded, participants were unable to withdraw from the study.

In addition to the survey data, the authors obtained the funding report from the Office of Sponsored Programs for the fiscal year 2012 to assess the similarities in the survey funding responses and actual funded proposals at JMU. This was done to compare funded research with survey findings. The authors reviewed the summary of each award and using key words categorized the funding amount based on the categories of scholarship listed in the surveys. The categories included 1) research, 2) service-learning, 3) clinical-based research, 4) secondary data analysis, 5) conducting professional development, 6) project-based activities, 7) program evaluation, and 8) other.

Results

Of the 121 survey respondents, 81 (67%) stated that they participated in CES, while 40 (33%) did not. For the purposes of this study, CES could “apply to teaching (e.g. service-learning), research (e.g., community-based participatory research), community-responsive clinical and population-based care (e.g., community-oriented primary care, academic public health practice), and service (e.g., community service, outreach, advocacy)” (Calleson et al., 2005).

Of the faculty who conduct CES, most were at the local (n=46) and regional (n=23) levels. The nature of the CES being conducted included 1) research (n=30), 2) service-learning (n=26), 3) project-based activities (n=23), 4) conducting professional development and training (n=15), and 5) program evaluation (n=11). Many of the faculty participating in CES involved students (n=41) in projects. Forty-two percent of those involved in CES state that their academic department considers this type of research as scholarship for tenure and promotion purposes.

Of the 81 individuals who stated that they did participate or are participating in CES, the perceived barriers included 1) teaching load, 2) funding, 3) resources, 4) logistics of getting started, and 5) access to the community and opportunities. Figure 3 shows the comparison of rank orders of these barriers by those who currently conduct CES. Table 1 shows the number of responses, average rank score, and standard deviation for each barrier.

Of the 40 individuals who stated that they are not currently conducting CES, 15 (38%) indicated that they would like to engage in this type of scholarship. When asked about the perceived barriers associated with conducting CES, individuals who are not currently participating in CES, stated that key barriers included 1) teaching load, 2) logistics of getting started, 3) resources, 4) access to community connections and opportunities, and 5) funding. Figure 4 shows the comparison of rank orders of these barriers by those who currently are not conducting CES. Table 2 shows the number of responses, average rank score, and standard deviation for each barrier.

Respondents who indicated that they do participate in CES were from health & behavioral studies (22.8%), integrated science and engineering (21.6%), and arts & letters (19%) (Figure 5). As a point of comparison between the survey results and the portfolio of externally sponsored research at JMU, the authors categorized the funded research for the 2012 fiscal year (The 2013 research funding data was not available at the time of this study.) The authors created the CES categories based on the definition used
for this study. Based on this review, project-based activities received the majority of funding, followed by professional development, research, and program evaluation. The other categories that involved funding did not fall under any of the CES categories. While generally this seemed consistent with data on the total award numbers and amount received at JMU, it is notable because of the differences in the funding profile for professional development.

Conclusion and Discussion

This exploratory study revealed some of the opportunities and challenges of CES at a mid-size undergraduate-focused university. The results indicate that there is a clear interest in CES among survey respondents, and that CES seems to be valued among departments when considering tenure and promotion. The study also found that respondents engaging in CES often involve students in their research.

While survey respondents were interested and engaged in CES, there were barriers that make participation a challenge. Teaching load was a clear barrier for both those who currently conduct CES and those who do not. This finding is consistent with other studies conducted on research and scholarship in general (e.g. see Wise (2007) and CFI (2010)). Having a heavy teaching load makes engaging in any scholarship a challenge, especially CES which can be more time consuming than other types of scholarship.

Addressing the barrier of teaching load would be challenging and multifaceted, other barriers identified by respondents could have more direct solutions. For example, the second ranked barrier by respondents not currently conducting CES was the logistics of getting started in this type of scholarship. This barrier could be reduced by creating CES-orientated professional development opportunities. This could take the form of a faculty mentorship program that pairs those currently working on CES projects with faculty interested in this form of scholarship. Another barrier identified by respondents not currently conducting CES was access to community connections and opportunities. Making faculty aware of a university active community service-learning program, which has many connections to local community organizations, could help with access to the community. Many faculty currently use this program as a resource to engage with the community. The time to plan and to engage, professional and institutional support, and community connections are pivotal to foster faculty involvement with community-engaged research; the challenges are clear and solutions abound. CES offers mutually beneficial outcomes to faculty, students, and the communities in which they live and serve.

Limitations:

One limitation to the study was the use of a convenience sample. All JMU faculty were sent an email with a link to the survey instrument. Therefore, there is a lack generalizing in this study. The response rate was low and may reflect the limited amount of CES research being conducted at JMU. Another limitation was the use of a newly developed survey instrument. This is a clear threat to internal validity. Since the research on conducting CES including perceived barriers is limited there was no existing survey instrument appropriate for this study. This limited instrumentation in conducting this form of scholarship served as a gap in the knowledge that the researchers wanted to explore through the Madison Research Fellowship.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge the Center for Faculty Innovation (CFI) at James Madison University, including the Assistant Director Edward Brantmeier, for their support and guidance on this project. Authors would also like to thank the faculty and administrators who participated in the in-depth discussions on CES.
References


Figure 1. Overlapping of Boyer’s classification of scholarships (Boyer, 1990; O’Meara & Rice, 2005).

Figure 2. Annual awards from 2001 to 2013. Data source: JMU’s Office of Sponsored Programs
Figure 3. Rank order of barriers for those currently conducting CES, with "1" being the most significant barrier and "10" being the least significant barrier in the survey.

Table 1
Rank order of barriers for those currently conducting CES and the number of responses per barrier

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Barrier to Conducting CES</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching Load</td>
<td>46</td>
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<td>2.52</td>
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<tr>
<td>Funding</td>
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<td>Access to community</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Concern over ability to publish findings</td>
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<td>6.39</td>
<td>2.27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promotion concerns</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>2.95</td>
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</table>
Figure 4. Rank order of barriers for those currently not conducting CES, with "1" being the most significant barrier and "10" being the least significant barrier in the survey.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Barrier to Conducting CES</th>
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<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Teaching Load</td>
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<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics of getting started</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
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<td>1.76</td>
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<td>Access to community</td>
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<td>Promotion concerns</td>
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<td>Concern over ability to publish findings</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>0.84</td>
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Figure 5. Distribution of faculty participation in CES by colleges
By the Numbers:
How Message Framing Affects Opinions about National Statistics

Colleen McDonough,
Ramona Palmerio-Roberts,
Maria Teresa de Gordon
Neumann University

Abstract
The purpose of this study was to investigate how the framing of statistical information would affect judgments of national issues. Two groups of undergraduates read various accurate current statistics and were asked to share their opinions of each. The statistics were presented with slightly different message frames to each group. When one group was presented with a percentage (i.e., more than 80% of children in our country are above the poverty level), the other group was presented with the same information from the opposite influence perspective using raw numbers (i.e., 15 million children in this country are living below the poverty level). The statistics were counterbalanced so that each group received an equal number of percentages and raw numbers. Results show that message frame matters. On 8/10 of the statistics, opinions were significantly different depending on message frame. These findings can be considered in light of how the political ideology of various news outlets has the ability to shape people’s opinions through the use of selective framing of statistical information.

Background
Huff’s (1954, 1982) book “How to Lie with Statistics” details various methods of fudging and data manipulation, like biased samples, misleading graphics, and meaningless statistics, all that have the power to manipulate the innocent bystander. Skilled politicians and ideological newsmakers are adept at utilizing numbers to convince the masses to join, or remain on, their side. Cries of media bias are not new, and actual empirical research does demonstrate genuine media bias. Groeling (2008) found substantial bias on all networks tested (ABC, CBS, NBC, and Fox News), and Druckman and Parkin (2005) found that the editorial slant was related to coverage of a national Senate campaign. Others have targeted, and found bias in both verbal (Holtzman, Schott, Jones, Balota, & Yakoni, 2011) and nonverbal (Babad & Peer, 2010) aspects of the major news outlets, and this phenomenon is not limited to the United States (Gerth & Siegert, 2011).

Message framing is an effective tactic utilized by those trying to influence others. Van Gorp, Vettehen and Beentjes (2009) found a significant difference of opinion depending on whether immigrants to the Netherlands were portrayed as innocent victims or intruders. Loroz (2007) reported that the most positive attitudes about recycling were found when 1) focusing on the benefit to the community and 2) focusing on the negative impact of not recycling to the self. She also found more positive attitudes about safe sex when focusing on the benefit to the community. Lee (2013) found that when subjects had an external locus of control (i.e., the issue was global), their attitudes and intentions about the environment (trash) varied depending on whether the message was framed with a guilt- or non-guilt tone.

Going a step further, can message framing shape actual behavior? Tversky & Kahneman’s (1981) research proposes that people will make different decisions when presented with information in terms of gains or losses. Kidwell, Farmer & Hardesty (2013) found that framing an environmental message (recycling) as “the right thing to do” resonates more with liberals and “joining the fight” resonates more with conservatives. They weighed actual recycle bins and demonstrated greater recycling behavior when the message frame and political ideology matched. Updegraff, Brick, Emanuel, Mintzer, and Sherman
(2015) reported increased flossing when the gain/loss messages matched participants’ preexisting beliefs. Rothman and Salovey (1997), in a meta-analysis of published studies, found evidence that people make different health decisions depending on whether a health message is presented in terms of personal gains or losses. Importantly, the message framing research typically involves some sort of overt written or verbal persuasion, in which participants are presented with a detailed argument to evaluate. But what happens when you don’t “lie” at all, but rather, present simple data in a way that emphasizes a particular point of view? During the national build-up toward The Affordable Care Act in the United States, one news outlet shared that “90% of people in this country have health insurance,” while another indicated that “30 million Americans do not have access to health insurance.” Both numbers are in fact accurate, the same data presented in different ways to convince the audience to support a particular point of view. Can people be persuaded simply by reading a carefully framed statistic? And does the framing of the statistic affect how people interpret an issue? The purpose of this study was to investigate how framing of a sequence of statistics in the United States affects opinions about national issues, among a sample of relatively naïve participants. Undergraduate students were given a series of simple sentences containing national statistics, and then asked to give a forced-choice dichotomous opinion of each. Our hypothesis was that participants would have different opinions depending on how the message was framed for each issue.

Materials and Methods

Participants

88 undergraduates enrolled in four lower-division psychology courses were invited to complete our online survey. A total of 75 students participated (85.22% participation rate). No demographic or identifying information was collected on the actual surveys, but the students enrolled in the four sections were representative of our student population overall, both male and female and of proportional racial and ethnic backgrounds. Participation was voluntary and no inducements were given. We looked to previous research on message frames to determine a suitable sample size; sample sizes ranged from 82 (Kidwell et al., 2013) all the way up to 855 (Updegraff et al., 2015). On the conservative end, we aimed for about 80 participants. There was no stopping rule employed; we included all subjects who completed the survey.

Measures

A ten-item survey was constructed using Google Forms that contained statements with statistics on the following topics: healthcare, gender equality, race, poverty, immigration, employment, and drug use. Some topics were interdisciplinary and spanned multiple questions such as female employment. Two different versions of the survey were created, each presenting the statistic from a different perspective. For example, some participants read that “Women broke a record this year…24 Fortune 500 companies were led by women CEOs,” while other participants read “Women broke a record this year…yet 95% of Fortune 500 companies were still led by men.” Each statement was followed by a question with a dichotomous response to gauge participants’ opinions about the statistic. In this case, the question was “How does this make you feel about the progress being made by women in the work force?” with their possible responses being “Good” or “Bad.” Each version contained five statistics presented as raw numbers and five statistics presented as percentages to prevent yay-saying and nay-saying. Participants were randomly assigned to Version 1 or 2. Thirty eight participants completed Version 1; 37 participants completed Version 2.

Results

The 2X2 chi square test of independence was computed for each of the ten items on the survey. The IV was the version (1 or 2) while the DV was the response to question (Yes/No or Good/Bad). Of the ten items, eight significant effects were found. People were more likely to agree that we needed Obamacare when presented with “30 million people do not have healthcare” vs. “90% of people have healthcare and like it” ($\chi^2(1)=8.71, p=.003$). People were more likely to agree that childhood poverty was a problem when presented with “There are 15 million children in poverty” vs. “80% of children are above the poverty line” ($\chi^2(1)=14.39, p<.001$). People were more likely to agree that illegal immigration is a
problem when presented with “There are 11 million illegals in the United States” vs. “96.4% of the U.S. population is legal” ($\chi^2(1)=7.33, p=.007$). People were more likely to agree that depression is a big problem in the U.S. when presented with “30 million people are taking antidepressants” vs. “90% of people are not taking antidepressants” ($\chi^2(1)=15.73, p<.001$). People were more likely to agree that a college degree pays off when presented with “college grads make $830,000 more over a lifetime” vs. “$1 high school = $1.65 college” ($\chi^2(1)=5.39, p=.02$). People were more likely to agree that cigarettes are a problem among young people when presented with “700,000 high school seniors smoke” vs. “16% of high school seniors smoke” ($\chi^2(1)=5.00, p=.03$). People were less likely to agree that women were making progress in the work force when presented with “95% of Fortune 500 CEOs are Male” vs. “24 Fortune 500 CEOs are Female” ($\chi^2(1)=5.36, p=.02$). Finally, people were less likely to agree that women were making progress in the military when presented with “90% of Admirals/Generals are Male” vs. “69 women are Admirals/Generals” ($\chi^2(1)=11.7, p<.001$).

Both of the non-significant items were in the expected direction, with, possibly, not enough power to reach significance. There was no difference in opinions about whether there were ethnic disparities in jail when presented with “2% of the black population is in jail” vs. “43% of the jail population is black” ($\chi^2(1)=2.26, p=.13$). There was also no difference in opinions about whether blacks are underrepresented in the work force when presented with “11.4% of blacks are unemployed” vs. “2 million blacks are unemployed” ($\chi^2(1)=1.07, p>.25$).

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to determine whether message framing of national issues could shape young people’s opinions. Our working hypothesis was that participants would have different opinions about these issues depending on how the message was framed. We found strong evidence to support our hypothesis, with eight out of ten of our items reaching statistical significance. On issues dealing with national healthcare, gender equality, poverty, immigration, employment, and drug use, participants expressed significantly different opinions on a dichotomous response measure depending on whether the information was presented as a number or a percentage. These results demonstrate clearly that framing of simple statistics shapes opinions among a sample of relatively naïve participants, at least in the short-term.

Interestingly, the two items that failed to reach significance were both about race/ethnicity, which raises the questions about whether there is some implicit bias present in some of the participants. Most of the other questions on the survey dealt with topics that have little direct and obvious impact on undergraduates (childhood poverty, immigration, healthcare, etc.), so shaping their views may have been easier with such items. Note that our student body is 46% non-white, and the surrounding area that feeds into our school is also highly diverse, so it can be argued that our participants have had ample opportunity to interact with, and form opinions about, race. Since race is such a salient issue in the United States, it’s possible that our results were impacted by their pre-existing opinions.

Our findings are consistent with previous research demonstrating an impact of message framing (Kidwell, Farmer, & Hardesty, 2013; Lee, 2013; Loroz, 2007; Rothman & Salovey, 1997; Updegraff et al., 2015; Van Gorp, Vettehen, & Beentjes, 2009). Importantly, our findings extend previous work by 1) including a wide variety of hot-button political issues that the major news networks cover on a regular basis, and 2) by demonstrating that the simple presentation of a carefully-framed statistic is enough to sway people to a particular point of view. If reading a single statement can shape opinions so strongly, imagine how consistent, continual, biased coverage (from watching only a single news station or reading a single newspaper) can control the masses. On a positive note, Babad, Peer, & Hobbs (2012) report that students high in media literacy are less susceptible to media bias, but unfortunately, media literacy is not widespread, especially among young people.

This study opens wide the door for a number of future studies. First, although this study clearly demonstrates that opinions are shaped in the short-term, we still do not know whether the participants will have long-term attitude change, or whether their attitudes will affect their actual behavior. Future research will incorporate both longitudinal, and behavioral measures. Another important follow-up will be to
determine how participants react to actual, or replicated, video news clips that frame statistical information as in this study. Future research should also tease apart the impact of pre-existing opinions such as those that may have shaped answers on our race-based questions, as well as self-identified political affiliation. Finally, an investigation into the impact of media literacy on these findings is critical.

Conclusion

This research demonstrates, quite strongly, the impact of message framing in shaping undergraduate students’ opinions about hot-button current events. Media outlets need not “lie” to convince others to join their cause; they merely need to frame their statistics in a manner (percentage or raw number, focusing on the positives or the negatives) that influences viewers to agree.

References


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Frame 1</th>
<th>Frame 2</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did we need Obamacare?</td>
<td>Prior to Obamacare, 30 million people did not have healthcare</td>
<td>Prior to Obamacare, 90% of people had healthcare and liked it</td>
<td>.003</td>
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<tr>
<td>Is childhood poverty a problem?</td>
<td>There are 15 million children in poverty</td>
<td>80% of children are above the poverty line</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Is illegal immigration a problem?</td>
<td>There are 11 million illegals in the United States</td>
<td>96.4% of the U.S. population is legal</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is depression a problem?</td>
<td>30 million people are taking antidepressants</td>
<td>90% of people are not taking antidepressants</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does a college degree pay off?</td>
<td>College grads make $830,000 more over a lifetime</td>
<td>$1 high school = $1.65 college</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are cigarettes a problem among youth?</td>
<td>700,000 high school seniors smoke</td>
<td>16% of high school seniors smoke</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are women making progress in the workplace?</td>
<td>95% of Fortune 500 CEOs are Male</td>
<td>24 Fortune 500 CEOs are Female</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are women making progress in the military?</td>
<td>90% of Admirals/Generals are Male</td>
<td>69 women are Admirals/Generals</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there ethnic disparities in jail?</td>
<td>2% of the black population is in jail</td>
<td>43% of the jail population is black</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are blacks underrepresented in the workforce?</td>
<td>11.4% of blacks are unemployed</td>
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<td>n.s.</td>
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* Item with higher levels of agreement is indicated by italics
Has the “Perpetuum Mobile” Age Arrived?

Noel Packard
Independent Scholar

Introduction

This paper is a sequel to an earlier one published in the National Social Science Journal titled, "Information, appropriation, value and questions" (2015, a) and another paper titled, “Profiling the Machine Age into the “perpetual mobile”” in the Innovative Journal of Business and Management (2015, b). These papers build on one another in an experimental way to conceptualize electronic memory and the social relations that create it, framed within Marxian methodology. The purpose of this sequel exercise is twofold. First, this is an exercise in ascribing a Marxian inspired theoretical model to electronic memory for the following reasons. To begin with, long-standing debates about collective memory, as opposed to individual memory, or narrative, have theoretical and methodological orientations ascribed to them in social science literature. For example, Durkheim and Halbwachs championed collective memory theory as a form of social solidarity, while Jane Addams and George H. Mead both saw social change potential manifest in individual, narrative memory (Packard 2009 a, b, 2013). In either case, however, both individual and collective memory died when people who remembered, died. Electronic memory poses challenges to both individual and collective memory, since it is used to store both individual and collective memory (outside the human) and can “live on” after humans die. To include this third kind of memory in the so-called memory debates, regarding collective v. individual memory, electronic memory is experimentally ascribed a Marx inspired theoretical and methodological framework here, to give it theoretical standing in these debates about the social role and function of different kinds of memory. The second purpose of this experimental application of Marxian theory to the social relations of electronic memory is to test whether Marxian theoretical methods are useful when applied to non-tangible electronic commodities, in contrast to tangible commodities, which are the product of human labor to be sold for profit in a market place that exists not in cyberspace, but in a physical, tangible, location. In other words, in today’s information age environment, can Marxian concepts be usefully applied to non-tangible the products of electronic memory, a digital market place and electronic banking? This question helps drive forward this experimental quest to find a theoretical framework for electronic memory that differentiates it from theories about human and collective memory and gives electronic memory standing in these debates about the role and importance of memory in society. This paper furthers this on-going experimental test application (Packard 2009b, 2012, 2013, 2015 a, b).

A Test Case: Witting and Un-Witting Profiling, Helping to Drive Epoch Shift

Having stated the two-fold purpose driving this research project, a way to apply Marxian theory and method to the social relations of electronic memory is tested, using the industry of profiling. It seems safe to assume that building profiles, or records, about human activity has an established history. Ancient people kept records about themselves in papyrus, then books; today people use social media, “clouds” and electronic communications and transactions. In Durkheim’s era statistics were pioneered as a way to profile people using tabulating machines and handwritten surveys. Durkheim championed the burgeoning field of statistics as a scientific cornerstone of the young field of Sociology. In the Machine Age in which Durkheim and Marx lived, the industry of building a profile of a person was constrained by technological, logistical and social political parameters. For example, censuses were tabulated on large, rented machines (Austrian, 1982) which were moved from one location to another; when they were used on an on-going basis for private companies they were-specifically “dedicated” in their application.
contrast, thanks in part to the vision of Vannevar Bush (Bush, 1945) the military and U.S. taxpayers, today, wireless electronic communications, super-computers that communicate with each other, massive data banking facilities, satellites, cables, etc. make it possible to endlessly build our electronic profiles, 3 in real time, from homes, smart phones or other electronic devices, sending our electronic profiles into the World Wide Web, "clouds" and data banks (Bamford, 1982, 2009; 2012; Campbell and Connor, 1986; Gleick, 2014) creating an informative memory profile that costs nothing in terms of wage labor because it is "volunteered information" generated by the customer, not bought from the customer. In either the historic or present day case, profiles of human lives are made willingly and with consent, while profile collectors can use the information publicly or privately. 4 But profiles are also made of people without their consent, which means unwittingly, meaning that the profile is a product of spy activity (Blum 1972; Halprin, Morton et al. 1976; Packard 2015a; Rosenthal 2012). For example, survey data is given willingly while covert Cold War era government spy operations produced profiles of unwitting suspects (within a population of citizens, who consumed lots of spy-drama entertainment). 5 Today however, because of whistleblowers like Assange, Klein, Sterling, Manning, Greenwald, Snowden, Binney and a long list of others, 6 the American public has officially been made witting that the government is building electronic meta-data profiles of all citizens. Unlike the paper files generated by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (F.B.I.) in search of Communists in the Cold War Era, 7 today the profiles are made by the "suspect/customer/citizen him or herself, electronically, in profiles that can outlast the life of the suspect/customer/citizen, be copied endlessly and moved easily. Spying use to entail hiring someone to spy; today electronic equipment makes spying more available and affordable, to all. Together, willing and unwitting profile building creates an exponentially growing volume of electronic memory; hence, the military and scientific effort to create a global network of electronically connected devices that can manage, sort and store, a ceaseless flood of "big data." (Flaherty 1979; Gleick 2011; O’Regan 2008) This world wide network of electronic apparatus links personal computers, with servers and data banks, requiring constant upgrading, constant power, constant water, constant maintenance, and generating constant electromagnetic radiation, is shifting the Machine Age epoch into an electronic memory and information driven epoch, perhaps characterizing what Marx called a "perpetuum mobile." Marx wrote about the social relations of the Machine Age and rarely used the word “technology” (Marx [1867] 1976: 492) but he foresaw the possibility of more advanced productive relations when he wrote about “more perfect machines”, that don’t need to be replaced (as human labor does) because the machine lasts forever and corresponds “to its concept.” Marx foresaw advanced social and production relations as a “perpetuum mobile”, coining the term in Grundrisse (Marx [1857–8] 1973:766) and using it again in Capital, ([1867] 1976) as continuous circulation of money, into and out of, a hoarded or banked status (Marx[1867] 1976: 227).

Marxian methodology applied; profiling from machine to perpetuum mobile

Now that the two-fold purpose of this research project has been stated and a historical comparative example of willing and unwitting profiling activity has been outlined (in the context of Machine and information/perpetuum mobile age), what might a Marxian theoretical analysis of profiling in this perpetual mobile age look like? This is an important question because typically Marxian commodity theory is applied to tangible commodities, made by paid human labor, to be sold in an open market - rather than to intangible electronic memory profiles, made in confidence or secret and supposedly unavailable for sale, hire, or rent, on any open market. Can Marxian theory and methods be applied in this changed socio-economic environment? Here is a test application in response to this question. In the machine Age and Cold War era F.B.I. agents spied on unwitting people who were suspected of being Communists. Profiles of suspects were built by human spy labor with the spy technology available (wiretaps, cameras) (Gentry 1991; Halperin, Morton et. al. 1976; Rosenfeld 2013) In the Final Reports of the 1976 Senate Select Committee To Study Governmental Operations with Respect to Intelligence Activities or "Church Committee" findings, backed up by Freedom of Information Act (F.O.I.A.) documents proved secret government spy operations had been disrupting the lives of people who had done nothing illegal. Exposing these government secrets to the public cost spy agencies credibility and the
profiles spies had built to discredit suspects, when exposed, sometimes increased the credibility, visibility and celebrity of those been spied on, even after they were dead (John Lennon and Martin Luther King, for example). Expensive lawsuits over releasing Freedom of Information Act (F.O.I.A) documents and embarrassment over the botched Watergate bugging scandal may have helped fuel the push for more automated, less labor intensive, more surreptitious, less libelous methods of spying. As computer, Internet and World Wide Web technology unfolded in the late 1990s the global perpetual mobile apparatus increased with ample military contract funding, producing an abundant array of surveillance and drone technology (Harris 2010, 2014; Hartung 2011; Landau 2011; O’Harro 2005; Scahill 2013; Shorrock, 2008, 2013) much of it developed by Israel, used to monitor Palestinians.

The aftermath of 9/11 brought the PATRIOT Act, which mandated that telecommunication companies store electronic communications for government monitoring in search of terrorists. A cascade of legislation provided retroactive immunity to telecommunication companies against liability, undermined constitutional rights and protections for citizens in a state of war (Bamford 2009, 2012; Bazan and Elsa, 2006; Boghosian 2013; Risen 2006, 2014; Risen and Lichtblau 2009; Packard 2015 a, b; Rule 2007; Stratford J.S., and J. Stratford 1998, 2001; Stratford 2002) and the Citizen's United ACT granted corporations the right to be individuals or citizens. Now government contractors and telecommunication companies and government agents can spy on citizens with impunity, while citizens compromised by spy activity must prove that they have been spied upon (Boghosian, 2013; Horton 2015; Risen 2014). With the epoch shift to a perpetual mobile global network of interlinked corporate, military and government data sharing automated spying capabilities has increased, creating more demand for electronic memory and memory storage. The cost of the stored profiles is paid for by those whose electronic profiles are subject to searching (the customer) which decreases the cost of spy operations on the government/contractor side. Meanwhile, the customer/citizen pays twice for their telecommunication service, once with money payments, and second, with their information - or informative, stored, electronic memory. The electronic informative memory profile that customers build unwittingly, with every electronic footprint, may be a liability to them, in the future, but the telecommunication service provider, who is legally mandated to store the customer's profile, has retroactive immunity from lawsuits that claim spy and wiretapping activity. As the customer's profile grows, the electronic memory profile becomes like an alienated memory commodity, shared between corporate citizens and governmental entities. The electronic informative memory profile is a picture of a human being's past that may be used to discriminate future choices the human being will have (Rule 2007: 94-96). The electronic informative memory profile (regardless of errors in it) becomes longer and larger with each day that the profile generator gets older and closer to death; yet upon death of the human, the profile might live on. While the human forgets his/her past and while his/her collective memory diminishes, the electronic profile retains records of events, now forgotten by the profile builder. Perhaps in the future, individuals will pay telecommunication sub-contractors to delete or "forget" libelous, embarrassing, redundant, parts of their profiles, enabling those who can afford it to customize their electronic memory? In Machine era Marxian theory, the worker maintains his/her body in order to sell his/her labor power for wages, but in a perpetual mobile society or epoch, the worker/profile builder generates alienated memory file, which like a credit report influences what choices may be available to him/her in the future. Profile builders may not necessarily be employed workers, they may be people who live on finance capital or investments, tied to the "hallowing out" through drone warfare and disruption, of other less fortunate profile builder’s assets. Profile builders may live on the bankruptcy and foreclosures of other "less fortunate" profile builders in other countries, or on the nearly free labor of refugees from climate catastrophe, wars, or forced labor of debtors, criminals, terrorists or so-called inferiors (Faulkner 2012; Harris 2014; Scahill 2013; Scahill and Begley 2015). Marx's analysis of capitalism is characterized by wealth accumulation, appropriation, alienation, waste, dialectical materialist epoch shift, as he observed it in the Machine Age, yet these aspects of capitalism remain in the information or perpetual mobile age, in different outward forms, as Marx predicted (Mandel 1976). Employed or not, profile builders provide informative memory about their past actions, selling their labor and paying to provide detailed information about themselves to ubiquitous spies (Greenwald 2015; Jeserich 2015; Landau 2011; O’Harro 2005; Raine and Anderson
The profiles accessed by corporate citizens provide informative memory about assets that profile builders have, which might attract looting or perhaps expensive insurance policies or retainers, to protect them from looting. Wealth accumulation and wealth loss, like everything else in an electronic 24/7 world, is sped up, with financial crisis in one country upsetting economies across the world (Faulkner 2012; Scott 2015). Marx posits a theory of workers being alienated from the commodities they produce with their labor power. In a perpetual mobile global society do profile builders feel alienated from their electronic informative memory profiles? Do they own these profiles? Do profile builders have control over their profiles or have the right to refuse building them? Does the corporate citizen who is paid to store informative memory electronic profiles consider the profiles a kind of commodity, or property or a kind of money in the bank? Will the electronic profile become “un-alienated” from the person who builds it, by the actions of the person who generates the profile, or by the actions of those who are paid to store and search and manage it – and who will profit from making a profile un-alienated from the person who generates it? When do informative memory profiles become disposable, like commodities?

It appears epoch shift occurs from a machine Age (driven by wage labor) into an information perpetual mobile age that accommodates financial capitalism (that may or may not include wage labor) driven partly by profile building activity, which enhances the speed of wealth appropriation (Wike 2014). Meanwhile alienation remains, not just in labor alienated from commodities, but perhaps people alienated from their own electronic informative memory; a form of memory people seem addicted to, even though it spies on social agency, democratic action and free thought (Scheer 2015). Marxian methodology is applicable to an economy based on labor, wages, machines and open markets, but it appears it is also applicable to an economy driven by electronic profile building by people who may not be wage workers, in a global environment where the informative memory profile is an intangible commodity, generated without cost to those corporate citizens who “share” the electronic memory in secret, rather than sell it in an open market (Raine and Anderson 2014; Shorrock 2008, 2013).

Conclusion

In conclusion it seems that Marx’s ideas apply to a changed epoch in which some commodities aren’t tangible but are alienated electronic memory commodities of people’s past actions, with exchange and use value attached, which inform about wealth, choices, thoughts and resources. Such an electronic memory dependent perpetuum mobile world has changed social productive relations into stratified, as well as class-divided ways, fostering finance capitalism (faster) in one social strata, wage labor in another and “under-the table” labor in another. It also appears that electronic memory is a challenge to both individual and collective memory by our own deference to it, as we contribute to it and grow more dependent upon it. Therefore a three sided debate of individual v. collective v. banked electronic memory is important, because, as Marx’s comparative historical method demonstrates, comparison analysis helps counter the tyranny of “group think” or lack of ability to think at all, which might allow the perpetuum mobile to relieve us of the adult responsibility of having to make, and account for, our own decisions, while we still have “minds of our own” to make decisions.

Notes

1. Surplus labor is essentially the unpaid labor of workers who work for wages; working enough hours to cover their subsistence and more hours to provide more value to the product, so that it will bring a profit or “surplus value” for the capitalist. What Marx’s termed the “valorization” of capital, according to Ernest Mandel’s Introduction to Capital (1976), occurs when capitalist production becomes not just the production of commodities but also the production of surplus value, as described in the appendix of Capital, Volume One, with the title, “Results of the Immediate Process of Production.”

2. A history of the original IBM tabulating machine and its inventor, Herman Hollerith, is written in Herman Hollerith: Forgotten giant of information processing (Austrian, 1982). IBM’s early history and relationship with Germany in WWII is reported in Edwin Black’s book IBM and the Holocaust (2001). When punch card data were used to further Holocaust activities in Europe, on the other side of the
Atlantic, the U.S. was using punch card data to further New Deal programs to benefit impoverished citizens suffering from the Great Depression.

3. Endless production in Marxian theory is when the working day is extended so that days run end to end in the production process, thereby reducing labor and production costs to the lowest level and maximizing surplus value for the capitalist as surplus value valorizes itself (Marx [1867] 1976: pp. 302, 526, Appendix). People tied to work through electronic media in a global market, work almost on-call, day and night to fill orders and return communications, creating the nearly endless work process Marx describes.

4. In the United States, failure to complete census survey forms is against the law. Mandated by law or not, census survey information, such as that on the punch cards discussed previously, can be used both for public purposes such as New Deal Program public works programs, or in the case of some German citizens, used “privately” to identify suspects for plunder or genocide (Black 2001; Lubeke and Milton 1994; Van Den 1994). Thus tabulated information was used privately, in secret, while the public was “unwitting.” For example, people in Third Reich Germany didn’t know about how people were being disappeared to concentration camps; however, as Hitler’s former secretary noted in an interview, one “could find out about them,” thus, such information was both unknown and known. This behavior, in an American context, is explored in an Errol Morris, movie about Donald Rumsfeld, titled, *The Unknown Known* (2013).

5. Human spies were very much a part of the Cold War era (Blum, 1972; Gentry 1991) and the media capitalized on making secret spy activity and the intrigue of information appropriation by undercover agents look like exciting, sexy, funny, goofy, harmless, playful entertainment. In the 1960s and 1970s there were television programs such as *I Spy, Mission Impossible, Man from U.N.C.L.E., Get Smart,* and *The Prisoner,* Running alongside these TV shows was the blockbuster movie series featuring James Bond (Agent 007). In 1974, an investigator, played by Jack Nicholson, in Roman Polanski’s, *Chinatown,* turned the camera onto some of Hollywood’s own secrets. These TV shows and movies introduced the public to the idea of spy technology in the form of miniature equipment such as pens that could record (as depicted in the film, *The Conversation*), miniature cameras, high-tech security-enhanced buildings, concealed weapons and, in the case of *Star Trek,* the idea of a cell phone-like device used for wireless communication. The idea of a person stealing information as an occupation using concealed, technologically enhanced communication devices and weapons was commercialized, exploited, made entertaining, attractive, safe and turned into a “household word” while questions about the ethics of appropriating information in secret ways were typically overlooked because the spy mission was usually for secret and dire reasons of national or global security. In the television series *The Prisoner,* about an agent who is quarantined on an island because he “knows too much,” a white balloon follows the Prisoner around when he is trying to escape; perhaps this image was America’s first introduction to drone technology.

6. There is a difference between leakers who steal information and sell it to others (which is espionage, illegal, and may be considered treason) and leakers who release secret information to the public as an act of conscientious objection (as Daniel Ellsberg of “Pentagon Papers” fame did). Julian Assange, Jeffery Sterling, Bradley Manning, Edward Snowden, Jeremy Hammond, John Kiriakou, William Binney and Thomas Drake are some of the whistleblowers and government employees who have either gone through proper government channels to protest government spying (Sterling, Binney, Drake) or have, as conscious objectors, voluntarily leaked secret classified information to the public (Assange, Manning, Snowden, Hammond, Kiriakou). Many books have been written about and by these whistleblowers and the secret information they have shared with the public such as, Glenn Greenwald’s third book, *No Place To Hide: Edward Snowden, the NSA and the U.S. Surveillance State* not to be confused with *No Place To Hide* (2005) a book by *Washington Post* reporter and associate of the Center for Investigative Reporting, Robert O’Harrow, Jr., who was awarded the Carnegie Mellon Cyber Security Reporting Award in 2003 for his groundbreaking and carefully annotated research on surveillance. Other information about whistleblowers and the unequal punishments they suffer, suffer appear in interviews by Amy Goodman with them, at *Democracy Now!* .org (Goodman 2015; Packard 2013)
7. Subversives: The FBI’s War on Student Radicals and Reagan’s Rise to Power (Rosenthal, 2012/2013) relates the history of the famous Free Speech Movement (Students for Democratic Society or S.D.S.) at the University of California, Berkeley, in the 1960s and how Ronald Reagan and J. Edgar Hoover undermined University of California Regent and President Clark Kerr, to their own professional advantage, using Federal Bureau of Investigation (F.B.I.) spying operations. Rosenthal reports that it took decades to get Freedom of Information Act (F.O.I.A.) documents for his research, while the F.B.I. spent millions of taxpayer dollars trying to withhold documents. This is only one example of how government spy operations profiled citizens who were suspected of “un-American” activities, using human spies, in pre-Internet and pre-9/11, America.

8. This is a legal conundrum that is as complex as the so-called “repressed memory” or “false memory” cases that made spectacular news stories in the pre-internet period of the 1990s (Packard 2008, 2013) when there was popular and legal fury over how adults could “prove” that their childhood abuse memories were accounts of true events, rather than false memories.

9. Marx argues that free men are better workers than slaves because slaves are not responsible for their own upkeep and don’t have a sense of freedom and responsibility (Marx [1867] 1976: 1031). It seems plausible, however, that forced labor (without the option of death row) might still have wants to live for (such as overturning a false conviction, proving innocence after incarceration without benefit of a functional justice system, earning a pardon or early release, or seeing loved ones again) while still thinking of themselves as wrongfully convicted people, who will work hard (perhaps till death) to prove their innocence. If the global economy functions like Israel’s (appropriating others’ land, food, and water sources through surveillance, force, instant settlement production, with ample “freed” refugee labor made available) then where in such a socioeconomic landscape are the profits, as per the surplus labor theory of value, based on paid wage labor? For example, the United States helps sustain Israel’s economy and China is America’s banker/lender - do China’s profits from surplus labor pay ultimately for Israel’s settlement building, as U.S. cities decay (Weise 2014) and the cost of labor, on a world basis, is impacted downward by increased immigrant/refugee labor? Presently European countries are absorbing record breaking numbers of refugees, while at the same time the European Union’s (E.U.) highest Court has struck down the Data Transfer Pact between the U.S. and Europe (because American government agents have access to European’s online electronic memory profiles, as confirmed by Edward Snowden) (Scott 2015). Now the 28 E.U. countries will each be responsible for oversight of their own citizens’ electronic profiles. In withdrawing E.U. electronic profiles from U.S. based management, the E.U. challenges U.S. data-management companies market share and may foster market competition for spy or surveillance-free electronic memory management services, in a perpetuum mobile environment, where housing electronic memory might be more lucrative than housing refugees.

References


Jewish American Contributions:
The Stories of Three Women

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Abstract
Jewish Americans, like all Americans, have contributed immensely to the shaping of these United States of America (US/USA). The purpose of this article is to celebrate the invaluable contributions that Jewish Americans have made by focusing on the stories of three Jewish American women, namely Ms. Rebecca Gratz, Ms. Rose Schneiderman and Dr. Madeleine Albright. The contributions of these notable Jewish American women are highlighted in this article. Recommendations for further research on the contributions of Jewish Americans in general and Jewish American women in particular are made.

Introduction
The background of all people of Jewish descent (including those in the United States today) is traced to Biblical times. Jews are believed to have descended from Noah’s first son, Shem, who was an ancestor of Abram/Abraham, Isaac and Jacob/Israel (Scofield, 2003). The descendants of Jacob/Israel experienced a number of migrations in the Middle East from around 1660 B.C.E. with the migration of Jacob/Israel and his family to Egypt to the fall of Jerusalem around 70 C.E. (Scofield & Rikkers, 2003) when Titus Favius, a Roman General besieged and conquered Jerusalem (Stedman & Denney, 2014). Many Jews travelled to and settled in Europe, Asia, Africa, Latin America and eventually North America over hundreds of years after the fall of Jerusalem. For the purposes of this article, those referred to as Jewish Americans are the Jews who have migrated from Europe, Israel, and other parts of the world to what is known today as the United States of America from 1654 to the present.

People of Jewish descent began migrating to what is known today as the United States of America in 1654 when the first 23 Jews arrived in the then Dutch colony of New Amsterdam (which later became New York) from Brazil. This group of Jews were Sephardic Jews whose ancestors had fled the Spanish Inquisition in the 1400s to Brazil to avoid forced conversion to Catholicism (Feagin & Feagin, 2012). They fled the Island of Recife, Brazil when the Portuguese annexed the Island from the Dutch (Grubin, 2014; Wenger, 2007). This group was initially denied admission by Governor Peter Stuyvesant, who governed the Dutch colony (Greenberg, 2015), but after the intervention of the Dutch West India Company, they were allowed to settle in the Dutch-owned colony (Feagin & Feagin, 2012; Grubin, 2014; Wenger, 2007). This group established the first Jewish community on the east coast (Parrillo, 2006; Sowell, 1996). Since 1654 till today, millions of Jews of varied Jewish persuasions such as Marranos, Ashkenazi, Orthodox, Reformed, Conservative have migrated from various parts of the world to the then colonial America and to the United States of America when independence was obtained (Feagin & Feagin, 2012; Parrillo, 2006). Since their arrival in North America, Jewish Americans, like all Americans, have made invaluable contributions to their new country from colonial times to the present, not only to this country but also to the rest of the world.

The purpose of this article is to highlight and celebrate the contributions of Jewish Americans in general and to pay tribute in particular to three Jewish American women who were harbingers and pathfinders upon whose shoulders stand Jewish American women and all women of today. There is no gainsaying that a plethora of Jewish Americans and Jewish American women have made indelible contributions in every facet of United States society and the rest of the world from colonial times to the present. Some of the Jewish American women who engaged actively in the formation and sustaining of
this society include Emma Lazarus, Peninah Moise, Emma Goldman, Hannah Arendt, Hannah G. Solomon, Rose Schneiderman, Rebecca Gratz, Ruth Bader Ginsburg, Barbara Streisand, Madeleine Albright, Henrietta Szold, Pauline Newman, Fannie Kohn, Rose Pesotta, Betty Friedan, Sally Priesand, Bela Abzug, Rosalind Yallow, Shoshana Cardin, and Cynthia Ozick (Greenberg, 2015). In this article, the contributions of three women, namely Rebecca Gratz, Rose Schneiderman and Madeleine Albright are selected as part of the celebration of Jewish American contributions through the stories of these remarkable Jewish American women.

Rebecca Gratz

Rebecca Gratz was born on March 4, 1781 in Lancaster, Pennsylvania to Miriam Simon and Michael Gratz and passed on August 27, 1869 at the age of 88 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Brody, 2004). Ashton (1997) believed that because Rebecca Gratz was born into a wealthy and highly esteemed family that supported the American Revolution, she was afforded fluidity of movement between Jewish and non-Jewish society, thus enabling her to contribute to both Jewish and non-Jewish facets of the country she lived in. According to Ashton (1997), Rebecca Gratz was a highly intelligent and deeply religious woman who dedicated her life and resources to the promotion of Jewish education and the wellbeing of the poor. She was also a Philadelphia, Pennsylvania philanthropist who established the first Hebrew Sunday School in the United States of America and was a founding member of many Jewish and non-sectarian charitable organizations which were among the first to be organized and run by women (Sklaroff, 2014). Due to her work, devotion, and dedication to the needy, Brody (2004) placed Rebecca Gratz on the levels of the most noble and most notable women in world history and compared her to Mother Teresa who was a Catholic nun and philanthropist from India who lived in the twentieth century, and many Americans of Rebecca Gratz’s day believed she was a foremost American Jewess.

In this section, examples of Rebecca Gratz’s life work which catapulted her into the annals of Jewish American and United States history and heroism are noted and celebrated. Rebecca Gratz’s contributions were predominantly in the areas of service to education, which to her was the key to the future, public service, and literature. In the area of service to education, Rebecca Gratz practiced the adage “charity begins at home” by raising the nine children of one of her sisters, Rachel Gratz, when the sister passed in 1823 (Brody, 2004). In 1818, Rebecca Gratz started a school with the help of a young rabbinical scholar in her home with eleven Jewish children to promote Jewish education. When the school failed, Rebecca Gratz established the Hebrew Sunday School of Philadelphia in 1838 (Wikipedia, 2015) after the model of the Christian Sunday School as the Jewish equivalent of the Evangelical American Sunday School Union to curb the proselytizing efforts of her non-Jewish intellectual friends and the general society which practiced Christianity and focused education on Christianizing children who attended mainstream schools (Ashton, 1997; Brody, 2004). The Hebrew Sunday School had a mission of strengthening the faith of Jewish youth and in the knowledge and observance of their own religious traditions (Ashton, 1997).

With the assistance of the Female Hebrew Benevolent Society which she founded in 1819 to combat the evangelizing activities aimed at poor Jews (Ashton, 1997), Rebecca Gratz opened the Hebrew Sunday School with about 60 students. She served as Superintendent and President of the school until 1864 (Brody, 2004). She also helped in developing the school’s curriculum (Wikipedia, 2015). The educational materials developed and used in the school were written in English to inculcate in American Jewish youth an unshakeable understanding of their faith. In the spirit of philanthropy, Rebecca Gratz admitted students from all the Jewish communities in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania and they attended the school for free (Ashton, 1997). In this respect, Rebecca Gratz lived an altruistic life.

According to Ashton (1997), Rebecca Gratz was very concerned about education for Jewish females and made female education a very high priority. Rebecca Gratz’s goal for Jewish female education was to deconstruct for Jewish females the Christian evangelical propaganda aimed at converting Jewish women claiming an inferior status of women in Judaism, and to convince them of their equal status in Jewish society and encourage them to remain practitioners of Judaism. The author of this article believes that Rebecca Gratz’s greatest contribution to Jewish education and thus American education was indirect and
was in the form of the Jewish teachers’ college, Gratz College, which one of her brothers, Hyman Gratz, established and financed in her memory and honor as a result of her life work as an educator shortly after Rebecca Gratz’s passing in 1869.

Today, Gratz College is a thriving higher educational institution which “provides opportunities for [all who will come] to be part of a richly diverse pluralistic [learning] community of faculty and students” (Gratz College Website: www.gratz.edu). The college currently offers undergraduate, graduate and Adult Jewish Learning programs. The mission of Gratz College is “to provide a pluralistic education rooted in Jewish values and engage students in active study for personal and professional enrichment. Through degree and non-degree offerings and cultural programs, Gratz College enables students everywhere to become leaders in their professions and communities” (Gratz College Website: www.gratz.edu).

Considering that Gratz College was built in 1895 and has been educating thousands of Americans and students from other parts of the world, especially Jewish Americans, for about 120 years, the author of this article would posture that this indirect contribution was Rebecca Gratz’s greatest accomplishment.

In the area of public service, Rebecca Gratz focused predominantly on advancing and ameliorating the conditions and life of Jewish communities and, in the process, dedicated her life to advancing and ameliorating non-Jewish communities as well. Rebecca Gratz began her public service early in her life when she recognized the devastating effects of the American Revolution and the Revolutionary War (1773 -1776), which her family fought in, and sought to alleviate the sufferings of families which had been affected by the war. In 1801, at the young age of 20, Rebecca Gratz, together with her sisters and twenty other Jewish and non-Jewish women, founded the Female Association for the Relief of Women and Children in Reduced Circumstances in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Ashton, 1997; Brody, 2004; Wikipedia, 2015). According to Ashton (1997), this non-sectarian women’s organization was established to help women from formerly affluent families whose fortunes had been reversed because of the war. Rebecca Gratz served as the first secretary of this philanthropic organization and became an avid fundraiser of much needed funds for the organization (Brody, 2004).

Rebecca Gratz’s charitable spirit is further evidenced in the non-sectarian Philadelphia Orphan Asylum she helped found, which was chartered in 1815 and to which she served as secretary for forty years; in the Female Hebrew Benevolent Society which she founded in 1819 to service the needy and the unfortunate in Jewish communities; in the Jewish Foster Home and Orphan Asylum which she established in 1855 to provide a place for children who needed foster care and for orphans; in the Fuel Society; and in the Sewing Society which helped sewers to be able to bargain for better work conditions and better wages (Brody, 2004; Green, 2013). It must be noted that these pioneering philanthropic and charitable initiatives led by Rebecca Gratz (Sklaroff, 2014) might not have materialized without the support of non-Jewish and Jewish leaders alike (Ashton, 1997).

Rebecca Gratz’s contributions to literature were in the form of the letters she wrote, the newspaper articles she wrote and used as tools of advocacy, and she is believed by some literary scholars to have been the inspiration for the character, “Rebecca” in Sir Walter Scott’s critically acclaimed novel, *Ivanhoe* while other scholars dismiss that assertion. Today, Rebecca Gratz’s letters are utilized as primary resources for research on Jews and Jewish Americans, Jewish American women, Jewish American elite, Jewish American philanthropy in her period and can be located at http://www.familytales.org/results.php?tla=rbg. Rebecca Gratz’s contemporaries and personal literary connections included William Henry Furness, a First Unitarian Church of Philadelphia minister, who was a lifelong friend of the famed Ralph Waldo Emerson and who provided Rebecca Gratz with a connection to the New England intellectual and literary community; the theologian William Ellery Channing; the economist Harriet Martineau; Francis Preston Blair, a newspaper editor, Washington, D. C. insider, founder of the Republican Party, and Advisor to Presidents; Washington Irving and actress Fanny Kemble, who connected Rebecca Gratz to literary and artistic communities in the United States and the United Kingdom including Sir Walter Scott (Ashton, 1997; Wikipedia, 2015). These contemporaries and connections of Rebecca Gratz greatly helped to facilitate her philanthropic, charitable, educational, and public service contributions to Jewish communities in particular and to Americans in general.

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Rose Schneiderman

Whereas Rebecca Gratz was born in the United States of America to immigrant parents, Rose Schneiderman was an immigrant from Poland who was born Rachel Rose Schneiderman in Saven, Poland on April 6, 1882. She migrated to the United States in 1890 with her family and resided predominantly in the Lower East Side of New York City until she passed on August 11, 1972 (American-Israeli Cooperative Enterprise, 2015). Unlike Rebecca Gratz who was born into a wealthy family, Rose Schneiderman’s family was relatively poor and at age thirteen she was forced to drop out of school to help support her family. The author of this article would posit that it was largely Rose Schneiderman’s initially poor socio-economic conditions that helped shape her lifework as a labor activist, union leader and social reformer.

Rose Schneiderman’s contributions were mostly in social activism and in the fledgling and eventually thriving labor movement in the United States of America focusing on helping improve the lot of the near voiceless in her days, United States labor. In this section, the life work of this passionate activist for the labor movement at the turn of the twentieth century (American-Israeli Cooperative Enterprise, 2015) will be the subject matter. Rose Schneiderman, like Rebecca Gratz, began her social activism and labor organizing activities at a very young age. In 1903, at the age of 21, Rose Schneiderman organized the Jewish Socialist United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers’ Union in New York City, which became her first union shop and the first of many unions which she either founded or helped found (Green, 1980). Utilizing the Jewish Socialist United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers’ Union as a platform, Rose Schneiderman took the lead in getting women elected to the union and was elected to the union’s executive board in 1904 (The Biography.com Website, 2015). She quickly developed a reputation as a highly efficient leader, and successfully organized a strike that opposed the open-shop policy (Green, 1980). Through her work and the work of others in this union, the open-shop policy, which was exploitative of wage workers, was abolished (Green, 1980).

Rose Schneiderman’s trade unionist spirit and leadership spirit are demonstrated in her activities as a member and leader in various trade unions she joined or helped establish. She joined the Women’s Trade Union League (WTUL) in 1905 (The Biography.com Website, 2015). In that same year, she led a capmakers’ strike in New York City and in 1909 to 1910, she led a strike of 20,000 shirtwaist makers to protest their poor work conditions and low wages, including protests at the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory before its March 1911 fire which killed 146 workers who were mostly immigrants and women (Soylent Communications, 2014). From 1907, Rose Schneiderman dedicated most of her life, about forty-five years, to the Women’s Trade Union League, which had the goal of fighting for issues peculiar to female workers and which she called the most important influence on her life (American-Israeli Co-operative Enterprise, 2015; Green, 1980; The Biography.com Website, 2015).

The WTUL was an organization dedicated to unifying working women and lobbying for protective legislation particularly for women (Gupta, 2015). Rose Schneiderman served as an organizer of the WTUL and as vice-president of the New York chapter for several years and as President from 1926 to 1950 when the WTUL was disbanded (American-Israeli Co-operative Enterprise, 2015; Eadon, 2012; Green, 1980; Soylent Communication, 2014). Some of Rose Schneiderman’s most lasting legacies were that as President of the WTUL she lobbied and worked diligently for many of the workers’ rights that are taken for granted today (Eadon, 2012). For example, she lobbied and worked for legislation to be passed for an eight-hour workday which most workers enjoy today, a national minimum wage, and improved workplace safety standards, which have been improved up to today (Soylent Communication, 2014).

Rose Schneiderman responded proactively to the 1911 Triangle Shirtwaist Factory Fire by helping establish the International Ladies Garment Workers Union, which sought to end dangerous work conditions for workers (Soylent Communication, 2014). She provided outstanding leadership during the Union’s 1913 strike which led to better sweatshop labor conditions (Green, 1980) and the eventual abolition of sweatshops. As a member of the National American Women Suffrage Association and an ardent feminist, Rose Schneiderman campaigned ceaselessly for the right of women to vote (Eadon, 2012). Through her efforts and those of others, the State of New York passed a referendum in 1917 which
gave women in that state the right to vote (Eadon, 2012). This referendum was three years ahead of the Nineteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution passed in 1920 which gave all American women the right to vote. In this respect, it could be argued that Rose Schneiderman’s work relative to women’s right to vote in the State of New York set a precedent for the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment in the United States of America. It could further be argued that her work set a precedent for independent nations that emerged after the Second World War, especially in Africa and Asia, to incorporate women’s right to vote in their constitutions.

In 1920, Rose Schneiderman ran for the United States Senate from New York on the then Farm Labor Party ticket (Wikipedia, 2015). Like Rebecca Gratz and Madeleine Albright, Rose Schneiderman had the privilege of associating with some of her elite contemporaries who paved the way for her to directly and indirectly influence national and international political, economic and social legislation that have impacted the United States and the rest of the world till today. For example, she became close friends with Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt and her husband Franklin D. Roosevelt (Eadon, 2012; Gupta, 2015). Through this friendship, Rose Schneiderman convinced Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt to join the Women’s Trade Union League in 1922 and educated her on the issues and challenges of women workers, the trade union movement and the problems relevant to labor-management relations (Green, 1980; Eadon, 2012). As a result of Rose Schneiderman’s promptings, Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt served as Chairperson of the WTUL finance committee, donated some of her earnings to the WTUL, and promoted the WTUL in her radio broadcasts and speeches (Green, 1980; Schneiderman & Goldthwaite, 1967). Her friendship with the Roosevelts afforded Rose Schneiderman increasing access to political power and she greatly influenced Franklin Roosevelt’s decisions as he became Governor of New York in 1929 and President of the United States of America from 1933 to 1945 (Schneiderman & Goldthwaite, 1967).

According to Eadon (2012), Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal laws (laws that were a result of the Great Depression of 1928 to 1932), which included the Fair Labor Standards Act, the National Labor Relations Act and the Social Security Act, were based largely on Rose Schneiderman’s ideas. Rose Schneiderman was named to the National Recovery Administration Advisory Board in 1933 (the only woman to serve in that position) and served until the United States Supreme Court declared the National Recovery Administration unconstitutional in 1935 (Green, 1980; The Biography Website, 2015). Between 1937 and 1943, she served as Secretary to the New York State Department of Labor and demonstrated her outstanding leadership skills by fluidly balancing her WTUL responsibilities with state politics (Eadon, 2012; Green, 1980; Soylent Communications, 2014). Rose Schneiderman, like Rebecca Gratz and Madeleine Albright, contributed to the field of literature in the form of her autobiography All for one, which she co-wrote with Lucy Goldthwaite and published in 1967 before she passed in 1972.

Madeleine Albright

Madeleine Albright was born Marie Jana Korbelova in 1937 in the Smichov district in Prague in the former Czechoslovakia (now divided into two countries, Czech Republic and Slovakia) to Czech journalist and diplomat, Josef Korbel and Anna Spieglova (Albright, 2003; The Biography.com Website, 2015). While her father served as Czechoslovakian Ambassador to the then Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, she was sent to a girls’ finishing school in Switzerland, Prealpina Institut Pour Jeunes Filles, where she learned to speak French and changed her name from Marie Jana to Madeleine. After the Second World War and the Communist Party takeover of Czechoslovakia in 1948, Madeleine migrated to the United States with her parents in November of that year (Albright, 2003; Wikipedia, 2015).

In 1957, while pursuing her undergraduate studies at Wellesley College in Massachusetts, she became a citizen of the United States (Albright, 2003). This opened numerous doors for her to pursue a career that eventually culminated in her becoming a United States Ambassador to the United Nations Organization (UNO) and the first woman to be appointed as United States Secretary of State during the Bill Clinton administration. In this respect, she set a precedent for women like Condoleezza Rice (who incidentally was taught by Madeleine Albright’s father for whom the political science department in the University of Denver in Colorado is named) and Hillary Rodham Clinton to also become United States Secretaries of
State in the Bush, Jr. and Obama Administrations respectively. Her position as United States Secretary of State from 1997 to 2001 made Madeleine Albright the highest ranking woman in the history of the United States (Makers Video, 2015).

Like Rebecca Gratz and Rose Schneiderman, the areas in which Madeleine Albright has contributed the most are in education, public service and literature. In terms of education, Madeleine Albright, unlike Rebecca Gratz and Rose Schneiderman, obtained the highest levels of education: a certificate in Russian, a Master’s Degree in International Relations and a Ph.D. in Public Law and Government (Albright, 2003; The Biography.com Website, 2015). As a result of her higher education, Madeleine Albright was employed as a faculty at Georgetown University in Washington, D. C. in 1982 teaching Eastern European Studies and directed the university’s program on women in global politics (Albright, 2003; Wikipedia, 2015; Georgetown University Website, 2015). Madeleine Albright is currently (at the time of this writing) teaching and serving at Georgetown University as the first Michael and Virginia Mortara Endowed Distinguished Professor in the Practice of Diplomacy at Georgetown University’s School of Foreign Service (Georgetown University Website, 2015) where she teaches and mentors many students every year. She also currently chairs the National Democratic Institute for International Affairs and the Pew Global Attitudes Project and serves as President of the Truman Scholarship (Georgetown University Website, 2015).

Madeleine Albright has published several books and articles, acted in films and drama, and given hundreds of speeches as part of her contribution to literature and the arts. Her published books include five New York Times bestsellers: her autobiography, Madam Secretary: A memoir published in 2003; The mighty and the almighty: Reflections on America, God, and world affairs published in 2006; Memo to the President: How we can restore America’s reputation and leadership published in 2008; Read my pins: Stories from a diplomat’s jewel box published in 2009; and Prague winter: A personal story of remembrance and war, 1937 – 1948 published in 2012 (Georgetown University Website, 2015). She contributed to world literature when she worked as a picture editor for Encyclopedia Britannica in the 1960s (Albright, 2003). While a child living in England during the Second World War, she acted in a film designed to promote sympathy for war refugees in England (Wikipedia, 2015). In October, 2005, she guest starred in the television drama, Gilmore Girls as herself (Masters Video, 2015; Wikipedia, 2015).

In the area of public service, Madeleine Albright is in a league of her own compared to Rebecca Gratz, Rose Schneiderman and many of her female contemporaries. She has provided outstanding public service both nationally and internationally for most of her adult life. She, like Rebecca Gratz and Rose Schneiderman, began her public service early in life. As a high school student in Kent Denver School in Cherry Hills Village in Denver, Colorado in the early 1950s, she started her school’s international relations club and served as its first president until she graduated from the school (Albright, 2003; Wikipedia, 2015). While in Wellesley College, she joined the College Democrats of America and participated actively in this organization until her graduation. There are a plethora of public service activities Madeleine Albright has engaged in and/or is still engaged in. She is so public service-oriented that many of her private ventures and initiatives are also public service-oriented. Due to lack of space, a few of Madeleine Albright’s public service will be noted here. The reader of this article is strongly encouraged to read Madeleine Albright’s memoir, Madam Secretary: A memoir, from which these public service engagements are cited, for more information about her works and contributions to the United States of America and the world.

• In the late 1960s she did fundraising for her daughters’ school in Washington, D. C. which opened doors for her to serve on education boards.
• In 1976, she served as Chief Legislative Assistant for presidential contender United States Senator Ed Muskie of Maine.
• In 1978, she served as the United States National Security Council Congressional Liaison.
• In 1980, she served at the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars at the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D. C. where her research focused on dissident journalists in Poland’s Solidarity movement.
• In 1984, she served as a major Democratic Party foreign policy advisor to Vice-Presidential candidate, Geraldine Ferraro.
• In 1988, she served as a major Democratic Party foreign policy advisor to Presidential candidate Michael Dukakis.
• In 1992, she served as the coordinator to transition the new Bill Clinton administration at the National Security Council.
• In 1993, she was confirmed as United States Ambassador to the United Nations.
• In 1997, she was confirmed as the 64th United States Secretary of State, which made her the first female Secretary of State and the highest ranking female in United States history.

As Secretary of State, Madeleine Albright helped shape United States foreign policy to a very large extent. She helped strengthen United States’ alliances abroad; advocated for democracy and human rights, especially women’s rights; promoted United States image abroad; and promoted United States’ commerce, labor and environmental standards abroad (Wikipedia, 2015). She currently serves on the Council on Foreign Relations Board of Directors, on the International Advisory Committee of the Brookings Doha Center, as the Chairperson of the National Democratic Institute for International Affairs, as President of the Truman Scholarship Foundation, as Co-Chair of the Commission on Legal Empowerment of the Poor, as Chairwoman of the Advisory Council for the Hague Institute for Global Justice in Switzerland, and as Honorary Chair for the World Justice Project.

For her outstanding public service and contributions to the United States and the world, Madeleine Albright has received several awards and honorary degrees. A sampling of her awards include the United States Senator H. John Heinz III Award for Greatest Public Service by an Elected or Appointed Official, the Hanno R. Ellenbogen Citizenship Award presented by the Prague Society for International Cooperation in the Czech Republic, and the Presidential Medal of Freedom awarded by President Barack Obama in 2012. She has been awarded honorary degrees by several institutions of higher learning including Brandeis University, the University of Washington, Smith College, Washington University in St. Louis, University of Winnipeg, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Knox College, and Tufts University.

Conclusions and Recommendations
This article has purported to outline and celebrate some of the contributions that Jewish Americans in general and Jewish American women in particular have made to the United States of America and to the world at large. The stories of Rebecca Gratz, Rose Schneiderman and Madeleine Albright have been utilized as examples of the invaluable and indelible contributions of Jewish American women. Considering the collective lasting legacies of these august Jewish American women in all aspects of the fabric of United States society, it is apt to conclude this article with the following observations:

• Rose Schneiderman came from a very poor background (her parents were poor Polish immigrants), yet despite the poor and difficult childhood and the lack of formal education, she became one of the most influential women in the history of the American labor movement, the United States of America and the world. Her life work helped shape workplace standards in the United States of America and helped women labor workers and women in general obtain recognition, support, higher wages, education, the right to vote, and better political, economic and social conditions (Eadon, 2012). By playing a pivotal role in the passage of the New Deal legislations through her friendship with Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt, some of her most lasting legacies are the better political, economic and social conditions in the United States of America and many parts of the world that are taken for granted today.

• Rebecca Gratz, unlike Rose Schneiderman but like Madeleine Albright, came from a wealthy background (her family was among the Jewish elite and her relatives fought in the American Revolutionary War) and could have squandered the privileges that wealth brought without a thought about the poor in society, yet she utilized her privileged position
to help the poor, speak for the voiceless, provide homes for orphans, provide education (including free education) for her sisters’ and neighbors’ children, had a university founded in her memory, and influenced Jewish, American, English and world literature.

• Madeleine Albright, like Rebecca Gratz but unlike Rose Schneiderman, came from a privileged background (her father was a Czechoslovakian diplomat who migrated with his family to the United States after the Second World War). She, like Rebecca Gratz, could have rested on her family’s laurels and ignored the larger society and the world. She however obtained the highest level of education, a Ph.D. from Columbia University, and utilized her knowledge and skills to serve the United States of America and the world when she became the first female Secretary of State in United States history.

• Rebecca Gratz and Rose Schneiderman lived in eras when it was very unpopular or a taboo for women to be at the forefront in the public arena, yet they risked their reputations for the cause of their fellow women, for the cause of their fellow citizens in the United States, for the cause of women worldwide, and for the cause of all humanity for when women are ameliorated all humanity is ameliorated.

• Madeleine Albright is fortunate to have been born and live in two centuries when women’s rights, women’s place and women’s voices were/are more acceptable but not completely acceptable in the public square. She, like Rebecca Gratz and Rose Schneiderman, has utilized and is still utilizing the opportunities available to her in her contemporary public square for the greater good of women in the United States and abroad in particular, and for the greater good of all humanity.

• Each of these outstanding Jewish American women was/is phenomenal in her own way.

• There is no doubt that all women in the United States of America and throughout the world today benefit immensely from the legacies of these three distinguished Jewish American women. All women today stand on the shoulders of these outstanding contributors to humanity. They and their legacies must always be celebrated.

• Further study of Jewish American contributions in general is recommended.

• Finally, further study of the lives and works of these three harbingers, each of whom lived in two different centuries (Rebecca Gratz lived in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Rose Schneiderman lived in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and Madeleine Albright was born in the twentieth century and is still alive in this twenty-first century), is strongly recommended for more understanding of the lives and times of these great women.
References


Health Care Disparities Among Ethnic Minorities with Histories in the Justice Systems

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Abstract
In the general population, ethnic minorities experience a range of health care disparities. These include a lack of health insurance, lack of access to health care, lack of knowledge about existing health services, mis/under-diagnoses, poor diet and exercise, absence of recreational spaces, and poorly developed cultural sensitivity or discrimination among health care providers. The justice systems are disproportionately comprised of ethnic minorities, particularly African Americans and Hispanics. Health care provision, especially mental health, is sorely lacking within the justice systems, contributing to recidivism. Given these considerations, this study aims to investigate the extent that ethnic minorities with histories in the justice systems report health care disparities. This paper addresses the overall aims, methodology, and preliminary findings of the study. The paper is based on firsthand ethnographic data collected in South Los Angeles from participants at a community based organization (n=50) that is designed to improve the lives of ex-felons, parolees, and emerging adults who are in the process of leaving the gang life behind them. Justice systems involvement was defined as having ever been arrested. Most of the participants (n=48) were either African American or Hispanic. Results reveal that such individuals report a significant range of health care disparities.

Introduction
Despite efforts to reduce health and health care disparities among ethnic minorities, troubling issues remain a concern for many researchers and community members in our society. Health and health care disparities between ethnic minorities and whites exist, but little research has been conducted regarding health care disparities among ethnic minorities who have histories in the justice systems. Individuals in the justice system include both juveniles and adults. Therefore, it would be beneficial to know if those individuals (ethnic minorities) who have histories with the justice systems are even more vulnerable to health care disparities.

Literature Review
Health Disparities Between Whites & Ethnic Minorities
Compared to whites, ethnic minorities are more likely to experience physical health disparities. These include; higher rates of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, cerebrovascular disease, heart disease, cancer, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, and diabetes (Dilworth-Anderson, Pierre, & Hilliard 2012; Jones, Crump, Lloyd, 2012; Sowah, Busse & Amoroso, 2013). Even among emergency health concerns, such as pandemic viruses like the H1N1 (swine flu) disease in 2009, ethnic minorities reported higher rates of infections (Navaranjan, Rosella, Kwong, Campitelli & Crowcroft, 2014). When compared to White men, African American men are twice as likely to require treatment of severe kidney disease (related to diabetes) and Hispanic men are twice as likely to die from diabetes (Graham & Gracia, 2012). Ethnic minority and multiracial older adults are more likely to report shortness of breath, chest pain, arthritis and depressive symptoms in comparison to Whites (Ng, Bierman, Wilson, Chengfei,
Disparities in appropriate diagnoses of particular health conditions, such as cancer, among ethnic minorities exist (Smedley, Stith, & Nelson, 2003). Ethnic minorities obtain inferior health care in comparison to Whites (Beinswanger, Redmond, Steiner, & Hicks, 2011). Additionally, those with diabetes receive inferior quality of health care (Richard, Alexandre, Younis, Lara & Akamigbo, 2012). They experience numerous disparities in medical and dental health, access to health care, and use of those services (Flores & Tomany-Korman, 2008). Hispanic and Native Americans are less likely to be insured for medical and dental health care compared to Whites (Flores & Tomany-Korman, 2008). Since ethnic minorities are less likely to have medical insurance and access to primary health care, they are more likely to use emergency medical services (Coelho & Nguyen, 2012). They also experience poor adequacy of care and exude low levels of mental health treatment initiation, thus researchers suggest culturally appropriate interventions for treatment (Jimenez, Cook, Bartels, Alegria, 2013).

Health Disparities among African Americans and Latinos/Hispanics

Out of all ethnic minorities, health disparities are most pronounced for African Americans and Hispanics. African American men are 60% more likely to die from strokes and 30% more likely to die from heart disease (Graham & Gracia, 2012). Compared to Whites, African Americans have higher prevalence of lung cancer (Green, Guerrier-Adams, Okunji, Schiavone, & Smith, 2013). Prostate cancer is highest in the world among African Americans (Graham & Garcia, 2012). Some disparities among ethnic minority groups in mental health exist as well. Bulimia nervosa is more prevalent in Hispanic and African American groups (Marques, et al. 2011). Ethnic minorities are at greater risk for developing Alzheimer’s disease (Dilworth-Anderson et al. 2012). Disparities in mental health care such as, treatment and access to mental health services are present (Alegria, et al. 2008). African Americans and Hispanics receive lower rates of adequacy of treatment than Whites (Jimenez, Cook, Bartels & Alegria, 2013). After ethnic minorities enter treatment, they are less likely to receive the best treatments for anxiety and depression when compared to their white counterparts (McGuire & Miranda, 2008). Ethnic minorities who receive mental health care are much less likely than their white counterparts to be treated by mental health professionals (Kohn-Wood & Hooper, 2014).

Causes of HCD in Minorities

African American and Hispanic children have higher rates of asthma, in comparison to White children and these differences result from cultural factors such as; medication beliefs, acculturative stress, and poverty (Coutinho & Koinis-Mitchell, 2013; Flores & Tomany-Korman, 2008). Obstacles such as cost of insurance and socioeconomic status are factors as well, which affect the accessibility and availability of mental health services. (Kohn-Wood & Hooper, 2014). In comparison to Whites, African Americans are more likely to report issues with our country’s health care system, and believe that change in the reconstruction of this system is vital (Blendon et al., 1995).

Poverty

Among ethnic minority groups, those who are at the bottom of the socioeconomic scale suffer the greatest burden of disease (Pellowski, Kalichman, Matthews & Adler, 2013). Poverty was a predictor for individuals infected by the 1985 AIDS epidemic in Bronx, New York (Drucker, 2013). In Georgia, African American and Hispanic women who have breast cancer and live in poverty are less likely to receive radiotherapy and surgery during treatment, thus outcomes are different (Markossian, Hines & Bayakly, 2014).

Stigma

Stigma associated with ethnicity and race contributes to disparities in mental health, as well as health care (Earnshaw, Bogart, Dovidio & Williams, 2013). Some African Americans refuse mental health services due to the stigma accompanying mental illness (Snowden, 2012).
Cultural Competency

Ethnic minorities report that health care providers lack cultural competency as well as illustrate bias against them while in a health care setting (Ngo-Metzger, Legedza, & Phillips, 2004). These individuals report experiences of disrespect from health care providers and feel that they would be treated more fairly if they were a from a different ethnic group (Johnson, Saha, Arbalaez, Beach, & Cooper, 2004). They also feel they will not receive the best health care when they are ill and experience discrimination when obtaining care (Blendon et al., 2007).

HCD among Individuals With Histories of Incarceration

Involvement in the criminal justice system affects an individual’s health and health care (Binswanger et al., 2011). New York City residents with a history of incarceration are more likely to have asthma (Wang & Green, 2010). Tuberculosis (TB) rates remain higher in individuals who are incarcerated, and those individuals are less likely to complete treatment for TB in comparison to the general population (MacNeil, Lobato & Moore, 2005). Individuals with histories of incarceration are less likely to have medical care in comparison to the general population (Kulkarni, Baldwin, Lightstone, Gelberg, & Diamant, 2010). Families and sex partners of individuals who return home from jails and prisons have increased rates of infections such as HIV and other preventable conditions (Moore & Elkavich, 2008).

In comparison to the general population, inmates in jails and prisons experience greater rates of major mental health disorders (Primm et al., 2005). Between eight to ten million individuals and their families who were incarcerated over the course of the last 35 years, suffer harmful mental health affects, many of which were convicted for drugs or nonviolent crimes (Drucker, 2013). Although prisons and local jails are legally mandated to provide health care for inmates, the quality of services are poor and individuals are unprotected from harmful physical and mental health, such as; overcrowding, poor nutrition, violence, unsanitary conditions, and solitary confinement (Cloud, Parsons & Delany-Brumsey, 2014).

Ethnic minorities disproportionately occupy local jails and prisons in the United States (Primm, Osher, & Gomez, 2005). Approximately two-thirds of inmates are African American or Latino/Hispanic (Dumont, Gjelsvik, Redmond, & Rich, 2013) and have been disproportionately affected by high rates of exposure to incarceration, parole and probation and are at a higher risk of HIV (Blankenship, Smoyer, Bray, & Mattocks, 2005). Furthermore, two-thirds of women’s jails as well as federal and state prisons are predominately occupied by African Americans, Latinos or other non-White minorities (Braithwaite et al., 2008). Ethnic minorities comprise (62%) of the prison and (57%) of the jail population, of which 15% have active symptoms of severe mental illnesses (Primm et al. 2005).

Methodology

Research Design

This qualitative study will consist of schedule-standardized, semi-structured interviews, allowing the student investigator to have control of the interview. Respondents will have a set of questions to answer. The advantage of this type of interview will be that it will heighten reliability and give respondents a structured set of questions that will be easily comprehended. Another advantage of interviews is that it will allow respondents to express subjective experiences as well as give the researcher a richer and deeper understanding of people’s behavior and their lives. The disadvantage of interviews is that they are time-consuming and may involve sensitive personal questions, which people may be somewhat uncomfortable to answer with complete honesty.

Participants for individual interviews will be selected from the community-based organization, 2nd Call and founder, Skipp Townsend will be contacted by the student-investigator to ask permission to recruit potential participants for the study. The student investigator will describe the purpose of the study, duration, and answer any additional questions about the research study. 2nd Call’s founder will be asked to present the student-investigator’s request to explain the study at one of the Thursday meeting’s. After verbal permission is received from the founder, the student-investigator will meet the interviewees at the appointed time and date and present the information about the study. The student-investigator will ask the
qualifying question: “have you ever been arrested?” to the members of 2nd Call and if they reply in the affirmative, they will then be asked to participate. If they agree to participate, they will then be consented into the study. To set up individual interviews, the student-investigator will contact the potential participants before and after 2nd Call’s meetings, every Thursday night. The student investigator will set up a time and date for interviews. In some cases, if the participant needs to reschedule, another meeting and time will be set up of their choosing.

**Sampling Design**

Purposive sampling will be used for this study. The target population will be ethnic minority adults from 18-64 years old who have previously been arrested. Also, majority of members of 2nd Call are either African American (70%) or Hispanic (29%), and very few members are White (1%). A total of 50 members of 2nd Call will participate in the study. The community-based organization, 2nd Call, located in South Los Angeles is primarily designed to improve the lives of individuals who are ex-offenders, parolees and others who society disregards. 2nd Call is an organization dedicated to individuals who seek to improve their lives; and most of these community members have previously been arrested/incarcerated. 2nd Call provides premier life management skills training, job training and readiness, and holds impact group sessions for individuals every Thursday night.

**Data Collection**

The data will be collected first-hand by the student investigator from participants at 2nd Call. There will be a structured set of interview questions asked to every participant. Each interview will last approximately 20-25 minutes. A total of 25 questions will be asked, including identifying demographic questions. Two to three individuals will be interviewed each day. Interviews will take place once a week, every Thursday, before, during or after weekly meetings. The student investigator will write down each answer given, verbatim. No names or other identifying information shall be written on interviewees’ questionnaires. All information will be confidential. All collected data will be stored and locked in an office cabinet at California State University, Los Angeles.

All data will be collected before, during or after 2nd Call’s meetings. Members meet at the Life Abundance Church, in South Los Angeles during the early evenings from 6-8p.m, every Thursday night. The student-investigator has established working relationships with the founder of 2nd Call, and has attended the weekly meetings with community members. The student investigator is currently attending these meetings, and she has familiarized herself with community members who also attend.

**Data Analysis**

The data analysis of this qualitative research study will be conducted using the Ethnographic Theory approach (Monette, Sullivan & DeJong, 2011). The researcher will sort, separate and combine the data through qualitative coding. In a process called “open coding” the investigator will review responses and develop a series of themes. Preliminary analytic thought process about emerging data structures called “memos” will be written by the researcher about these codes and comparisons, along with other ideas about the data that occur to the researcher. Concepts will then be grouped into categories that describe an emerging phenomenon. These themes will then be checked against the research literature in order to account for similarities between: 1) previous research on the topic (i.e. the extent that similar studies (if any) have found similar findings); and 2) the theoretical relevance of these responses across disciplines (e.g. criminology; social work; sociology; psychology; public health). The result of this analytical process will be a final codebook showing the categories and themes that provide a description of the process. Also, quantitative data will be entered into SPSS for producing descriptive statistics. Qualitative data will be entered and analyzed by hand.
Limitations
There are a few limitations to this study. First, the sample of this study is limited to the South Los Angeles area. Thus, findings cannot be generalized to individuals in other areas of Los Angeles since access to and awareness of health care agencies may be different in other areas of the city. Also health care agencies in other areas of Los Angeles may be more readily available for ethnic minorities who have histories with the justice system. In order to be able to generalize findings to other areas of Los Angeles, it is necessary to retrieve samples of individuals who reside in other parts of Los Angeles.

References


