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Civic-Political Development in the Context of Economic Apartheid in Distressed Communities: A Theoretical Model

Diann Cameron Kelly
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Dr. Kelly is Associate Professor at Adelphi University with research interests in civic engagement among minorities and social inequality in disorganized communities. She is editor and author of Treating Young Veterans published by Springer Publishing. It speaks to the needs of veterans who are returning from Iraq and Afghanistan.

Abstract

As class status improves, engagement in civic and political activities increases. These activities are voting, volunteerism and vocal activism. However, depressed socio-economic status leaves many individuals disengaged from civic-political structures. Applying Attachment Theory, this article proposes there are five statuses of civic-political development to being an engaged citizen. These statuses correspond to fixed class categories and are 1) disengaged and detached; 2) insecure, responsive; 3) insecure, subscribing; 4) secure, subscribing; 5) secure and defining. The lower the quintile, the less engaged an individual is in the civic-political structures of society and attached to their community. Organizing communities is one way to engage individuals into the civic-political structures of their community in spite of their economic status.
Keywords: Civic-political development; distressed communities; community attachment, working poor, voting practices, social trust

Class status and civic-political engagement in a democratic society are significantly correlated (Hays & Kogl, 2007; Oesterle, Johnson & Mortimer, 2004; Schlozman, Verba & Brady, 1999). As class status improves, engagement in civic and political activities increases. However, few studies have offered developmental perspectives to civic-political development (Flanagan, Levine & Settersten, 2009; Oesterle, et al., 2004; O’Leary, 2014; Watts, Griffith & Abdul-Adil, 1999) and its relationship to fixed class status groups (Hays & Kogl, 2007; Schlozman, et al., 1999). This article offers a developmental framework on civic-political engagement in the context of economic apartheid.

Literature Review

According to the work of Collier (2008) and Collins & Yeskel (2005), economic apartheid focuses on the decline of labor and civic institutions amid rising inequality, depressed real wages as well as a shrinking middle class structure to diminish political and economic safety nets and further divide citizens into class-based structures. Society in the United States sustains civic structures, cultural norms and values as well as social policies to further diminish political voice and collective efficacy (shared beliefs that the overarching political and social systems will adequately respond to one’s needs) and increase class-based barriers to political responsiveness. Even in the 1990’s, Richard B. Freeman (1996) noted that changes within workers’ real earnings occurred concurrently with increased barriers to
influencing the political process or actively participating in shared governance (pp. 117-118).

As such, economic apartheid, by omission or commission, is fostered by prevailing systems to perpetuate the organization of the U.S. political-economy at the peril of the most economically depressed persons. These assertions are rich when depressed class status intersects with race, ethnoreligious cultures, gender and age (Collier, 2008; Collins & Yeskel, 2005; Freeman, 1996; Marx, 1998). Therefore, looking at the attributes of civic-political development in the context of economic apartheid across the life span is essential.

The research of Jane Waldfogel (Smeeding & Waldfogel, 2010), in particular, warned that poverty, homelessness, unemployment and family discord would negatively and irrevocably change the economic landscape of our nation unless essential policies and programs were implemented to thwart the progression of poverty. Unfortunately, the recent recession has significantly impacted vulnerable families to the degree that a family classified as working class in today’s society is likely to sustain that class status for two generations (Collins & Yeskel, 2005). This is regardless of the educational levels attained as higher levels of education are now concurrent with higher levels of personal debt and diminished real wages (Collins & Yeskel, 2005; Jennings, 2001; Lichter, Shanahan & Gardner, 1999; Mechanic, 2002; Schlozman, et al., 1999).
Among maturing individuals within the United States who reside in distressed communities plagued by poverty, crime and sustained estrangement from mainstream society, there is less voter turnout, fewer member associations to promote volunteerism and community attachment, and minimal civic-political activities to promote secure civic-political attachment behaviors and external/collective efficacy across the life span (Fogel, 2004; Kelly, 2013b; Kelly, 2006; Oesterle, et al., 2004; Schlozman, et al., 1999; Southwell & Pirch, 2003). Depressed class status, also identified as low socio-economic status, is a significant risk factor as it is influenced by the maturing individual’s status in the labor market and driven by economic and political forces (Collins & Yeskel, 2005; Freeman, 1996; Jaret, Reid, and Adelman, 2003; Mechanic, 2002). This downward trend becomes significantly disproportionate when low educational attainment (Flanagan, et al., 2009; Kelly, 2002; Schlozman, Verba & Brady, 1999) and diminished social capital (i.e. social network supports) (Browning, Feinberg & Dietz, 2004; Hays & Kogl, 2007; Oesterle, et al., 2004) are co-occurring factors along with minority status, gender and age (Martin-Combs & Bayne-Smith, 2000) as classism, racism and ageism often co-occur along parallel or intersecting paths. This makes the discussion of civic-political development in the context of economic apartheid equally profound.

Further, persons identified as socio-economically at-risk are more likely to be underdeveloped civic-politically and experience alienation, suffering, feelings of aloneness and estrangement from various aspects of society to diminish connectedness, hopefulness and one’s self-discovery as an engaged citizen (Cope, Currit, Flaherty & Brown, 2016; Finn & Checkoway, 1998; Fogel, 2004; Kelly, 2013a;
Maturing individuals who may be likely to experience disengagement, social exclusion or alienation due to class status, cultural background and family violence, may be less likely to 1) experience social connectedness and community attachment; 2) be involved in civic-political activities; or 3) be able to positively evaluate the worth of their civic-political engagement (i.e. quality of life satisfaction/subjective well-being).

Civic-political development is more than one’s level of volunteerism and voting practices. Civic-political development incorporates a maturing individual’s social, emotional and financial participation in civic-political life to positively influence the future of the community through shared governance (Hays & Kogl, 2007; Kelly, 2013a; Kelly, 2009; Oesterle, et al., 2004; Weber & Frederico, 2007). Civic-political development is a combination of social connectedness and civic-political attachment behaviors across the life span and comprises stages of development toward a secure civic-political attachment status emerging from secure or insecure attachment relationships within the environment (Kelly, 2009). Further, civic-political development constitutes a range of civic-political attachment behaviors. These behaviors are voting, volunteerism, association membership or political and community activism, and serve to strengthen one’s attachment to a community and its people (Crowe, 2010; Fogel, 2004; Hardina, 2003; Kelly, 2006; Pan, Littlefield, Valladolid, Tapping & West, 2005) and relieve anxiety and stress in what some identify as a competitive economic jungle (Weber & Frederico, 2007).
It is within a competitive economic jungle that we develop our abilities to engage in society (Weber & Frederico, 2007). It is this competitive economic jungle that is demarcated by fixed class status lines promoting economic apartheid. There are various ways of examining civic-political development in the context of economic apartheid amid a competitive economic jungle.

W. Lance Bennett (2008) and Scott Keeter, Zukin, Andolina, and Jenkins, (2002) assert that civic identities, how we communicate with each other in society, and how we engage politically and civically in society are as distinct as our personalities. Their respective research offers that civic-political patterns of behaviors in competitive, political and economic environments can be characterized into specific categories – civic activities, electoral activities, and political-vocal activities, often resulting in identities such as dual activists (Keeter, et al., 2002). Bennett and Keeter’s body of research offers that civic identity emerges from one’s civic-political activities (Kelly, 2009). Oesterle, et al. (2004) offer exploring volunteerism from a Life Course Perspective, and suggest that engagement in civic activities are influenced by the trajectory between adolescence and adulthood. According to Oesterle, et al. (2004), human, social and cultural capital are enhanced by civic engagement across the life span. However, none of the studies look at the development of civic identities or engagement in the context of turbulent and competitive economic environments.

The extensive work of Flanagan, et al. (2009) assert that civic and political participation and feelings of responsibility for one’s own environment are based on
the following factors 1) socio-economic status; 2) educational attainment and intellectual competency; 3) social connectedness and access to information and a social network; 4) civic-political socialization from early childhood within a cultural context; and, 5) one’s inclusion in the labor force and potential for vocational advancement. Their literature further asserts that when people are consistently involved in meaningful civic-political activities to change their environment, their life satisfaction increases. According to Flanagan’s overall work, in particular, through this socialization, clear mechanisms develop that promote and sustain civic-political engagement across social and economic groups and strengthen social ties among U.S. citizens and prospective citizens (Kelly, 2013a; Kelly, 2009). Thus, participation in civic-political activities and relationships aids a maturing individual’s commitment to the civic society and impacts quality of life satisfaction or subjective well-being. However, it does not speak to economic barriers.

One perspective often referred to in the work of Flanagan, et al. (2009), Bennett (2008), Keeter, et al. (2002) and Kelly (2006, 2009a) explores the connection between civic-political engagement and economic barriers, especially when looking at issues of minority status, gender and other critical phenotypes. This is the perspective of sociopolitical development. According to the work of Watts, Griffith & Abdul-Adil (1999) and Diemer & Hsieh (2008), sociopolitical development emerges from the work of Paulo Freire (1973) and his work on critical consciousness. Sociopolitical development for these scholars is a five-stage model applying Liberation Psychology that includes awareness of resources and social order, strategies to enhance sense of self, concerns about inequality, desires to learn about social change, and social action
behaviors within and across an oppressive political-economic system (Watts, et al., 1999). While sociopolitical development may explain motivating behaviors to reducing inequities amid economic barriers to being engaged in society and one’s consciousness of sociopolitical inequities, sociopolitical development does not fully explain the fluid nature of being engaged in a competitive economic jungle beyond one’s level of consciousness. Individuals’ civic-political voices and governing bodies’ responsiveness to these individuals and their responsiveness to each other across civic and political groups requires further exploration and elucidation as economic apartheid is the competitive economic jungle in which people develop and survive across the life span.

Theoretical Framework

Guided by Attachment Theory, the proposed model asserts that secure civic-political development is essential for a maturing individual’s survival in society. In applying Attachment Theory, civic-political behaviors are fixed action patterns of social connectedness that facilitate attachment and relationship to others in society. Attachment theory emerges from the field of ethology and assumes that human behavior – like all animals – is species-specific, with a goal to attach to another member of the species for survival and protection (Bowlby, 1982; Fonagy, 1997; Lewis, Feiring & Rosenthal, 2000; Waters, Weinfield & Hamilton, 2000). With attachment theory, as opposed to Liberation Psychology, the maturing child or adult instinctively attaches to another individual, group or organization (i.e. attachment figures) perceived as better able to cope with the world and who can ensure the maturing individual’s survival in society (Fonagy, 1997; Perrier, Boucher, Etchegary, Sadana & Molnar, 2010; Waters, et al., 2000) no matter the uncertainty of the political-economic environment (Hewitt, 2008; Weber & Frederico, 2007).
Attachment behaviors of a civic-political nature (i.e. voting, scouting, mentoring youth or families, or charity) seek to maintain proximity to a desired figure (individual, group or organization) to satisfy the maturing child or adult’s need for physical and emotional security in an unpredictable society (Bowlby, 1982; Lewis, et al., 2000; Sroufe & Waters, 1977). Attachment is a persistent attribute. It is unaffected by the situation or moment, and maturing individuals develop adaptive internal working models (i.e. cognitive strategies) to inform their relationships with other individuals, groups or organizations through the life span (Bowlby, 1982; Fonagy, 1997; Lewis, et al., 2000; Weber & Frederico, 2007). These adaptive internal working models are mental representations of the world and its civic-political contexts that are particularly salient for the individual. These models can be reconstructed over time as new information about their developing social status in the world is assimilated into the pre-existing working models (Bowlby, 1982; Fonagy, 1997; Sroufe & Waters, 1977). When the attachment relationships change, either facilitating attachment to others or hindering it, the maturing individual’s internal working models restructure to adapt to these changes (Bowlby, 1982; Perrier, et al., 2010; Sroufe & Waters, 1977). This includes persons identified at at-risk.

Healthy civic-political development enhances social connectedness to affect subjective well-being or quality of life satisfaction. Maladaptive perceptions and behaviors are more likely to develop and strengthen as risks increase, further distancing the individual or group from the civic-political activities within a specific society. Thus, being civically and politically attached to a protective figure or figures aids a maturing
individual’s development in a competitive economic jungle, especially where fixed class status lines apply (i.e. economic apartheid).

While adaptive civic-political perceptions and behaviors help individuals make optimal daily life decisions to securely attach to other relationships in society (Hays & Kogl, 2007; Lewis, et al., 2000; Perrier, et al., 2010; Waters, et al., 2000; Weber & Frederico, 2007), maladaptive civic-political perceptions and behaviors cause deficits in civic-political attachment relationships and perceptions of self that can result in disengagement from social systems if not disengaging or violent behaviors (Fonagy, 1997; Sroufe & Waters, 1977). Maladaptive civic-political attachment relationships (e.g. criminal relationships and activities; high school dropout and delinquent relationships; and familial violence and predatory relationships) emerge within a context of economic apartheid, and are fluid relationships and exist across the life span. These adaptive and maladaptive civic-political attachments, which influence subjective well-being or quality of life satisfaction, are influenced by fixed action patterns.

Fixed action patterns of civic-political connectedness are critical elements to development (Figure A). Social trust is significant because it is a marker of one’s connections with individuals within and across diverse groups, and is the belief that most people can be trusted in society (Kelly, 2009a; Kwak, Shah, & Holbert, 2004). Voting and electoral activities, such as political volunteering, contributing to a political campaign, or recruiting members to join political parties, are adaptive and cognitive realities that one can affect change in governance through voting or other electoral activities (Fowler & Kam, 2007; Keeter, et al., 2002; Southwell & Pirch, 2003). It is significant because of its direct relationship to social trust and institutional trust.
Institutional trust is trust in government or social institutions, their assigns or designees (Kelly, 2013a; Southwell & Pirch, 2003), and is the belief that governing, social, political and economic systems can be trusted more often than not to respond to the needs of the individuals, their groups and communities. With institutional trust, people are more likely to see themselves as change agents. Volunteerism and philanthropy comprise participation in charitable activities, memberships in associations, and leadership roles within the community to solve community problems or change community outcomes through direct efforts as an individual or through a group (Karger, Iyiani & Shannon, 2007; Keeter, et al., 2002; Kelly, 2006; Oesterle, Johnson & Mortimer, 2004). This fosters collective efficacy. Collective efficacy speaks to shared identities, interests or beliefs that the overarching political and social systems will adequately and respectfully respond to the groups’ needs and concerns (Browning, et al., 2004).

Quality of life satisfaction is subjective well-being and is the subjective evaluation of one’s life and its level of quality as affected by concrete and fluid socio-economic factors that emerge within one’s life (Frisch, 1994; Harju & Bolen, 1998; Huebner, Suldo, Smith & McKnight, 2004; Kelly, 2009b, Lauder, Morgen & White, 2006). Although much has been explored about quality of life satisfaction, including its relationship to minority status (Martin-Combs & Bayne-Smith, 2000; Kelly, 2013b), substance abusers (De Maeyer, Vanderplasschen & Brockaert, 2009; Lauder, et al., 2006), youth development (Park, 2004; Torney-Purta, Amadeo & Richardson, 2003), and even college students (Haarju & Bolen, 1998), more investigations are required to better understand the concrete relationships between class status and quality of life satisfaction. This includes the fixed action patterns of social connectedness that enhance this evaluation of one’s civic-political self-in-environment (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Huebner, et al.,
community attachment is an individual’s attachment to a geographic community or specific social group (Crowe, 2010; Flanagan, et al., 2009; Hardina, 2003; Kelly, 2006). It is significantly related to subjective well-being/quality of life satisfaction and the socio-economic factors relating to civic-political connectedness (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Finn & Checkoway, 1998; Hardina, 2003; Kelly, 2006; Perrier, et al., 2010). Even if one is working class, if they live in a cohesive community they are more likely to be attached to their community and evaluate their social and physical environment positively (Crowe, 2010).

The theoretical model shows the connections between the fixed action patterns. Even in distressed communities, social trust is critical. It impacts institutional trust, voting, volunteerism, collective efficacy, community attachment and quality of life satisfaction. This is critical as it relates to the five attachment statuses of civic-political development.

**Conceptual Framework**

Emerging from the research of Bennett (2008), Keeter, et al. (2002); Flanagan, et al. (2009), Watts, Griffiths & Abdul-Adil (1999) and Diemer & Hsieh (2008), the conceptual framework identified as *Attachment Statuses of Civic-Political Development* suggests there are five civic-political attachment statuses across socio-economic levels that foster fixed action patterns of civic-political development during economic periods. These civic-political attachment statuses parallel the *Stages of Sociopolitical Development* (Watts, et al., 1999; Diemer & Hsieh, 2008; Araujo Dawson & Kelly, 2010) and incorporate the research on civic identities (Bennett, 2008; Keeter, et al., 2002). However, it is embedded in attachment literature and themes (Fonagy, 1997; Hays &

There are five attachment statuses of civic-political development. The first status corresponds with the lowest economic quintile and is identified as disengaged and detached. What is significant about this status is that the individual exhibits disoriented attachment to civic-political structures. This means the individual is less likely to vote or volunteer their skills to a charitable endeavor. Research shows that individuals in the lowest quintile do not vote readily or volunteer their skills (Avery, 2015; Birch & Lodge, 2015). They lack social capital. This dynamic leaves them detached from civic-political theater and vulnerable to powerlessness. This is especially the case with poor, African American individuals who are disenfranchised and have very little attachment to the community (Kelly, 2013b). They also exhibit minimal social and institutional trust.

The second status is insecure, responsive attachment and corresponds to the lowest to moderate quintiles. In this status, the individual has insecure attachment to civic-political structures, but is irregularly responsive to civic-political influences with some dependency. This means that the individual votes irregularly, may volunteer in the community in a less than even manner, and may require prompting to engage in civic-political activities with some incentives (Avery, 2015; Miles, 2015). Individuals in this status may live in communities that are economically dependent on the environment (Birch & Lodge, 2015) and are structurally plagued with crime and lack affordable housing (Kelly, 2013a). Social trust may also be minimal.
The third status is insecure, subscribing attachment and corresponds to the moderate quintile. In this status, the individual continues to have an insecure attachment to civic-political structures, but subscribes regularly to civic-political influences. This means the individual has less than secure attachment to their community but participates in civic-political activities more regularly than previous stages. These individuals are more likely to vote in presidential and local elections, and volunteer in the community more regularly (Kelly, 2013b; Miles, 2015) with moderate social trust. In addition, the engagement these individuals may experience require prompting from external influences (i.e. media, political circulars, and personal contact) (Kelly, 2013a).

The fourth status is the secure, subscribing attachment and corresponds to moderate to high quintiles. Individuals in this status are securely attached to civic-political structures, and subscribe regularly to civic-political influences. These individuals are likely to vote in federal, state and local elections and are likely to volunteer their time within the community (Kelly, 2013a). In addition, these individuals see themselves as engaged members of the community and have an attachment to their community (Kelly, 2013b). Through their religious and community participation, they view themselves as citizens with all the privileges of citizenship. This speaks to their social trust as high.

The final status is the secure and defining attachment status that corresponds to the high moderate to high quintiles. These individuals exhibit a secure attachment to civic-political influences in their own lives and the lives of others. These individuals readily vote and participate in political volunteering. In addition, these individuals
contribute to the community through volunteerism and charitable giving (Kelly, 2013a; Kelly, 2013b). Further, these individuals are attached to their varied communities (religious, social and geographic) and view themselves as agents of change. They exhibit high social trust and moderate to high institutional trust.

These five statuses help us understand the dynamic of civic-political engagement in the competitive economic jungle. Individuals from lower socio-economic quintiles are not as likely to be engaged in the civic-political structures of their communities. The impetus of change comes from outside the community rather than from within. The individuals performing the change are individuals from higher quintiles who are secure in their attachment and their citizenship. These are the individuals who are engaged and responsive to the needs of their community and distressed communities.

**Conclusion**

In a competitive economic jungle, people determine the level of engagement they will have with their community. Civic-political engagement is a class issue. The higher an individual’s income, the more likely they will be involved in the civic-political structures of the community. The lower the income, the more likely the individual will be insecurely attached and may be disengaged from the community. Essential to this theory is organizing members of distressed communities to affect positive change.

When individuals involve themselves in the improvement of their communities, they feel a sense of ownership of the community and increase their attachment to the community (Kelly, 2013b). They are more likely to vote and involve themselves in volunteerism regardless of their socio-economic status. Organizing the community is
the optimal way to engage people in the civic-political structures of their lives. This organizing is key to dismantling the effects of economic apartheid in distressed communities.

Conflict of Interest Statement:
The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References


Figure A
Theoretical Model
Fixed Action Patterns of Civic Political Connectedness

- Social Trust
- Institutional Trust
- Voting and Electoral Activities
- Collective Efficacy
- Volunteerism & Philanthropy
- Quality of Life Satisfaction
- Community Attachment
- Satisfaction
- Collective Efficacy
- Community Attachment
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<th>Range of Socio-Economic Status (lowest to highest quintile)</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Disengaged and Detached  Disoriented attachment to civic-political structures with low outcomes on fixed action patterns</td>
<td>Lowest quintile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Insecure, Responsive Attachment  Insecure attachment to civic-political structures, but responsive (regularly or irregularly) to civic-political influences with some dependency</td>
<td>Lowest to moderate quintiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Insecure, Subscribing Attachment  Insecure attachment to civic-political structures but subscribing (more likely regularly) to civic-political influences</td>
<td>Moderate quintile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Secure, Subscribing Attachment  Secure attachment to civic political structures, and subscribing regularly to civic-political influences</td>
<td>Moderate to high quintiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Secure and Defining Attachment  Secure attachment to civic political influences, and defining civic political influences in the lives of self and others</td>
<td>High moderate to high quintiles</td>
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Client Satisfaction with Services Provided by a State Rehabilitation Agency

Marie Kraska
Auburn University

Marie Kraska is a Distinguished Professor Emeritus at Auburn University. She earned a Ph.D. in technical (research and statistics) studies, from the University of Missouri, a Master's degree in Probability and Statistics from Auburn University, and a Master of Science degree in research and statistics from the University of Wisconsin-Stout. Her experience includes teaching research, statistics, and directing doctoral student research. Her research interests are applications of statistical procedures to theoretical concepts and modeling latent variables related to values, student retention, special populations, rehabilitation clients and services.

Abstract

The purpose of this presentation is to present a prediction model of client satisfaction with their vocational rehabilitation counselors based on services received for job readiness, job search, job placement, and transportation. This study is part of a larger study (N=3,527) sponsored by a state department of rehabilitation services in the southeastern part of the United States. Data were collected in 2016 and 715 clients responded to the counselor satisfaction variable. Multiple linear regression procedures were used. The overall regression model was statistically significant at the .01 level. Transportation and job search assistance were significant at the .02 and .06 levels respectively.
A Developmental Approach to Collegiate Recovery: A Continuum of Care Model

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Dr. Gerard A. Love is the Executive Director of the Collegiate Recovery & Intervention Department at the University of Alabama. He has 27 years as an academic training addiction counselors and supervision of counselors in AOD programming, and the development of Collegiate Recovery Programs. His research interests are addiction treatment, identity development in recovery and collegiate recovery programming. Dr. Love is a past presenter at CSI. His most recent presentation at CSI was related to diversity and ethnocentric monoculturalis. His most recent national presentation was on innovations in collegiate recovery at NASPA Portland, Oregon in January 2018.

Abstract

Collegiate Recovery programs are designed to provide a safe and supportive environment for college students pursuing long term recovery from substance use disorders. The field of collegiate recovery is a relative new campus resource that finds its origins in counseling and alcohol and other drug treatment in a university counseling setting. Collegiate recovery programs exist in a variety of campus divisions ranging from student life, student health, university counseling center, to residential life living learning communities. Due to the evolution of the field professional
literature and models of collegiate recovery are limited. This presentation will outline a unique continuum of care model that is grounded in developmental theory and student identity theory. This broad brush model of collegiate behavioral health has multiple implications for addressing the needs of students faced with substance use disorders as well as campus prevention models. The presentation will conclude with data from current collegiate recovery students and suggestions for program implementation of this campus resource.
Erikson, Adler, and Measures of Spiritual Awareness

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Professor of Psychology at Indiana Wesleyan University. Experienced psychologist with a wide variety of exposure to clinical, school, and academic populations. Varied settings include: providing psychological services for inpatient, outpatient, Headstart, preschool, Elementary, Middle and High schools. Range of clinical services include: counseling, psychological services for the mentally ill, assessment of learning disabled and seriously emotionally disturbed students, and providing school psychology services and consultations for parents and teachers.

Abstract

The research literature is replete of investigations examining personality models and religion/spirituality. Miller & Worthington, Jr. (2012) discussed Object Relations, Attachment, Eysenck’s Biological approach, and the Big Five Factor model and reviewed some of the current findings relative to religious and spiritual constructs. Yet, often overlooked in the literature are the iconic and classic theorists (i.e., Erik Erikson, Alfred Adler) and their contributions to personality development. This research reports preliminary findings on the relationship between Erikson’s psychosocial stages and Adler’s social interest with religious orientation (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, and quest) and
spiritual well-being (i.e., religious, existential, and spiritual well-being). Applications for building spiritual awareness and psychosocial strengths in college students will be offered.

Erikson, Adler, & Measures of Spiritual Awareness

Psychology professors hope that every psychology major can recite Erikson’s (1963) eight stages of psychosocial development. The stages are examined in every introductory textbook, and again in Development and Personality. “Erikson’s theory continues to be a valued comprehensive account of personality development throughout the entire life span” (Hawley, 1988, p.1). Passage through the stages with a positive outcome of the conflict yields a healthy personality and one that is willing to give back to subsequent generations.

Erikson’s work has been studied numerous times and spanning several decades as it relates to spirituality and social relationships (Adams, Berzonsky, Keating, 2006; Kiesling, Sorell, Montgomery, & Colwell, 2006; Rosenthal, Gurney, & Moore, 1981; Sanders, 1998). His theory is used to understand and nurture spiritual development in Christians (Tate & Parker, 2007) and more recently to maximize potential in high ability grade school students (Cross & Cross, 2017). Finding his work useful and reliable in a wide range of research, the authors considered Erikson’s psychosocial developmental theory as a potential predictor for satisfaction with God.

Similarly, Alfred Adler’s (1959) personality theories are also still a standard in the teaching of personality theory. Adler believed that in some way, everyone is striving to be God-like, as it is a goal of perfection and a goal of serving others to reach that goal. “The best conception hitherto gained for the elevation of humanity is the idea of God,” wrote Adler. “There can be no question that the idea of God really includes within it as
a goal the movement towards perfection, and that, as a concrete goal, it best corresponds to the obscure yearnings of human beings to reach perfection” (Stepp, 2011, p.1).

Adler viewed neuroses from unhealthy views of perceived inferiority, withdrawing from society and the responsibilities attached, and thoughts of superiority, trying to find and accomplish dominion over others. He believed that people could escape their neurotic thoughts and behaviors through taking interest in others, and in a sense to “love thy neighbor,” (Stepp, 2011, p. 2). Social interest is valuing things other than one’s self and the amount one is able to identify with the desires and affairs of others (Crandall, 1980). He believes human beings, all strive to understand and be a part of human kind, along with developing love and social interest with and for each other (Stepp, 2011). These views parallel theories surrounding concern for others, cooperation, and even altruism as important for health of the individual as it is for the community. Adler posited that the most fulfilling concept of the meaning of life is the sense of community and feeling acceptance. (Crandall, 1980).

Social interest is central to Adler’s theory and he considered it the greatest value for humans. Social interest is an affirmative attitude toward both humanity and the whole universe (Adler, 1959). Adler’s theorizes that this capacity to identify and empathize with others is the most effective protection against feeling of inferiority. Gradel (1989) added that social interest is a component of good mental health and a healthy personality. “Social interest influences a person’s perception, thinking and overt behaviors related to cooperation, helping, sharing and contributing (Gradel, 1989, p.1).

The research literature is replete of investigations examining personality models and religion/spirituality. Miller & Worthington, Jr. (2012) discussed Object Relations, Attachment, Eysenck’s Biological approach, and the Big Five Factor model and
reviewed some of the current findings relative to religious and spiritual constructs. Bergin (1988) looked at the relationship between religious lifestyles (e.g. church participation self-discipline and consistent moral decisions) and mental health in college students and found students who have developed Erikson’s identity (vs. role confusion) and adhered to personal identity, values and continuous religious development had high intrinsic and low extrinsic religious orientation than students without this trait. Bergin says his research supports religiousness as positively correlated with mental health (1999). Van Dierendonck (2005) studied factors involved in positive psychological health using the Big 5 and suggested that feelings of well-being, self-actualization, autonomy and interpersonal relationships were keys to good mental health. Aliakbarzadeh (2017) employed the Spiritual well-being scale (Paloutzian and Ellison, 1991) examining college student’s social adjustment and spiritual health. He found good social adjustment was significantly positively correlated with spiritual, religious and mental health. Other predictors of success in college students were clearly defined goals and personal spirituality (George, Dixon, Stansal, Gelband, & Pheri, 2008).

Batson (1976) developed the Quest Scale (QS). Batson and Schoenrade (1991) defined religion as a quest as “openly facing complex, existential questions … and resisting clear-cut, pat answers” (p. 430). Genia (1996) found “Quest yielded negative correlations with social desirability and fundamentalism. High quest scorers also reported more personal distress and lower spiritual wellbeing” (p. 62).

Yet, often overlooked in the literature are the iconic and classic theorists (i.e., Erik Erikson, Alfred Adler) and their contributions to personality development. Despite extensive research on a wide variety of personality measures and measures of
religiosity, very little data exists about the relationship between measures of social
interest, psychosocial development, and spirituality/religiosity.

With a sample of Protestant Millennial undergraduates at a private, Christian
Midwestern university, we pursued the following research question. What combination
of social interest and Erikson’s eight attributes of personality would predict spiritual
well-being (i.e., religious and existential well-being) and religious orientation (i.e.,
intrinsic, extrinsic, and quest)? Based on previous research, we anticipated that social
interest and Erikson’s eight attributes will be positive predictors of religious well-being,
existential well-being, and intrinsic religious orientation; social interest and Erikson’s
traits should be negatively associated with extrinsic religious orientation and quest
religious orientation (Aliakbarzadeh, 2017; Bergin, et al, 1988; Genia, 1996; Gradel,
1988).

Method

Participants

Participants were undergraduates (n = 135) enrolled in a private Christian university
located in the Midwest of the United States. The students comprised of 93 females (69%)
and 42 males (31%) with an average age of 19 years. Self-identified ethnic affiliations
include: 87% European American, 4% Hispanic Americans, 3% African Americans, 1%
Asian Americans, and 5% other or undesignated.

Concerning religious landscape, 86% of the respondents (n = 532) indicated religion
was very important. Eleven percent noted religion was somewhat important. Only 3%
stated they were unsure about the importance of religion or that religion was not
important. Last, 86% indicated a need to seek and discern God’ will in decision-making.

Measures

Spirituality & Religiosity.
Spiritual Well-Being (SWB). Spirituality was measured using the Spiritual Well-Being Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian & Ellison, 1991). This measure is an indicator of a person’s perceived state of well-being. There are 20-items using a six point Likert response format. There are two sub-scales in SWB, religious well-being (RWB) and existential well-being (EWB). The former reveals respondents’ current level of religious contentment – the present level of relational satisfaction with God. The latter reveals people’s current level of life-satisfaction – their present level of satisfaction with their life experiences. RWB has 10 questions with an internal consistency of .94 (alpha value); EWB also have 10 items with an alpha of .86 (Bufford, Paloutzian, & Ellison, 1991).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Orientation (IRO/ERO). IRO and ERO were measured using the Religious Orientation Scale – Revised (ROS-R; Gorsuch & McPherson, 1989). There are 14 items in the ROS-R with a five-point Likert response format. Intrinsic Religious Orientation (IRO) (eight questions) has been referred to a “master motive” (a no-nonsense fervency of commitment). People perceive religion as an end in itself and they are ‘living’ their religion. Extrinsic Religious Orientation (ERO) (six items) refers to a religious motive that is utilitarian in nature. People are ‘using’ their religion; ERO is considered a superficial, self-serving religious commitment. Reliability estimates are .83 for IRO and .65 for ERO.

Quest Religious Orientation (QRO). QRO is measured using the Quest Scale (QS; Batson, 1976). It is a 12-item measure with a nine-point Likert response format. It provides a one-dimensional assessment of participants’ quest motive. This inquisitive religious drive comprises three attributes: responsiveness – a willingness to address existential struggles and complex questions, not divorcing self from uncomfortable experiences; doubt positivism – courage to embrace uncertainty in a positive manner; and openness – an on-going pursuit for new religious knowledge that can lead to
modification of beliefs and convictions. One reliability report indicates QS having an alpha of .82 for internal consistency.

**Alder’s Social Interest.**

*Social Interest (SI).* Social Interest was measured by the Sulliman Scale of Social Interest (SSSI); (Sulliman, 1973). This instrument has 50 items with a true/false response format. Social interest refers to an innate potential to further the welfare of others. People cooperate with others to achieve personal and societal goals. According to Gradel (1990), social interest is the capacity to “transcend the limits of the self and to identify with the needs and concerns of others” (p. 1). Those who choose more self-centered traits had lower social interest. Sulliman (1973) reported the SSSI having a reliability coefficient of .91 using the Kuder-Richardson 20 formula.

**Erikson’s Psychosocial Development.**

*Psychosocial Development (PD).* The Measures of Psychosocial Development (MPD; Hawley, 1988) assessed PD. This self-report instrument comprises of 112 items using a five point Likert response format. The MPD offers indicators of psychosocial health based on Erikson’s eight crises for adolescents and adults. There are 27 scales – eight positive, eight negative, eight resolution, and 3 total scales. According to Hawley, the range for reliability coefficients for the sixteen main PD traits (e.g., trust, autonomy, mistrust, etc.) range from .65-.84.

**Results**

Table 1

*Intercorrelations, Means, and Standard Deviations of the Variables for Spirituality, Religion, Adlerian and Eriksonian Personality Concepts*
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Note: n = 135; SSSI = social interest; +1 = trust; +2 = autonomy; +3 = initiative; +4 = industry; +5 = identity; +6 = intimacy; +7 = generativity; +8 = integrity; -1 = mistrust, -2 = shame/doubt; -3= guilt; -4 = inferiority; -5 = identity confusion; -6 = isolation; -7 = stagnation; -8 = despair; RWB = religious well-being; EWB = existential well-being; SWB = spiritual well-being; IRO = intrinsic religious orientation; ERO = extrinsic religious orientation; QRO = quest religious orientation (Quest Scale); EQ = existential questions (Quest Scale); OC = openness to change (Quest Scale); DP = doubt positivism (Quest Scale); EXM = existential motives (MQOS = Multidimensional Quest Orientation Scale); COM = religious complexity (MQOS); EXP = exploration (MQOS); CHAN = religious
change (MQOS); TEN = tentativeness (MQOS); EC = ecumenism (MQOS); UNV = universality (MQOS); RA = religious angst (MQOS); MI = moral interpretation (MQOS); Underlined & bold “r” = p ≤ .05; bold “r” = p ≤ .01 and unfilled blanks = non-significant “r.”

Table 2
Standard Multiple Regression Analyses for the Influence of Adlerian & Eriksonian Concepts on Spirituality and Religious Phenomenon

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Note: SSSI = social interest; P1 = trust; P5 = identity; P6 = intimacy; P7 = generativity; P8 = integrity; N7 = stagnation; RWB = religious well-being; EWB = existential well-being; SWB = spiritual well-being; IRO = intrinsic religious orientation; and QRO = quest religious orientation (Quest Scale)

Discussion

Erikson’s (1963) positive traits of Trust, Identity, Intimacy and Integrity were all found to predict satisfaction with God. Trust implies a belief that others will meet personal needs and people are good and well meaning. There is an openness to new people and experiences. Identity is an integration of various roles to promote psychosocial well-being and an appreciation for one’s own uniqueness and individuality. As self-awareness increases, identity is able to be re-evaluated openly. Intimacy, the ability to commit to partnerships with others and share with another person without losing one’s identity is an ethical strength to persevere in relationships. Those with developed integrity have a sense of meaning and significance in their lives. They have dignity, practical wisdom, and a deep satisfaction with their lives (Hawley, 1991).

Satisfaction with God was determined through the Religious Well-Being Scale (RWB), which identifies how the individual perceives their current relationship with God. This measure reflects the vertical relationship between a person and God. Each of the aforementioned Erikson (1963) traits predict God satisfaction.
Students who are able to have satisfactory relationships with others, commitment and safety (Intimacy) or had high ego integrity (being satisfied with life and personal accomplishments) also had a high prediction of satisfaction in their relationship with God. Interestingly, students who have a lot of religious doubt, but felt free to explore their questions (Quest) were low in social interest (SSSI) but high in Erikson’s (1963) trait of generativity. Generally, this trait is thought to occur in middle adulthood, not at 19 years of age. Those who score high in generativity have a concern for influencing the world to be a better place for the next generation. They can look beyond their own development and become actively involved in serving others to improve conditions for those coming after them. Their involvement in others’ lives are for leaving their mark upon the world (Hawley, 1988). Despite this discrepancy, it does make sense in terms of the traits of the millennial generation. Some of the many traits ascribed to millennials include feeling responsible for caring for the elderly (Hyder, 2014), and wanting to make the world a better place, no matter what the current condition (LeBeouf, 2017). In their book, The Millennials, (Rainer and Rainer, 2011), repeatedly state that the people of this segment of society are relationship oriented. Even though these students are not at mid-life displaying generativity, the essential traits of their generation helps them to focus caring for those in need, and those to come.

Surprisingly though, the most consistent predictor across all measures is Adler’s measure of Social Interest. The SSSI is the most prevalent predictor of both satisfaction with God and overall life satisfaction. Feeling content in the relationship with God is predicted by a positive social interest. Social interest includes the capacity for interrelating with others and feeling identification and empathy with others. Social
interest transcends the focus on self to identify with the needs and concerns of others. It involves cooperation, and contributing to the needs of others (Gradel, 1990).

Furthermore, the Existential Well-Being Scale (EWB), which measures a sense of life’s purpose and life satisfaction in relationships, is also predicted by both social interest and Erikson’s (1963) positive trait of identity. Those who score high on identity have achieved basic values and attitudes that crisscross over everyday roles of student, friend, child or employee. They are comfortable with who they are and appreciate their own uniqueness (MPD) Thus life satisfaction is predicted by both knowing self and being interested in cooperating with others to achieve both personal and societal goals.

Conclusion

This research set out to examine the relationship between Erikson’s psychosocial stages and Adler’s social interest with religious orientation (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, and quest) and spiritual well-being (i.e., religious, existential, and spiritual well-being). It was expected that social interest and Erikson’s eight attributes would be positive predictors of religious well-being, existential well-being, and intrinsic religious orientation; social interest and Erikson’s traits would be negatively associated with extrinsic religious orientation and quest religious orientation. However, not all of Erikson’s traits were positive predictors. Only Trust, Identity, Intimacy and surprisingly, Integrity, and Generativity, were predictors of satisfaction with God. From a developmental perspective, the first three traits make sense because the average age of the student sample is appropriate for these to have been achieved. But how do 19 year olds achieve generativity and ego integrity? These are to occur in middle age to old age. Millennial students “have a strong motivation to serve others”
(Rainer and Rainer, 2011, p. 274). This may also help explain the interesting finding that social interest was the main predictor of both satisfaction with God and overall life satisfaction. These students want to live out their religion. They are other focused and passionate about serving their community. Logically, it seemed that satisfaction with God would predict interest in serving others. Their interest in giving back to those in need and living a life that is true to their beliefs are what influences life and contentment with God. Although these students are often criticized for being the laws connected, technology generation, they do have a maturity beyond their years and are committed to pursuing the welfare of others for fulfillment with God.

**Applications**

The implications of this study will be useful for professors, counselors, and others working with college students. As psychosocial factors and social interest predict satisfaction with God, it makes sense that an increase in those components will continue to intensify contentment with one’s relationship with God. Therefore, helping students develop trust (believing their needs will be met, and a willingness to delay gratification), identity (learning to integrate roles), intimacy (committing to relationships with others and seeking close relationships without losing one’s identity), and integrity (having a sense of meaning in life and living with dignity and satisfaction) would be beneficial in this endeavor. Additionally, increasing social interest, as described by Adler (1959) will also affect satisfaction with God. This could be accomplished by helping students find active interest in furthering the welfare of others, transcending their own needs to offer concern for humankind, and adjusting mentally often to maintain well-being.
References


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An Examination of Sexual Violence among Individuals Who Identify as Lesbian, Gay, Bi-Sexual, and/or Transgender (LBGT)

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*Saint Leo University*

Dr. Mims is a retired Tampa Police Officer. While at the Tampa Police Department Dr. Mims served on the Mounted Patrol Unit, was a Community Police Officer, Bicycle Patrol Officer, and Under-Cover Officer and was an Elderly Abuse Investigator, Domestic Violence Investigator and a Child Abuse Investigator. Dr. Mims holds a doctoral degree in Business Administration with a concentration in Criminal Justice from Northcentral University. She is a faculty Professor of Criminal Justice at Saint Leo University and teaches at the Pasco-Hernando State College and Hillsborough Community College Police Academies. Dr. Mims is a certified firearms instructor, CPR and Basic Life Support instructor and holds a private investigators and recovery agent license. She professionally trains and shows dogs in obedience, agility, freestyle, tricks and therapy and owns five border collies and three papillons.

Dr. Waddell is a Professor and Associate Chair of the Undergraduate Social Work Department. She has been a member of the Saint Leo University (SLU) Community since August 2010. She received the bachelor’s degree from the University of Florida in Sociology, the Master’s and Doctorate degrees in Social Work from Florida
State University. She previously worked as a medical social worker and taught an interdisciplinary family health course with Shands Hospital and the University of Florida in Gainesville for a combined 19 years of service. Currently Dr. Waddell has taught all of the undergraduate social work courses offered at SLU. Her research interests include interdisciplinary collaborations on social justice topics to include community health, humane education, and veterinary social work topics of study. She holds close a family member that identifies as transgender. She enjoys her family which includes two daughters, Sarah and Maggie, one grandson, Richard, three dogs, and a pot belly pig.

Abstract
A systematic review of literature published from 2010 to 2016 was conducted in order to examine sexual violence perpetrated among those individuals who identified as lesbian, bi-sexual, gay, and/or transgender (LBGT) and the challenges they faced from identifying as an LBGT individual. Results of the literature findings indicated that LBGT individuals are exposed to childhood sexual abuse, adult sexual assaults and hate crimes at significantly higher rates when compared to the general population. The examination of the literature revealed disproportionate rates of harassment, physical assaults, sexual assaults and intimate partner violence when compared to the general population. In addition, individuals who identify as LBGT are substantially prone to internalization of their feelings, making them prone to post-traumatic stress (PTS), depression, anxiety, substance abuse and suicide. The lack of available support for the LBGT community leaves them feeling vulnerable and underserved. This research advocates for effective collaboration with social services with the aim of ensuring justice and equitable treatment for LBGT individuals.
Exploring the Impact of Strategies of Intergroup Contact on University Students: Empathy, Anxiety, and Constructions of Criminal Offenders

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Park University

Brian J. Cowley
Park University

Dr. Anderson has a Ph.D. in Public Policy and Social Change and is an Assistant Professor in Criminal Justice at Park University in Parkville, MO. She was employed by the Federal Bureau of Prisons for more than 26 years, working primarily in case management and inmate treatment programs, retiring from an administrative position in the Bureau’s North Central Regional Office. Dr. Anderson conducts a program which brings university students into prison to participate in a semester-long class with prison inmates, and is interested in the potential of intergroup contact to facilitate greater understanding of the inmate population.

Brian Cowley, Ph.D. completed a B.S. at Utah State University in Psychology (1987), a M.S. at Southern Illinois University-Carbondale in Behavior Analysis and Therapy (1989), and a Ph.D. at the University of Kansas in Developmental and Child Psychology (1998). His previously taught at Northeastern State University, (4 years) and at the University of Florida (2 years) and at Park University since 2003. His current rank is Professor of Psychology. He has studied child abuse and neglect, language delays, brain injury, developmental disabilities, self-studies, response classes, learning,
environmental sustainability, and parenting. Recently he is currently studying genocide and the Holocaust.

Abstract
To combat the ever rising numbers of incarceration rates and the public support for the violent treatment of offenders, researchers propose engaging in high quality contact with them (Vasiljevic & Viki, 2013). Presented as a “contact hypothesis” by Allport (1954), the concept of intergroup contact developed into an integrated and influential theory (Hewstone & Swart, 2011). The ongoing study of intergroup contact revealed reduction of anxiety and increase in empathy are psychological processes through which contact produces its positive effects. This study explored if strategies of intergroup contact reduced anxiety and generated empathy in university students participating with prison inmates in an experiential learning program held at a medium level state prison. The study further explored if these strategies produced a change in the students’ constructions of criminal offenders. Likert scales to measure empathy and anxiety, and thematic analysis of imagined contact essays and weekly journals provided insight into the impact of program components. Even as the imagined contact essays revealed a growing awareness of the offenders as culpable and capable of serious violence, student reflections revealed students connecting with the offenders on a personal level, committed to furthering insight and understanding. While the affective factors of empathy and anxiety may not have evidenced significant changes, the current study may provide support to the idea that this does not inhibit the positive effects of intergroup contact, nor would it preclude the students, as future leaders, from building on meaningful, nuanced, and complex understandings to one day initiate realistic challenges to this country’s decades-old policies.
Learning how to Work Collaboratively Among Neuroscience and Education to Foster Better Understanding of Cognitive Development

Kourtland R. Koch
Ball State University

Kourtland R. Koch, Ph. D. is active in his service to the profession. His research agenda focuses on applying brain mapping methods to identify specific perceptual modality pathways using fMRI imaging analysis to explore relationships among learning and behavior. As Program Director for Early Childhood Special Education, Dr. Koch recognizes the importance of early intervention services. Dr. Koch has been awarded two grants, one internal and one external, to support his research. He serves as associate editor or co-editor on numerous national and international journals. Dr. Koch has served on 50 committees at the international, national, and state level.

Abstract
To date, both neuroscience and education have focused on cognitive development, yet both sides have often neglected how they can work collaboratively to identify and monitor strategies which produce clinically based results that can be applied to educational practices. Encouraging teachers to turn their attention to social and emotional environments in which children encounter learning, it becomes possible to modify educational practices based upon neuroscience. If we can learn to appreciate the diversity of strategies that researchers apply to answer a specific question, then education may also benefit by emphasizing the importance of teaching different strategies and helping students develop the skills necessary to be able to take different
approaches to a problem. Research in neuroscience, cognitive science, and educational research has intensified in recent years. These endeavors have provided an opportunity to understand and apply current research findings with the hope it may eventually be possible to identify selected teaching methods associated with specific types of brain activation. Additional outcomes may be informing teachers how the brain works and develops as the child progresses through school, based on developmental milestones from birth through the adult years. This will require teachers to become more critical when evaluating the latest neuroscience findings to avoid the misapplication of concepts which have been noted by Bruer (1998) and others (Fischer, 2009) over the past 20 years.
Take Heed, Take Action: Bullying in the Home is Sibling Abuse – and It’s Serious!

Amy Meyers
Molloy College

Amy Meyers, PhD is an Associate Professor of Social Work at Molloy College. She received her doctoral degree and MSW from the CUNY Graduate Center/Hunter College School of Social Work. She has presented nationally on sibling abuse and has consulted for the Administration for Children’s Services in NYC. Dr. Meyers provides trainings for child welfare staff and clinicians throughout the metropolitan NY area where she also maintains a private practice and serves as the Vice President of the Metropolitan Chapter of the New York State Society for Clinical Social Workers.

Abstract

Summary:
Although there is increased research on sibling abuse, it continues to remain under-recognized. As a phenomenon in need of greater attention, this paper strives to broaden awareness of sibling abuse. The sibling relationship is presented as an influential force that when besieged by abuse has significant ramifications for the victim. Sibling abuse is highlighted as impactful as parent-child abuse and is compared to sibling rivalry and teasing as a way to discern its magnitude and establish it as non-normative. Potential factors which keep sibling abuse under the radar are explored. With an understanding of familial, cultural, and institutional structures that contribute to its oversight, action is
proposed that would expand attentiveness: protection and intervention can occur through multiple plains including academia, child welfare, and clinical practice.

Findings:
Potential factors which keep sibling abuse under the radar and include a familial culture of abuse and secrecy, cultural perceptions of sibling behaviors as normative, and limited guidance to assess for sibling abuse.

Application:
Developing awareness and contribution to prevention and intervention is called for through adequate assessments which would lead to appropriate clinical interventions. It is proposed that knowledge building begin at the academic level and continue through professional programs and trainings to facilitate mental health and social service workers to be proactive in its identification and treatment.

Introduction
The identification of sibling abuse is imperative to the emotional well-being of the victim, the perpetrator, and the family system.Sibling abuse has been identified as the most common form of family violence (Button, Parker, & Gealt, 2008; Reid & Donovan, 1990). It occurs more frequently than parent-child abuse or spousal abuse (Graham-Bermann, Cutler, Litzenberger, & Schwartz, 1994), yet it remains largely unaddressed in the literature and subsequently under the radar of child welfare, social service providers, and mental health practitioners.

Highlighted in this paper is the need for those working in the field of mental health and social service to detect sibling abuse its significant and detrimental impact. The aim of this paper to broaden awareness of sibling abuse through the distinction of sibling abuse from normative sibling relational behavior and consider factors which
prevent sibling abuse from gaining attention. Pathways to expanding knowledge of sibling abuse and integrating a sibling abuse framework is proposed to arm educators, practitioners, and child welfare staff to take action.

**Sibling Relations and Abuse as a Significant Force**

The effects of sibling abuse (Caffaro & Conn-Caffaro, 1998; Garey, 1998; McLaurin 2005; Simonelli, Mullis, Elliott, & Pierce, 2002; Wiehe, 1990) are underscored by research on the detrimental impact of parent-child abuse on self-esteem (Colman & Widom, 2004; Godbout et al, 2006) and the culmination of evidence on the influence of siblings on development (Cicerelli, 1995; Leader, 2007; Vespo, 1997). Knowledge that siblings are one’s most important peer (Leader, 2007; Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 2010) and that parent-child abuse compromises psychosocial development sets the precedent to insinuate that abuse from a sibling also poses serious effects. This has been confirmed by research which has documented the long-term ramifications of sibling abuse (Caffaro & Conn-Caffaro, 1998; Meyers, 2011; Wiehe, 1991).

**Sibling Relationships and Development**

Although the sibling relationship was not a part of classical theories of personality, research has demonstrated that siblings are a major influence on each other’s behavior and development (Lamb & Sutton-Smith, 1992; Cicerelli, 1995). Siblings influence socialization and learning and provide both direct and indirect effects on skills, expectancies, tasks, and interpretations of companionship. These dynamics help to cultivate a preferred level of intimacy and distinct style of communication (Leader, 2007). Themes of power and hierarchy, fairness and justice, communication styles, conflict resolution, friendship, loyalty, and complementary role development are important aspects of the sibling relationship which define future relationships (Mones, 2001).
Conflict is inherent in any close relationship, and it has been found that how conflict is resolved in sibling relationships can foster or hinder peer relationships and influence socialization (Vespo, 1997). Common causes of sibling rivalry include conflict over tangible goods and division of labor in the household (Felson, 1983). Rivalry also develops from age differences in the family and a desire for power, parental attention, recognition, and love or jealousy of younger siblings (Felson, 1983; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980). Factors such as divorce, family size, and levels of family violence might also influence sibling conflicts (Lamb & Sutton-Smith, 1982). Family systems theorists assert that conflict arises between siblings because of the intense emotional involvement, the amount of time spent together, and involuntary membership (Gelles & Straus, 1979). It is also contended that power struggles within the sibling relationship have more to do with living together than with being siblings (Raffaelli, 1992); nonetheless, these are ways of testing grounds for appropriate peer boundaries in relationships outside of the home.

*Parent-Child Abuse*

It has well-been established that emotional, physical, and sexual abuse have adverse effects on the developing child that continues into adulthood. The perpetrator of abuse exploits the emotional dependence of the victim and fuels feelings of helplessness and rage in an effort to deliberately eradicate or compromise the child’s separate identity (Shengold, 1989). Childhood abuse manifests in problems with peers, aggression, social withdrawal, isolation (Ferrara, 2002; Trickett & McBride-Change, 1995; Briere, 1992), depression, anxiety, conduct problems, and deficits in intellectual and academic functioning (Ammerman et. al., 1986). It has been reported that physically abused children are significantly more aggressive than non-abused children (Feldman,
Salzinger, Rosario, Alvarado, Caraballo, & Hammer, 1995; Kinard, 1980; Trickett, 1993) and have more difficulty with trust and separation (Kinard, 1982).

Childhood physical abuse is also linked to adult violence towards dating partners, self-injurious and suicidal behavior, nonviolent criminal behavior, and interpersonal problems in adulthood (Malinosky-Rummel & Hansen, 1993). Adults who experience physical abuse as children are also more likely to abuse their own children (Kalmuss, 1984; Straus et. al., 1980; Steinmetz, 1977).

Comparative studies conducted on characteristics of father-daughter incest and brother-sister sexual abuse and associated psychosocial distress found comparable long-term symptoms such as substance abuse, depression, suicidality, and eating disorders (Cyr, Wright, McDuff, Perron, 2002; Rudd & Herzberger, 1999).

Since the sibling relationship is a critical and formative relationship, and the effects of parent-child abuse are well-established, it is obvious that the effects of sibling abuse may have equal or greater significance for the victim as in parent-child abuse. Parents, who are protectors of their children overtly or covertly allow the sibling abusive relationship to exist. Whether sibling abuse is allowed or abstractly supported, it produces a double-whammy whereby the victim not only experiences abuse from their sibling, but parental neglect as well. Furthermore, the similarity in consequences of parent-child incest and sibling sexual abuse highlights the associated distress from any abusive dyadic family relationship.

Sibling Abuse

As important agents of socialization and self-perception, sibling relationships also influence self-esteem (Author’s own, 2011; Lewis & Fremouw, 2001). An emotionally denigrating or physically violent experience elicits vulnerability to one’s well-being. With low self-esteem, an individual potentially lacks assertiveness, social
skills, and the ability to resolve interpersonal conflict, resulting in a susceptibility to either victimization or perpetration of aggressive behavior (Lewis & Fremouw, 2001).

Studies on sibling abuse have found that victims suffer from low self-esteem (Garey, 1998; Author’s Own, 2011; Wiehe, 1991), depression, anger with the perpetrator, and difficulty with interpersonal relationships (Author’s Own, 2011; Wiehe, 1991). Survivors report being “overly” sensitive, and engage in self-blame (Wiehe, 1991). They describe problems in relationships with the opposite sex, including repeating the victim role in relationships, feeling distrustful, fearful, and suspicious (Author’s own, 2011; Wiehe, 1991). Some experience symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, eating disorders, alcohol and substance abuse (Wiehe, 1991).

A sense of worthlessness becomes internalized with the betrayal by one’s closest peer, trusted family member, and perceived protector (Author’s own, 2011). The emotional abandonment that is intrinsic through abuse results in a fear of dependence; and a strong need to feel independent: relying on someone becomes dangerous (Author’s own, 2011). Since intensity of emotions, particularly anger has become frightening, scarring, and traumatic for victims, confrontation and conflict in relationships is extremely uncomfortable (Author’s own, 2011). As a result, victims develop conforming and pleasing behavior (Author’s own, 2011). In an unconscious manner, victims of abuse tend to repeat attachments to new partners that have familiar characteristics to that of the abusive relationship (Author’s own, 2011). This results in unconsciously – or consciously – attaching to emotionally unavailable partners which feeds into their low self-esteem and creates a cyclical process whereby they desire but do not expect they are capable or worthy of obtaining emotional nourishment through relationships (Author’s own, 2011).
The perpetuation of victimization into adult relationships has also been supported by studies that focus on sibling abuse and later dating violence (Simonelli, Mullis, Elliott, & Pierce, 2002; McLaurin, 2005). One study found that female survivors of sibling abuse experience physically and/or emotionally abusive relationships in adulthood widely involving husbands and boyfriends, children, peers, colleagues, parents, and adult siblings (McLaurin, 2005). These survivors identified their sibling abuse experience as a contributing factor to becoming involved in abusive relationships as adults and reported subsequent feelings of depression, anxiety, fear, numbness, and hopelessness (McLaurin, 2005).

Sibling abuse is a pervasive and detrimental experience for the victim with long-term interpersonal implications. However, it often gets overlooked as normative sibling rivalry due to a lack of understanding of the distinction. Amongst many differences, sibling abuse is non-normative behavior whereas sibling rivalry is a developmental, and growth-inducing experience.

**Sibling Abuse is Not Sibling Rivalry**

The focus of this paper is to heighten awareness of sibling abuse as a phenomenon in need of recognition by mental health professionals, mandated reporters, and child welfare workers, and offer pathways to broaden awareness. Towards this aim, a clear and distinct definition of sibling abuse is needed.

*Defining Sibling Abuse and Distinguishing it from Sibling Rivalry*

One contributing factor to the oversight of sibling abuse is its lack of definition both legally and in the empirical research. Studies on sibling violence, aggression, and abuse often use the terms “conflict”, “rivalry”, “aggression”, “violence” and “abuse” interchangeably (Kettrey & Emery, 2006); this neutralizes the intensity of sibling abuse and may contribute to its lack of recognition as a significant and distinct phenomenon.
Sibling abuse involves the presence of consistent and persistent charges of inadequacy, intimidation or control through physical force and/or emotional denigration (Wiehe, 1997). Perpetrated by one sibling on another, these acts result in feelings of fear, shame, and hopelessness (Kiselica & Morrill-Richards, 2007; Wiehe, 1990). Incidents of sibling abuse can range from devastating emotional assaults to near-death experiences (Meyers, 2011). Abusive sibling acts engender a pervasive state of fear and vulnerability; they result in hyper-vigilance and feelings of loneliness and isolation when it occurs and endures into adulthood (Meyers, 2011). The emotional resonance and repercussions highlight sibling abuse as a phenomenon that parallels the risk beset by children abused by adults.

Although one act of violence may constitute abuse, an enduring relationship with unequal distribution of power, humiliation, or control should be categorized as abusive (Meyers, 2011). Simply put, sibling abuse is not merely sibling rivalry. Although sibling rivalry may cause some emotional pain, each child has an equal opportunity for advantage or disadvantage. Sibling rivalry also has positive outcomes of fostering skills of cooperation and negotiation. Sibling abuse, on the other hand does not have any positive effects. It threatens a basic sense of safety in the victim and damages the ego (Meyers, 2011; Caffaro & Conn-Caffaro, 2005; Wiehe, 1990).

Many people challenge the notion of sibling abuse believing that all siblings have conflict or fights growing up; and in fact, sibling abuse is a dramatization of sibling rivalry (Author’s Own, 2011). This both reflects and reinforces the notion that sibling abuse needs to be distinguished from other acts of violence or more normative aspects of relating. Developing a common language is the primary task towards detection and prevention (Rapoza, Cook, Zaveri, & Malley-Morrison, 2010).

**Sibling Abuse Remains Under the Radar**
Research on sibling violence has revealed that the majority of college-aged students experience or perpetrate severe sibling violence but do not identify their experience as a form of violence (Kettrey and Emery, 2006). If a college student is being abused by a peer, they know they are being bullied. If a college student witnesses physical or emotional violence between parents, they are able to identify it as domestic violence. This begs the question as to the familial, cultural, and institutional structures that contribute to its oversight and this inability to identify one’s own sibling experience as abusive.

*Parental Abuse and Neglect*

Parental neglect is insinuated when the sibling abusive relationship is undetected or unaddressed. Studies on sibling abuse found that parental responses ranged from passive to active ineffectiveness (Meyers, 2011; Wiehe, 1990). In some cases, parents ignored, disbelieved, or reacted indifferently (Meyers, 2011; Wiehe, 1990). This raises doubt for victims that the abuse they are experiencing is real or valid; that their perceptions are accurate (Author’s own, 2011).

In some families, the abusive sibling assumes the role of caregiver because of parental neglect or absence, parent-child abuse, or simply because in the hierarchical family structure, birth order dictates the expectation that the older children would oversee the younger ones (Meyers, 2011). The older sibling’s assignment as disciplinarian in the absence of caregivers creates boundary confusion and abuse of power (Haskins, 2003). In a sense, there is covert permission established for the sibling abuse to occur.

Parent-child abuse is often present in the homes where sibling abuse occurs (Meyers, 2011). When parent-child abuse is a response to managing the sibling
relationship, either the victim or perpetrator become the target of the parents’ frustration (Meyers, 2011). Often, a parent’s strict behavior with the perpetrator induces that child to displace his frustration onto his younger sibling (Meyers, 2011). Parents who are abusive and neglectful in addressing the sibling abuse abdicate their parental responsibilities. Social learning theory views the family as the most influential agent of socialization and asserts that children learn violence through observation and imitation (Bandura, 1973). Witnessing and experiencing violent interactions in the family teaches its members that aggression is an appropriate means of dealing with interpersonal conflict and feelings of anger. Repeated exposure to violence also creates the propensity to perceive violence as normative and therefore acceptable (Herzberger, 1996). Parents who model acceptance of aggressive behavior increase the likelihood that their children would use violence as a way to handle and cope with conflict (Bandura, 1973). Furthermore, parents who do not address the sibling abuse also convey that this is acceptable behavior. For the perpetrator this means that they are granted permission to continue, the message transmitted to the victim is that they are not valued.

Generally, in homes where sibling abuse is present, parents are contending with their own stressors including financial strains, single parenting, marital conflict, and an inability to modulate their own emotions (Meyers, 2011). They have poor internal and external resources from which they can draw to provide emotional support to their children (Meyers, 2011). As a result, their children do not have models of effective affect modulation, appropriate communication and behavior, and supportive relationships (Meyers, 2011). It appears that these deficits in parenting contribute to the perpetuation of sibling abuse. Aside from ineffective parental modeling and management, closed family systems and abuse as an accepted norm may also contribute to the masking of sibling abuse.
Closed Family Systems and Cultural Perceptions

As long as professionals responsible for the care of children do not or are not able to distinguish sibling abuse from sibling rivalry, this situation is likely to continue. Currently, the only way to bring sibling violence or abuse to the attention of authorities is for a parent to file charges against the abuser on behalf of the victim (Eriksen & Jensen, 2006). Wiehe (1990) attributes the lack of awareness of unacceptable or damaging behaviors to a culture of freedom, which allows parents to raise children as they see fit. Parents may either not recognize their child’s behavior as non-normative or they may feel it is a private matter. The issue of privacy, or a culture of secrecy in the home, undoubtedly contributes to a parent or victim’s unwillingness to file assault charges against the perpetrating sibling.

Identification of problems often begins within the family – a parent may identify a “problem child” or solicit help with behaviors or relationships. Without familial or external validation of the sibling abusive experience, most cases of physical and emotional sibling abuse do not come to the attention of practitioners. Sibling abuse does not have the same societal recognition as other forms of domestic violence.

Rapoza and colleagues (2010) studied ethnic perspectives of sibling abuse. Their research assessed extreme, moderate, and mild cases of sibling abuse and found gender and ethnic differences in the interpretation and experiences of psychological aggression. Women were more likely than men to identify physical aggression as extreme abuse. Asian Pacific Americans were more likely to indicate experiences of physical aggression in their examples of mild abuse and psychological aggression in their examples of severe abuse, while Europeans reported more experiences of sexual abuse (Rapoza et. al, 2010). This research highlights the cultural variation and range of perspectives on behavior which constitutes abuse. Cultural norms add another layer to the challenge of
child welfare workers, practitioners – and parents – in recognizing sibling abuse as a form of abuse.

Institutional Barriers

Despite the extant literature which reveals short-term and long-term ramification for victims of sibling abuse, social service and mental health settings servicing children and families continue to focus primarily on assessment of the quality of parent-child and parent-parent relations.

In child welfare there are no current statues distinguishing sibling abuse as separate from incest. In fact, currently when sibling abuse is uncovered in child welfare it is primarily through the co-occurrence of parent-child abuse. However, sibling abuse also exists in the absence of parent-child abuse (Meyers, 2011). Although by the nature of its existence it is a form of parental neglect, authorities are not trained to identify symptoms and behaviors associated with sibling abuse (Meyers, 2011). Furthermore, since no specific federal law protects siblings from other siblings, it is unlikely people outside of the family will take action as in cases of parent-child abuse. Without societal recognition of sibling abuse, victims are prone to perceive and accept their experience as normative (Meyers, 2011).

Discussion

Bullying is an American epidemic that has grabbed the attention of policy-makers. President Obama endorsed anti-bullying legislation. As the most common form of violence for our nation’s youth, there is now a Congressional Anti-bullying Caucus. One could posit that bullying could be viewed and termed “peer abuse”. In much the same way that we distinguish teasing from bullying, sibling rivalry needs to be understood as an experience unparalleled to sibling abuse. There are similarities between peer teasing and sibling rivalry: variability in roles; equality in power;
playfulness; testing of boundaries; and, the aggressor can be remorseful and take responsibility when the target becomes upset. There are also likenesses between bullying and sibling abuse: always the same target; intent to harm; the aggressor seeks control or power; and, there is no remorse. Rightfully, serious measures have been taken to protect children from peers in the realm of bullying—as a society we have acknowledged the destructive physical impact or emotional influence a peer can have on another child. There is no longer-standing relationship or more time spent with another throughout one’s lifetime than a sibling (Zastrow, 2013). We are providing protection for children who face discrimination, bullying and harassment in school and from peers. We also need to protect children from each other within the household.

Despite widespread knowledge about the influential aspect of sibling relationships on development, social service and mental health settings continue to focus on the parent-parent and parent-child system regarding assessment and intervention. Unless there is a presenting symptom based on sibling dynamics, and likely to be referenced by a parent, the sibling subsystem is often overlooked. Awareness of family dynamics, sibling relationships, and sibling abuse and child welfare can be addressed through academic programs. Programs in social work and counseling can incorporate sibling abuse material from a psychodynamic, child welfare, systems, and human behavior lens, and professional programs that focus on clinical training and child welfare can institute trainings on sibling abuse assessment and intervention.

**Steps Towards Broadening Awareness**

*Higher Education*

Undergraduate and graduate social work classes have the potential to broaden awareness of sibling abuse, its effect on clients, and the development of methods of
prevention and intervention. Competencies in family systems and human development courses should include knowledge of the sibling subsystem and the manner in which hierarchical structures and role expectations exist within families. Discussions on child welfare or the child welfare system should also incorporate sibling abuse. Clinical practice classes that address child, family, and adult intervention can integrate risk assessment, family interventions and strategies to contend with sibling abuse. This would include a risk and resiliency paradigm, and a theoretical underpinning regarding the manifestations of adult relationships for survivors. Discussions on transference and countertransference could include potential manifestations when working with survivors of sibling abuse and their families. The addition of content that clearly differentiates sibling abuse and sibling rivalry into the core social work curriculum would help students identify when sibling behaviors were normative and when they might pose a danger to children.

Child Welfare/Protective Services

Currently, there are no national statistics on sibling abuse. The child welfare system does not specifically include risk and safety factors that would point to the detection of sibling violence. Without policies that identify this as a formidable phenomenon, there is no mandate for professionals and mandated reporters to act on.

Linares (2006) studied 254 African-American and Latino maltreated children and adolescents who entered foster care as sibling groups to determine any association of sibling violence with other risk factors and to understand the ways in which sibling experiences might affect the well-being of these children. The parenting role in the foster home was found to be a moderating factor. The researcher was able to establish a link between sibling violence and quality of care-giving; high quality of care giving correlated with fewer behavior problems whereas high sibling violence was associated
with lower quality of care-giving. The study concluded that foster children were at high risk of being victims and perpetrators of sibling aggression and violence due to prior familial victimization. As both a preventive and protective service, foster care is under the auspices of child welfare which underscores the need for awareness.

Assessment

Assessment forms in clinic settings typically do not include the nature and quality of sibling relationships. The Sibling Abuse Interview (SAI), a psychosocial assessment tool (Caffaro and Conn-Caffaro, 2005), can help to identify sexually and physically sibling abusive families and lead to planning the course of treatment intervention. Although extensive, it can be modified for incorporation into any biopsychosocial assessment or intake form. The SAI assesses the history and current quality of sibling relationships focusing on the effects of abuse on the victim, the role of the perpetrator, and the family dynamics. This tool has potential for adaptation to incorporate emotional sibling abuse and modification according to the needs and services of communities and organizations.

Clinical Practice

Service providers unaware of the influence of sibling abuse are not able to recognize how to help each sibling involved in the abusive relationship, the family system, or the adult who has this traumatic past. Sibling abuse is not only a psychological issue for the victim, but also representative of a dysfunctional family system in which the dyadic relationship or the behavior of the perpetrator is a symptom of greater pathology. When a parent is unaware that his or her child is abused by a sibling yet recognizes symptoms which need to be addressed through treatment, the child internalizes an inner sense of “badness”. She often assumes that she did
something to incur the abusive behavior in much the same way as rape victims who are blamed for seducing their attacker by the way she dresses.

An adult client’s sibling abuse history also has significant implications for treatment. From an object relations perspective (Fairbairn, 1952), clinicians need to understand potential projections from the past onto current perceptions and relationships and the subtle ways in which an adult survivor may then relate to others as if they were the abusive sibling. Clinicians need to be aware of clients who present with interpersonal difficulties and the ways in which siblings might have influenced partner choices and a client’s behavior in relationships (Leader, 2007; Mones, 2001). Sibling abuse engenders feelings of inadequacy and helplessness and compromises the attainment of mature intimacy in adulthood (Meyers, 2011). Overlooked, the client is bound to repeat interpersonal dynamics that reflect his or her childhood experience. As important, identification of the sibling relationship or validation of the sibling abuse experience is healing for the survivor.

Family Intervention

There are opportunities to protect children from the devastating and long-term repercussions of sibling abuse. Detection, prevention, and intervention can occur on multiple fronts specifically in child welfare and clinical practice. Specifically, these fields have the potential to develop awareness of the gravity of sibling abuse, contribute to the development of policy regarding mandated reporting, enhance risk assessment, improve parenting skills, develop appropriate interventions for victims, perpetrators, and adult survivors, and extend theories to amplify understanding of this phenomenon.

Future Research

Parental intervention is absent in the homes of victims of sibling abuse (Meyers, 2011). Sibling abuse is not only a psychological issue for the individual perpetrator, but
also representative of a dysfunctional family system in which the dyadic relationship or the behavior of the perpetrator is a symptom of greater pathology. Clinicians who are skilled to assess the family climate to ascertain the presence of sibling abuse would be able to treat the family as a unit and its individual members. Future research might explore the ways in which family involvement with community organizations and resources may off-set sibling abuse. What might we learn further about parental resilience and the management of sibling abuse?

In order to understand more about the presence of sibling abuse in an environment of parent-child abuse (Meyers, 2011), future study of families involved in the child welfare system may determine risk factors and agency-wide responses to sibling abuse. In fact, evaluation of current child welfare practices may help to uncover obstacles to the development of policies to promote risk assessment and detection of sibling abuse. An area of further investigation would be to explore whether survivors who endure both parent-child abuse and sibling abuse are more strongly affected by sibling abuse than those who withstand sibling abuse alone. These findings would potentially contribute to the development of family and risk assessments which could also be adapted by mandated reporters and the global community. Likewise, gaining knowledge as to gender dyads of parent-child relationships that may promote hostile sibling relationships would provide insight as to variations in parental responses to female victims, male victims, female perpetrators, or male perpetrators. A study that involved members of the family including perpetrators would add dimension to understanding sibling abuse within the context of the family system.

**Conclusion**

Existing studies on sibling abuse demonstrates that it has devastating consequences for the victim. Although there is increased research on the subject, it
continues to remain under-recognized. There are several potential explanations for this and action is needed in several domains - academic, mental health, child welfare, community, organization, and policy – to protect children from the long-lasting and traumatizing effects of sibling abuse. We cannot continue to remain idle and view family dysfunction from the lens with which we are so familiar: minimizing abuse by rationalizing its normative presence and only looking at the quality of parent-child relationships. Sibling abuse represents a complex family system in which every member has a role. Whilst, sibling abuse has made its way into the literature, action to address its toll has been virtually absent in practice. First, we need to recognize sibling abuse as a trauma with which to contend and universalize its distinction from sibling rivalry. Secondly, assessments of family dynamics and trauma should equally explore the quality of sibling relationships to the same degree as parent-child relationships. And lastly, action must be taken to detect, prevent, and intervene on behalf of a duty to protect children from all types of abuse within the household. Merging research and evidence-based practice is a beginning.

References


State University.


What Can Religion Do to Help Curb Suicide Rates Among Homosexual Youth?

Robert Fernquist
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Robert Fernquist has studied trends in suicide for more than 25 years and has published and presented original research on the topic of suicide in both national and international journals and conferences.

Abstract

Religion has had a long and powerful influence on suicidality. The aim of this research is to further discover how the influence of religion in society at large impacts suicidal behaviors of both heterosexual and homosexual high school students in the United States. Data on suicidality among high school youth were obtained from the Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System; data on the influence of religion in society at large were obtained from the PEW Research Center and the Association of Statisticians of American Religious Bodies. Results of regression analyses show that religious influence does exert a strong impact on youth suicidality, and discussion focuses on the role of religion in helping curb suicide rates of homosexual youth.
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Mary L. Tucker, Ohio University
James M. Andzulis, Ohio University
Corporate Tax Cuts in the Age of Trump

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Abstract
My paper will compare current efforts to reform the tax code with the 1986 Tax Reform Act. It will focus on the like role partisan polarization will play in the legislative process.
Creativity and Innovation: Harnessing the power of social media

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Abstract
Our world is changing at a hyper speed. The 21st century has brought exciting changes and improvements to how we live and engage with each other. While much of this change is the result of improvements and advancements in technology, two important drivers of this change are the Internet and a shift in value creation. Successful brands
and firms understand that creativity and innovation work together in the development of useful new concepts. However the source of inspiration for new ideas is no longer restricted to a team of managers, executives, and consultants. Today the source of new insights has shifted from the office suite to social media. By engaging in co-creation with consumers brands demonstrate that they care about consumers needs and wants and that they value their ideas.

The volumes of information presented on social media via a variety of formats (images, videos, words, and links) seems to increase daily. Understanding how to harness and use this information was the focus of our research. Using a case study approach we presented insight on how social media helped drive changes to brands and organizations. Lessons learned from Lego, Starbucks, Ikea, Microsoft, and Kraft were discussed. Using a process known as “six slide thinking” we engaged attendees in a creative thinking exercise designed to help them understand how to use social media to influence product design and marketing strategy.
EWOM Mediation of the Effects of Film Characteristics on Box Office Revenue

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**Abstract**

Previous research indicates that both movie characteristics and electronic word of mouth may influence box-office results. It is also likely that electronic word-of-mouth plays a mediating role in the relationship between movie characteristics and box-office results. Using data from a sample of 86 movies released between November 2013 and December 2014 we employed a series path analyses to test these propositions. Results indicate that eWOM partially mediates the effect of production budget (a proxy for advertising budget), star power and critical acclaim on box-office revenues. The effect of eWOM was most pronounced for star power and critical acclaim. The main managerial implication is that movie marketers should try to devise creative promotions that will engage consumers and stimulate eWOM and, in turn, may enhance box-office revenues.

**Introduction**

Movie attributes (e.g., production budget, star power, sequel, critical acclaim) have been shown to influence box-office revenues. Word-of-Mouth (WOM) and electronic Word-of-Mouth (eWOM) communications have also been shown to influence box-office revenues for motion pictures. This includes eWOM occurring in advance of film release. Thus, eWOM should partially mediate the effect of movie attributes on revenues. The purpose of this study is to test this general proposition. We seek evidence concerning for which movie attributes eWOM is more or less influential. If movie marketing decision makers had some insight into these relationships, they might
find themselves in a better position to employ tactics that stimulate and leverage eWOM, thus enhancing box-office results.

Literature Review
Effect of Film Attributes Box Office Results
Research has indicated that several movie attributes may influence box-office performance. Among these are: production budget, advertising budget, screen counts, parental guidance rating, film genre, favorability of critical reviews, inclusion of stars in the cast, and whether the film is a sequel (Elberse & Eliashberg 2003; Eliashberg, Elberse, & Leenders, 2006; and McKenzie, 2012 present comprehensive reviews). Some indicated direct associations among attributes and financial performance. Others showed that some attributes operate indirectly via other attributes. Other studies have found no relationships between movie attributes and financial outcomes. This variation likely relates to the variety of empirical methods employed. That is, different studies involved the use of a variety of samples of films, national markets, and financial measures

Several studies revealed a positive effect of production budget or advertising budget (which is estimated as 10% of production budget on average) on financial measures (Elberse & Eliashberg, 2003; Litman & Kohl 1989; McKenzie, 2009; Prag & Casavant 1994; Wallace et al. 1993; Zufryden, 2000). This seems reasonable because the inclusion of expensive stars should be correlated with production budgets. Also higher advertising spending should produce higher awareness and, in turn, movie attendance.
Studies indicating a positive effect of star power on revenues include Elberse 2007, Litman & Kohl 1989, Neelamegham & Chintagunta 1999; Sochay 1994; Swahney & Eliashberg 1996; and Wallace et al. 1993. However, as indicated above star power is associated with production budget and probably operates through advertising.

Moreover, star power may signal film quality Ravid (1999). Elberse (2007) found that there can be a positive cumulative effect of having more than a single star in a film’s cast.

Prag & Casavant (1994) found a positive effect of sequel on box-office receipts. However, Sood & Dreze (2004) found that sequels with number be less favorably evaluated by moviegoers than those with more descriptive titles (e.g., Daredevil 2 vs Daredevil: Taking it to the Street). This could possibly differentially influence revenues.

Researchers that have reported evidence for a positive relationship between critical acclaim and revenues include: Eliashberg & Shugan, 1997; Jedidi et al., 1998; Litman & Kohl, 1989; Litman & Ahn, 1998; Prag & Casavant, 1994; Ravid, 1999; Sawhney & Eliashberg, 1996; and Zufryden 2000. Basuroy et al. (2003) found that both positive and negative reviews influence box-office returns. However, they found that negative reviews hurt more than positive reviews help but that the effect of negative reviews diminishes over time. Eliashberg & Shugan (1997) argue that critical reviews correlate with late and cumulative revenues while they little or no impact on early box-office earnings.

WOM as mediator
That WOM communications is both an influencer and predictor of movies success has been well-established (Elberse & Eliashburg, 2003; McKenzie, 2006, Moul, 2007). Evidence is growing that eWOM may be a no less powerful influencer. Next we will briefly examine traditional and electronic WOM as constructs. Then we will link eWOM to recent empirical research. Since eWOM is recorded in electronic form on various websites it overcomes the difficulty in measuring fleeting traditional WOM which has been an ongoing methodological difficulty in the area. Traditional WOM has been typically measured via consumer self-reports of behavior which, of course, are subject to considerable response bias (East, Hammond & Lomax, 2008; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Tax & Christiansen, 2000).

Word-of-Mouth Communications (WOM)
The term Word of Mouth, coined by Whyte (1954) can be defined as person-to-person communication between a receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial regarding a brand, product, or service (Arndt 1967). (Kimmel & Kitchen, 2014 present a concise review). WOM has long been considered one of the most influential factors influencing consumers at all stages of the decision process from awareness to choice to post-purchase evaluation (Chevalier & Mayzlin 2006; Daugherty & Hoffman 2014; East, Hammond & Lomax, 2007; Glynn Mangold, Miller & Brockway 1999; and Liu, 2006).

An early theory explaining the operation of WOM was devised by Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955). Their two-step flow model proposed that consumers were influenced concerning products by opinion leaders who were influenced by mass media communications. Most of this influence was fell on people who had strong ties (i.e.,
family and friends) with the opinion leader. Subsequent researchers developed more complex models such as Rogers & Shoemaker’s (1971) multistep flow model where followers are postulated to influence other followers as well as the opinion leaders themselves. Followers are also influenced by mass media.

WOM also works along networks of people having weak ties. These play a bridging function, allowing information to travel from one distinct subgroup to another within the broader social system (Brown & Reingen, 1987). WOM can be positive (PWOM) or negative (NWOM). PWOM consists of favorable information that typically facilitates consumer trial and new product diffusion. It therefore tends to have a positive effect on sales. Alternatively, NWOM consists of unfavorable information and tends to discourage trial and new product adoption and diffusion. It thus has an adverse effect on sales and consumer loyalty (Daugherty & Hoffman, 2013; Fornell & Westbrook, 1984; Singh, 1988).

Electronic Word-of-Mouth Communications (eWOM)
Electronic word of mouth (eWom) can be defined Word-of-Mouth communications that are made available to a multitude of people and institutions over the Internet (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). Empirical results confirm that just as with tradition WOM, eWOM influences attitudes, intentions, and behavior concerning products (Reichelt, Sieveet & Jacob, 2014). However, given the increased connectedness of people through social media along with the diffusion of mobile devices, the speed and range of eWOM has increased dramatically (Kimmel & Kitchen, 2014). The widespread influence of eWOM occurs among consumers who likely rarely or never encounter one another in an offline context (i.e., weak ties). Compared with traditional WOM eWom flows more freely and
quickly. They move across both geographical and sociocultural boundaries Sahelices-Pinto & Rodriguez-Santos (2014).

Today much, if not most of eWOM is transmitted on social media sites such as Twitter, Facebook, Snapchat, etc. providing incidental means for product information to reach a multitude of people linked by weak ties. That is they are brought “together” by a common interest or need. Sometimes eWOM is unsolicited and incidentally attended to (Goldsmith & Horowitz (2006).

Compared with eWOM, WOM tends to be viewed as more trustworthy and credible than eWOM. Still, eWOM is characterized by great specialization because it is likely that one can find apparent expertise online about virtually any topic compared with one’s close circle of associates (Brown, Broderick & Lee, 2007). Also, the less trustworthiness of eWOM, often its volume is considered by consumers as the quantifying measure of its quality. For example, a movie that has five positive reviews will be less well-received than one that has hundreds (Jiménez & Mendoza, 2013). Moreover since eWOM is written it is less transitory than offline WOM (Kimmel & Kitchen, 2014).

Influence of WOM and eWOM on New Product Success

It has been well established that Word of Mouth (both traditional and electronic) communications is often an important facilitator in the diffusion of new products of all types, consumer and organizational, durable and nondurable goods, (Berger & Schwartz, 2011) as well as services (Kimmel & Kitchen, 2014) including entertainment services (Nguyen & Romaniuk, 2014). Several recent studies have used data mined

Both WOM and eWOM can be stimulated by advertising. Higher advertising budgets typically mean more gross rating points for campaigns and therefore greater awareness. Advertising for of motion pictures typically contain visual and/or verbal information concerning the inclusion of stars. WOM and eWOM might also be stimulated by critical reviews, especially those that occur early in a movie’s run. The release of sequels might also stimulate WOM and eWOM because movie goers sometimes become “brand loyalists” (Sood & Dreze, 2004) to successful franchises such as Harry Potter, Star Wars, or Planer pf the Apes. The same principle may be applied to the power of attractive stars.

Research Questions
The discussion above leads to the following research questions:

1) Do movie attributes influence box-office revenues?
2) Do movie attributes influence eWOM volume?
3) Does eWOM volume mediate the relationship between movie attributes and box-office revenues?
4) If the answer to RQ3 is yes,
   a. for which movie attribute does eWOM have the largest influence on box-office revenues and
b. which combination of movie attribute and eWOM produce the most influential results?

Method
Sample of Films
A sample of 86 motion pictures scheduled for release between 8 November 2013 and 17 December 2014 was taken from the listings available at Comingsoon.net and comprised genres designated for wide audiences (drama, comedy, action/adventure, etc.) and wide release in terms of the number of movie theatres.

Data & Measures
Data for Box office results was obtained at Boxofficemojo.com. Most movie attribute data was collected at the Internet Movie Database (IMDB.com). This site provides data for critical reviews, production budgets, and the cast for each movie. Budget numbers were gathered directly from the website. For critical appeal we used Metascores from Metacritic.com. These represent a weighted index based on the reviews of “respected’ movie critics. Metascores range from 0 to 100. Films with scores of 81-100 are those with universal acclaim, 61-80 generally favorable reviews, 40-60 mixed or average reviews, 20-39 generally unfavorably reviews, 0-19 overwhelming dislike (Metacritic, 2017). The average Metascore for our sample was 50.23 with a range of 72 to 12. For each film IMDB refers readers to similar productions in a section entitled “People who liked this also liked...” This content often signals whether a movie is a sequel. Based on searching this and other web-based searches the authors employing their judgement used a 1 = yes, 0 = no coding scheme for sequel. Prequels and remakes are similar to sequels (Silverblatt, 2007) and were coded as such. A prequel is a film with a story that
precedes that of a previous film. For example, Star Wars Episode I: The Phantom Menace was a prequel to the original three Star Wars films. A remake is a movie based on one produced earlier such as the 2001 remake of the original 1968 Planet of the Apes. Within our sample 28 films there were 24 sequels, 4 remakes and no prequels.

Information concerning star power came from the 100 Most Valuable Stars Lists for 2013 and 2014 at Vulture.com. On these lists actors/actresses are ranked on a weighted index of factors including domestic and overseas box office, studio value, likability, academy awards, and critics’ scores. Based upon these rankings and the cast information at IMDB we created two variables. If a movie included at least one star it was coded with a one and a zero if it did not (StarYN). We also recorded the number of stars in each movie (#Stars). Forty-one films in the sample featured at least one star. Thirteen, two and two films featured two, three, and four stars respectively. The animated movies were excluded from the analysis of the star power variables because even though stars are often employed to provide the voices of animated characters it is unclear whether movie viewers attach importance these choices.

Our measure of eWOM came from mining volume of tweets about a movie from Twitter. To obtain tweets about a movie, we created related search terms describing the movie. We also added to the search term the movie’s hashtag and mentions. For example, for the movie The Hundred-Foot Journey, we used, "the hundred foot journey", "hundred-foot journey movie", "hundred foot journey movie", "@the100ftJourney", and "#100FootJourney". Submitting the search terms to the Twitter Search API we continuously retrieved tweets that were published about the movies from 4-days prior to the release of the move and up-to and including the movie’s
release date. Daily tweet volume was measured by counting the number of tweets for the movie on that day. This range was chosen because Najafi & Miller (2018) have shown that tweet volume rises and peaks during this time frame.

Data Analysis
The relationships described above are presented graphically in the Figure below. These questions will be investigated with a series of path analysis models. Unlike structural equations analysis with latent variables, path analysis uses observed or manifest variables with the assumption of zero measurement error (Hair et al. 1987). To show that a variable mediates the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable one must demonstrate a statistically significant relationships between: 1) an independent (IV) and dependent variable (DV); 2) between an independent (IV) a proposed mediator as a covariate (CV); and 3) a mediator (CV) and dependent variable (DV). If the relationship between an IV and DV becomes insignificant upon entry of a proposed mediator variable MV as a covariate it means that the MV completely mediates the IV-DV relationship. If the association between an IV and DV remains significant it means that the relationship is partially mediated by the MV. All of this can be assessed with path analysis (Baron & Kenny 1986).

Figure: Path Model of Predictor, Mediator, and Criterion Variables
Results
The results for each path model can be seen in the Table. The first research question asked whether movie attributes influence box-office revenues. One can see that of all movie attribute variables production budget has the largest association with domestic gross revenues. The association of StarY/N has the smallest, yet it is statistically significant. The associations of critical appraisal, sequel, and #stars with domestic gross all fall within a middle range.

Research Question 2 asked whether movie attributes influence eWOM volume. Analysis shows that both production budget and critical appraisal have strong association with tweet volume with the later slightly greater. Sequel had no statistically significant association with tweet volume. The effect of both star power variables on tweet volume fall within this range.

The third research question asked whether eWOM volume mediates the relationship between movie attributes and box-office revenues. The influence of tweet volume on domestic gross is strong in every case with sequel being the greatest followed by StarY/N, #Stars, Critical Appraisal and Production Budget, respectively. Since, as mentioned above, whether a movie was a sequel did not influence tweet volume. Thus, eWOM was not shown to mediate this characteristic on box-office revenues.

Finally, the fourth research question asked that If the answer to RQ3 is yes: a) for which movie attribute does eWOM have the largest influence on box-office revenues and b) which combination of movie attribute and eWOM produce the most influential results?
We see that eWOM had the most influence on revenues for StarY/N and the least for production budget. The influence of eWOM for #Stars and Critical Acclaim fell between. To answer RQ4b we asked for the squared multiple correlations coefficient for domestic gross for each model. This statistic which is similar to the coefficient of determination in regression analysis represents the proportion of variance in a criterion variable explained by predictor variables (Byrne, 2001). In our case the SMCs show the proportion of variance in domestic gross accounted for by predictor (i.e., movie characteristics) ad mediator (tweet volume) variables. One can see that budget plus eWOM has the most influence on domestic gross with A SMC OF .760. For all other combinations the SMCS are in the .531 to .580 range, less influential but substantial.

Table: Path Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Mediator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production Budget</td>
<td>Tweet Volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StarY/N¹</td>
<td>Tweet Volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#Stars¹</td>
<td>Tweet Volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequel</td>
<td>Tweet Volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Appraisal</td>
<td>Tweet Volume</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹Six animated films excluded
*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Discussion

The finding that box-office revenues are influenced by movie attributes such as production budget, star power, critical acclaim, and sequel is consistent with previous research (Eliashberg, Elberse, & Leenders, 2006; McKenzie, 2012). Beyond this these results show that the attributes of production budget, star power and critical acclaim influence eWOM and that eWOM volume partially mediates the effect of these
attributes on box-office revenues. This is largely consistent with previous research on word-of-mouth influence in the adoption and diffusion of new products (Berger & Schwartz, 2011).

What conclusions may we draw from these patterns of results? Results suggest that production budget is the most important factor in generating eWOM and, in turn, financial results. This is likely related to advertising budgets. More advertising produces more awareness, eWOM communications and movie attendance. Critical appraisal has a lesser direct influence on revenues but favorable reviews do help stimulate attendance. This seems reasonable since the favorability of reviews is not under control of studio executives. However, they often cherry pick quotations from favorable reviews to include in their advertising. Thus, the effect of the two variables may be interrelated to some extent. The influence of sequel on box-office revenues was significant but did not seem to influence tweeting so the latter did not act as a mediating variable. Also, the influence of StarY/N and #Stars on tweeting and financial results, while weaker than for production budget and critical appraisal, were still significant. This may indicate that they are not of as much value to studios or that studios are not leveraging them effectively. The latter notion is supported by the strong influence of tweeting on box-office. If movie producers could better stimulate eWOM by leveraging the inclusion of stars and for sequels they may enhance revenues further.

It is noteworthy that #Stars out performed StarY/N. This suggests that there is a cumulative effect of having greater number of stars in a film. Of course, including additional stars would raise production costs and may have a detrimental effect on profits. This question could be examined with future research.
A major key to leveraging sequel, star power and, to some extent, critical acclaim seems to be the size and effectiveness of the advertising and promotional campaign for a movie (cf., Karniouchina 2011). It is through marketing communications and publicity that consumers in intended target markets are made aware and informed about movies to be released. In any case, given the likely influence of eWOM on revenues within their campaigns movie marketers should try to devise creative promotions that will engage consumers and stimulate eWOM (cf., Sahelices-Pinto & Rodriguez-Santos, 2014; Wood & Burkhalter, 2014).

Limitations
This study involved a relatively small sample of films collected within a limited temporal range within the American market only. It dealt with revenue effects but not profits. Future studies could address these limitations by employing samples collected from a wider temporal range. Future studies could examine worldwide revenues, revenues related to movie tie-ins such as video in all its forms and merchandise as well as profits. The attribute variable variables seem highly interrelated. Future studies could involve more complex models testing these relationships. The measure of star power may not have been the best. Many superstar actors who had not recently performed (e.g., Morgan Freeman, Clint Eastwood) were not included in the Top 100 lists at Vulture.com lists.

References


Forget Customer Satisfaction! Focus on the Ones You Lost Instead!

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*Baldwin Wallace University*

Dr. Robert B. Young is a strategic oriented educator and market researcher with 20 years of marketing, market research and strategic management experience from both the client and advertising agency perspectives. Currently Dr. Young is Associate Professor of Marketing at Baldwin Wallace University in Berea, Ohio. He was Dean of Business at Lorain County Community College for 12 years prior to joining BW in 2015. Prior to his career in academe Dr. Young held VP and Director level positions in marketing and marketing research.

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Dr. Young’s former corporate clients include: Red Seal Electric Company, Hoover Vacuum Company, Dutch Boy Paints, Sherwin Williams Automotive, American Electric Power, Arby’s, Invacare Corporation, Royal Appliance, Weaver Chicken, White Consolidated Industries, Moen Faucet, Allied Equipment, Bob Evans
Restaurants, Carrier Transicold, Ponderosa Restaurants, Ohio Bell Telephone, Schwebel Baking Co., Stanek Windows, Glidden Paints and Key Bank among others.

Abstract

After years of conducting dozens of market research projects for a wide variety of clients, it is time to focus on projects with more immediate impact. Customer satisfaction studies are common but are limited to providing static scores but lack the specific sources of satisfaction, how to maintain it, or strategies to improve it over time. With wide gaps between top management and customers' impressions of their brand experiences, the time is right for more meaningful insights from market researchers. Valuable insight can be gained by talking to those customers that were lost and probing the reasons why. Immediate strategies can be implemented to mitigate future customer defection if top management has the will to examine potential failures in brand experience and performance. Don't let good customers go without first trying to understand their motivations and developing strategies for reducing customer defection.
Globalization: Strategic Human Resource Challenges

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Concordia University

Dr. Gerald has a Doctor of Business Administration degree from Argosy University in the concentration of International Business, an Advanced Professional Graduate Business Certificate in Marketing and is a Graduate of the U.S. Army Logistics Management... He is a U.S. Army (Retired Veteran). He is also a highly decorated veteran of U.S. Army that traveled around the world and spent his time in the following overseas assignments: South Korea, Somalia, Europe and Iraq. Dr. Gerald is a native of Panama City, Panama that lived in various metropolitan areas before settling down in San Antonio where he now makes his home.

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Abstract

The global marketplace has become an economic reality in which the United States could be considered a dominant player, but some economists have stated that its position in this global economic environment has been declining in previous decades due to the European Union, Asian, and Emerging Markets. With that in mind, according to Wiley (1996) study, since the late 90s, most employers have been battling the benefits, conflicts, and challenges that come with a culturally diverse workplace.

The advantage of a different environment is that it will bring about a broad range of knowledge, awareness, and viewpoints from people that were brought up in different cultural environments. As a result, a robust international position will require that human resource managers (HRM) are prepared to function effectively and efficiently in a goal-oriented environment. These managers must also appreciate cultural diversity and understand the complexities of the global climate and be willing to adapt their skills and strategies to cope with the international business challenges. This research paper will reveal how the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) techniques can be used to develop Human Resource Management Strategies to empower managers to do whatever is necessary to achieve organizational goals with the appropriate resources.

Keywords: International Human Resource (IHR), strategic HRM (SHRM) theory, and GLOBE.
Introduction

In the past decades, globalization had produced a surge of economic growth in emerging markets such as China, Brazil, South Korea, Mexico, and India. This economic growth has linked the human capital development process by focusing strategies of human resource management to address performance management plan concerns or challenges (Cascio, 2009). For example, Cannon study (1992) study has found that the performance management planning is part of the human resources (HR) process, in which managers could use to help them implement some strategic and organizational changes throughout their structure. In reflecting this author’s defined term of this HR process, Cascio study (2009) said: “performance management requires [the] willingness, and commitment to focus on improving the performance level of the individual and team every day” (p.333). This author also said that there need to be three components that a manager must do well for this HR process to succeed. They are as followed: (1) Define performance by setting goals, measures, and assessment tools throughout the process. (2) Facilitating performance which consists of taking responsibilities over the performance task, to make sure that there is enough resource to complete the job and appropriately selecting the right qualified person for the job or task. (3) Encourage performance by recognizing and knowledge good performance with reward system but also promptly. As a result, global human resource managers must realize each different country culture, political-legal and how those environmental factors have influenced human resource policies and procedures in which it may require the human resource manager to adopt a flexible managerial approach to deal with international human capital challenges. For instance, a culturally (endorsed implicitly) theory of leadership styles (CLT) are often used to identify leaders’ behaviors and attributes that are
universally perceived as contribute to, or inhibit of outstanding leadership (House et al., 2004).

Cultural Leadership Theory (CLT)

According to House et al. (2004), the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) which list six global CLT leadership dimensions that are a precursor to understanding different leadership styles (p.675):

1. Charismatic/ Value-Based Leadership; It refers how leaders are inspiring, or motivating members to ensure that high performance is part of their core values.

2. Team Oriented Leadership; Team building techniques and values are implemented to ensure members achieve common goals.

3. Participative Leadership; It ensures that members are involved in the decision-making process.

4. Humane Oriented Leadership; It reflects on the leader’s supportive and considerate aspects and their compassion and generosity towards society as a hold.

5. Autonomous Leadership; It refers to an independent and individualistic attribute of a leader.

6. Self-Protective Leadership; It defines how a leader is ensuring safety and security for individual or group member.
Country Ranking on Assertiveness:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Least Assertive Countries in GLOBE</th>
<th>Medium Assertive Countries in GLOBE</th>
<th>Most Assertive Countries in GLOBE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan/China</td>
<td>Mexico/Czech Republic</td>
<td>US/Canada</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Country Ranking on Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Least Performance Countries in GLOBE</th>
<th>Medium Performance Countries in GLOBE</th>
<th>Most Performance Countries in GLOBE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mexico/Czech Republic</td>
<td>Japan/China</td>
<td>US/Canada</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of CLT Leadership Cluster (House et al., 2004, p.684)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Societal Cluster</th>
<th>Charismatic/Value-Based</th>
<th>Team Oriented</th>
<th>Participative</th>
<th>Humane Oriented</th>
<th>Autonomous</th>
<th>Self-Protective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anglo</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Med/High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Europe</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High/High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confucian Asia</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Med/High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Med/High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“Above table shows that U.S. and Canada (Anglo) are among the highest ranked countries on assertiveness and performance orientation. It is the middle range of all the other dimensions.” (Hook, 2004, p.302) As a result, they should be pair up with nations that have below average CLT scores, but universal cultural orientation values.

Therefore, high Charismatic/Value-Based, Participative leaders and high Assertive cultural attributes such as (the U.S. and Canada) should be match up with medium Charismatic/Value-Based and Participative leaders, and below average Assertive cultural characteristics such as (Japan and China). There is less Performance culture attributes such as Mexico, and Czech Republic should be match up with (U.S. and Canada); because their Participative leadership (high) is positively correlated to Mexico and Czech Republic (high/medium) Charismatic/Value-Based and Team Oriented leadership style to ensure international collaborations.

These ranking indicate that nations with high Charismatic/Value-Based, Team-Orientated and Participative leadership styles should be involved in the delegation, consultation, normal, and everyday decision-making to ensure that objectives and responsibilities are defined which may be used to avoid cross-cultural communication conflicts among decision makers. For instance, in recent years, “the United States and Japan have initiated a series of Earthquake Policy Symposium and Forums. These meetings enable participants to share and develop common insights into earthquake research, disaster prevention, emergency, response, and long-term recovery and reconstruction.” (Hook, 2004)

Therefore, understanding Cultural Values that drives these six nation’s CLT leadership dimensions could be useful for developing a leader-follower relationship that relates to real-world situations and defines cross-cultural leadership’ s strengths and weakness to anticipate potential problem during an international rescue mission.
By using this cross-cultural strategy and leadership formulation process; it ensures that high team integrative and high autonomous approach leadership styles will not be a subservient to each other societal and organizational cultural values, but instead create a more partnership atmosphere. As a result, human resource managers could use this team-goal orientation approach to reduce any uncertainty avoidance among critical players by implementing strategic HRM (SHRM) theory which could provide HR management practices to use in organizational strategic planning and achieve HR objectives (Raduan and Kumar, 2006).

HR Management Practices

According to Raduan and Kumar (2006) study, “strategic HRM (SHRM) theory has often been used as a basic framework for the investigation of HR strategy and firm performance.” One of the main discussions of this theoretical approach is whether an organization should develop their employment structure by using a competency approach that looks at the internal (“make”) or external (“buy”) sources to hire, train and develop their workforce. For example, “the "make" approach relies primarily on the internal development of critical HR, while the "buy" strategy emphasizes the acquisition of such competencies via the external labor market. Several relevant methods of the "make" strategy include selective recruiting, extensive training, promotion from within, and long-term attachment mechanisms” (Raduan & Kumar, 2006).

However, many scholars have found that the internal development process has many desirable outcomes, which includes higher stability and predictability in operating the IHR because it can help in aggregating better coordination and control for managers in the foreign location. On the other hand, this internalization may come high significant costs when applying a universalistic or configurationally rather than contingency approach to the SHRM process.
This contingency theory approach requires that a business adopts their HR policies and practices to specific organizational strategy. As a result, for it to be useful in this industry, then the company’s IHR policies must have procedural aspects which consistent with the domestic HR. By doing so, this company can elicit for employees that will more adapt to accept the overall organization’s strategy. For example, past HR research in the Asian market, such as in Japan, the researchers have found that employee-based HR knowledge practice approach was used to motivate productive employee behavior to meet the company’s production needs and achieve their business strategy’s goals or objectives (Raduan & Kumar, 2006).

According to Mahapa (2013) finding:

Some factors can motivate an organization to establish formal and systematic management of information. [They are as followed]. The need to get a better insight on how the business works. [It can] reduce the time and effort in searching for information and documents. [It can] avoid repetition of errors and unnecessary duplication of work. [It also can] reduce the response time to questions [which] are frequently asked [to] improve the quality and speed of making important decisions.

This management of information is often referred as the Knowledge Management (KM) strategy, which is mostly focused on the storing and sharing of insights, understanding, and the expertise needed for organization workers to exchanged viewpoints and information about their jobs to enhance organizational performance efforts in a positive way. This process has been known to turn up-to-date information into a strategic resource, which could create an everlasting productive learning environment. For example, “the hospitality industry where employees are reluctant to share their knowledge freely” (Mahapa, 2013).
Therefore, it can help an organization capture the relevant experience and knowledge, which can be accessible to the company’s workers. Thus, it would allow the entire group to learn from each other within the individualistic or collectivistic format. Lastly, the KM process could help to reduce monitoring and redevelopment of the employee but also includes training policies and procedures to communicate the business strategy and goals. Also, it could effectively increase the collaboration and responsiveness, and increase productive and competitive advantage within its industry (Mahapa, 2013). However, it should be noted that when it comes to the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) or the competency level of an employee regarding them offering quality performance in their given task or job (Safdar, Waheed & Rafiq, 2010). Then, the KM theory could be used in seeking skilled recruits by using job analysis techniques. This job analysis process could be utilized employment management procedure to find all the right steps in identifying the occupational skills for employees in any marketplace (Glenn, 2011).

HR Job Analysis Processes

According to Glenn (2011) study, the job analysis process has been an essential aspect of the production control techniques, which are used in American manufacturing practices. This process was able accurately to identify each occupation regarding its duties, instrument required, must methodology for the operation and the sequencing of the working conditions. However, it should be noted that HR researchers have found that cultural regions, such as Pakistan which is a border neighbor of India that job analysis practice has not yet thoroughly been tested but acknowledged as an acceptable practice to evaluate employee job performance (Safdar, Waheed, & Rafiq, 2010).

It should also be stated that one of the primary purposes of the job analysis is gathered detailed information to assess business specification skills of a potential recruit.
for hire. As a result, the manager must apply some performance measuring techniques to determine if one relative job worth is different from the other. This measuring process is done by following these measuring principles. (1) The HR person must determine what element of the occupation is being measured, such as the entire work and classifiable portion of the work. (2) The HR rep must determine whether any point values will be assigned quantifiable to measure the amount of the work. (3) This HR person must also provide descriptive information how jobs are being estimated and against what another job criterion within its industry. These measuring systems could help in determining the underlying point structure, ranking, and classifying system for business analysis evaluation system (I-Wei, and Kleiner, 2002).

Additional information from I-Wei and Kleiner (2002) study found that the job analysis must follow the strict guidelines of process steps to identify significant needed employment skills. They are as followed: “(1) Identify and isolate the component tasks in a job. (2) Examine how tasks are performed. (3) Identify the main areas of responsibility. (4) Identify the personal demands which work makes on an individual incumbent” (p.77).

However, there are a couple of ways in which this work-study could be applied, such as using job description and specification format that covers main points of the skills for a specific job. Once one of these analyzing processes is determined, then the HR manager could use different to obtain this information. These methods are the conversation, watching, surveys, and significant occurrences in the recruiting life, and professional diaries. Although out of those analyst methods, the interview is considered the most amenable way to elicit information from a recruit about job qualification of the different elements of the business requirements (I-Wei, and Kleiner, 2002). This training application could be used by using behavior modeling approach, which is about
learning facts and procedures. It could also help the trainees to pay attention to imitated behavior patterns and allows them to elaborate on the behavioral encounter in language, which is suitable for them (Cascio, 2009).

The previous mentioned analytical activities could be used to measure some recruit technical and managerial skills, which are a necessary criterion for a specific job. Therefore, the HR manager must emphasize some employee technical skills to determine their primary competence in past performance before obtaining a position with a company. In other words, the potential candidate must display the ability to know how to do the work and interact with other variables, which could affect their underline performance in accomplishing a task within the profession. For this reason, this company must be International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO), which is supported by the International Labor Organization (ILO) to measure the competency level of employee skills (Dowling & Welch, 2005).

HR measuring of Employee’s Skills

According to Tijdens, De Ruijter & De Ruijter (2012) study, International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) measurement system has been adopted globally by many of the developed and undeveloped nations, as an occupational classification and statistical data of labor forces by using surveying techniques. This data inquiry could elicit analyzed by using occupational code variables, which can match skills and occupational projections in a specific area. These analyses would be able to identify the aggregation of a professional level within its skill concept of testing for an occupation measurement process.

In addition to the ISO system, the International Standard Classification of Skills and Competencies will be used as an additional measuring tool to serve both as statistical and practical tools. These devices would be able to use career counseling and
skill matching approach, and performance competency evaluation approach to examine the existing area of classifications within education and functional component (Markowitsch & Plaimauer, 2009). Around human resource management, this measurement system would use practical applications for statistical purposes with limited sets of taxonomic classifications, which could analyze diverging demands with an occupational field. It also would be designed in a user-friendly way in which the vocabulary would use formal language and technical terms to illuminate professional content and the scope of technical skill needed for that occupation for this multilingualism area. Therefore, it is believed that the International Standard Classification of Skills and Competencies could meet the employment measurement skill needs when it comes to international taxonomic classifications for this labor market (Markowitsch & Plaimauer, 2009).

When looking at the competent workforce requirement in any marketplace, then the company must consider recent data on how well-trained with relevant skills are essential to the success of any business in the private or public sector. Therefore, it is imperative that employees can integrate their knowledge and skills into an organization’s business process to determine a competency-based training approach (Naquin & Holton II, 2006).

HR Competency-Based Training Approaches

According to Thompkins and Daly (1992) study that was cited in Naquin and Holton II (2006), peer-reviewed article, the employer could use the competency-based training to evaluate an employee’s capability to perform or demonstrate of their occupational field. If an employee has accomplished the job, then no other training is required, but if not, additional training will be targeted towards a specific area of
interest or attention. In accord to develop competency training system, job analysis must be completed first on the employee, which can identify what tasks are required for this person. Next, the HR manager must determine the skills, which should be performed for each job. Thus, the competency evaluation criterion is based on these skill sets. This evaluation measures will explain what degree or level at which a worker must show an efficient competency in their skill. This assessment instrument could be used in identifying the employee’s skill gaps and thus training could be developed from this competency issues to target these skill gaps. Afterward, the employee is processed through the training and assessing program until they have reached the desirable level of competency for a specific job. This competency system could also be used for an interview evaluation and performance process as a mean of documenting and integrating evaluation system to validate the competency results (Naquin and Holton II, 2006).

In the past three decades, several scholarly studies have found that India’s companies have taken a crack at the competency modeling system by implementing it in their human resource management functions. Some of these companies have had successful modeling issues while others were not able to adapt their existing HR standards to the training and development program requirement. The modeling problems were associated with the applicability of competency when it comes to defining the behavior variables against the overall perceived accomplishment requirements (Sarkar, 013).

It should also be mentioned that the competency-based/model can be seen stimulating learning environment in which a combination of information presentation and simulation methods or on-the-job training are needed to teach and coach the trainees. For example, Information-presentation techniques would be used to provide
some lecture, and intranet and Internet training. Then, there are simulation techniques that are associated with the behavior modeling in which case method and role-playing sessions could be applied. Lastly, the on-the-job training methods would allow this company to use performance management, which includes the orientation training, and the near-the-job training and the on-the-job coaching (Cascio, 2009). Those stimulating learning techniques will be assessed by using these following measuring criterions in Naquin and Holton II study (2006, p.152). They are as followed:

(a) Employees’ knowledge and skills are certified through competency-testing rather than credits (courses) taken.

(b) Competency-based training is centered on behaviorally stated and measurable objectives.

(c) Trainee assessment or evaluation of learning is criterion-referenced rather than norm-referenced.

(d) Assessments can take the form of written exams, oral exams, or skill practice demonstrations.

(e) In the event of failure, trainees could retake competency-based tests.

(f) Trainees receive immediate feedback on assessments.

(g) Various forms of media are used in the instructional process to meet trainees’ individual learning needs.

This behavioral evaluation approach would probably be used in a formative process that takes place during the feedback sessions of any training assessment period after a different encounter between the trainer and the trainee (Broquet & Punwani, 2012). According to Broquet and Punwani (2012) study, these authors stated, “feedback is reciprocal” in a well-oiled performance feedback system. In fact, the aim for performance feedback system is to give managers detailed data and information on the
performance processes. It could also help the manager to distinguish the messenger "noise" from "real problems of an individual competency level (Cipriano & F. S., 2000). For example, the performance feedback results can identify the employee’s job analysis and job description findings, which are associated the job goals and standards that were established as measuring performance criteria in a specific region or market to keep up with global HR strategic planning practices (Dowling & Welch, 2005).

HR Strategic Planning Practices

International Performance Management

Human resource managers must prepare employees for any global challenges by using strategic planning skills. This HR managerial tactic would improve the employee’s conceptual and analytical skills, which would give them a competitive edge in the international business arena (Mathis, Jackson, & Valentine, 2014). For example, strategic human resources management practices are macro-oriented, proactive and long-term focused on human capital as an asset or investment, not an expense. The strategic human resources management practices are also associated with organizational performance and concentrate on the alignment of human resources with firm strategy as a mean of gaining competitive advantage (Nee & Khatri, 1999). This decision-making tactic could be used to strengthen and detect opportunities for organizations in which employee-based HR knowledge practice approach to determine potential candidates by using behavior interview assessment meets this company’s needs and its goals achievement requirements (Raduan & Kumar, 2006). For example, Dowling and Welch (2005) study found that technical and managerial skills are two of the main criteria when selecting a candidate for new hire. The ORC Worldwide 2002 survey validates this selection process found that up to 70 percent of the respondents have chosen candidates based on their skills or competencies for an occupation. In this
same context, “hospitality multinationals committed to addressing...[these] HRM strategies which focus on selecting and training and developing global managers who understand the worldwide ramifications of their business and can operate efficiently around the world” (Dowling & Welch, 2005, p. 98). With that in mind, the international HRM strategist should consider the resourcing methods on how people are recruited within the organization workforce.

International Resourcing Strategy

According to Armstrong (2016) study, “international resourcing strategy is based on workforce planning processes, which assess how many people are needed throughout the multinational company (demand forecasting), set out the sources of people available (supply forecasting) and, in the light of these forecasts, prepare actions plans for recruitment, selection or assignment (pg, 248)”.

Therefore, multinationals must focus on resourcing strategy that is addressing recruitment concerns from a global human resource perspective. For instance, the HRM strategist should concentrate on standardized recruiting systems that could adapt locally by using an external resourcing strategy. This HR strategy would consist comprehensive database recruitment criteria that address the candidate role descriptions within various professional-profile templates that are asking qualitative. But also quantified questions that go beyond a persons’ curriculum vitae which may be used to determine what are their cultural relations, language aptitudes; nations visited, and personal interests within hard and soft skills when it comes cultural and functional adaptability. Then, the strategy should contain a plan on how to obtain the right number and type of required recruits for defined professional skills and competencies by using recruitment process outsourcing (RPO) techniques, such as direct or indirect communication platforms, such as social media to recruit talent. The HR strategist should conduct quantitative research
to get a better understanding of how to recruit diverse candidates, which would be used to determine what are the soft skills and cultural adaptabilities that the candidates have acquired to use as functional skills.

Methodology

The researcher should use a quantitative research method to evaluating a recruiter setting. This method would allow the research to participate in the statistical and summation analysis process by selecting the sampling size to ensure the candidates are in a multi-cultural setting. The quantitative research method also allows a significant sample data to be analyzed from various stand-alone computers and summarized into tabulation process. This descriptive approach will also be used to determine a confidence interval for the means with the unknown population standard deviation based on the recruiter questions about their soft skills and cultural adaptabilities.

For the research, data analysis procedure approach is used, because it will allow the researcher to validate and edit, code and data entry and machine cleaning of data by using multiple linear regression analysis, see Appendix for example with data results.

Hypothesis Questions

In this quantitative inquiry will consist of closed-ended questions that are addressing the hypothesis, which is as followed: (1). H0: soft skills and cultural adaptability questionnaire do identify the candidate’s function skills. (2). H1: soft skills and cultural adaptability questionnaire do not determine the candidate’s function skills.

Data Analysis Process

The data collection process will consist descriptive research based on a hypothesis about means whereby primary and secondary documents will be used to allow the researcher to engage with HR recruiting agencies about respondents’ soft
skills and cultural adaptability during the recruitment period. A random sampling method will be used for this research, because of the various types of recruiting agencies in international regions but it would also allow the researcher to evaluate the organization’s HRM procedures are adhere to Strategic International Human Resource Management (SIHRM).

These concepts are correlated to GLOBE tool when it comes to International Human Resource (IHR) program that would probably encourage human resource managers to apply the CLT leadership dimensions phases to discover what are the multi-cultural workforces that may give any entity a competitive advantage in the global working environment. Therefore, HR strategic planning structure should contain GLOBE criterion that allows human resource managers to deal with International Labor Laws challenges.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, this research study has shown that the GLOBE, which is bested fitted for approach International Human Resource (IHR) strategy that must consist of strategic HRM (SHRM) theory to determine the best HR practice(s) when conducting job analysis but also measure of employees’ skill sets. The study also explained how employment evaluation program should allow human resource managers to select candidates based on cultural diversity attributes. Then, it addressed why and how competency-based training would also help to define behavior variables for specific technical requirements. Lastly, this study discussed which HR Strategic Planning Practices should be used with CLT leadership dimensions to help conduct International Performance Management Plan in resolving International Labor Laws challenges in any business market to achieve organizational strategies and goals.

**Future Research Recommendation**
Future study should conduct an HR strategic plan for recruiting and selecting human resource managers in the overseas environment by using structured interviews in selecting and predicting employee performance for service industries (Sturman, 2003). The research would address the talent management related-oriented questions, which focuses on attraction and retention policies and programmes content to ensure that the organization has obtained and kept the right candidate based talent and GLOBE approach in the chosen market region. Thus, it can help to reduce any quasi-personality concerns in the candidate assessment.

References
http://search.proquest.com/docview/1316088850?accountid=35812
http://search.proquest.com/docview/232360747?accountid=35812


http://search.proquest.com/docview/205864985?accountid=35812


Appendix

Table 1 Labor force characteristics by race and ethnicity, 2015, Bureau of Labor Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black or African American</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Hispanic or Latino</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production, transportation, and material moving</td>
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<td>15.4</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>16.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Natural resources, construction, and maintenance</td>
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<td>5.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
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<td>23.7</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>21.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>16.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management, professional, and related</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>21.5</td>
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Table 2 Labor Force Characteristics Graphic

Labor force characteristics by race and ethnicity, 2015
Regression Analysis

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
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<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
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</table>

**ANOVA**

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<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance F</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>561.587702</td>
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<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
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<td>4.590766003</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>575.36</td>
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**Coefficients**

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<th>t Stat</th>
<th>P-value</th>
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<th>Upper 95%</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Intercept</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
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<td>0.001583204</td>
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<td>0.818907201</td>
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</table>

**RESIDUAL OUTPUT**

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<th>Observation</th>
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<th>Residuals</th>
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<tr>
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<td>9.252822825</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</table>

*Figure 1 Labor Force Characteristics Multiple Linear Regression*
How to Develop a Professional Attitude in an Academic Setting

Joseph Stasio
Merrimack College

Associate Professor of Marketing, Joseph Stasio, has been teaching and practicing business for the past 40 years. He has participated as a founder of several companies; his most recent are Cardea Technologies Inc. and C-LevelClone.com, where he serves as Director of Marketing Director of Business Development respectively. His research interests and publication record involve all aspects of marketing and entrepreneurship with an emphasis on start-ups and strategic planning for new and growing organizations. He earned a B.S.B.A. at Salem State College, and an M.B.A. and A.P.C. at Suffolk University. He is also a Certified Marketing Professional.

Abstract
This approach requires great attention to detail. It demands students pay particular attention to all in class activities and to full participate when requested. Course material is shared, discussed and learning is measured by many rubrics in most class meetings. Prior class material is used to enhance learning of new material. The subject is marketing but how to learn and use the information is the focus.
An Investigation of Ethical Perceptions of Accountants and Career Experiences

Trish Driskill
University of the Incarnate Word

Theresa Tiggeman
University of the Incarnate Word

Trish Driskill is an assistant professor of accounting at the University of the Incarnate Word, as well as the Accounting Society’s faculty advisor. Her research interests include accounting ethics, service learning, and case studies. Trish obtained her master’s degree in accounting at Texas Tech University and proceeded to work for EY as a staff auditor. After obtaining her license as a Certified Public Accountant (CPA), Trish served as an assistant controller for a large regional bank. After, over a decade of teaching at a community college, Trish obtained her PhD to continue her teaching passion at the university level.

Theresa Tiggeman is a professor of accounting, H-E-B School of Business at the University of the Incarnate Word. Her research interests include taxation, sustainability accounting, and student learning. Her scholarship is comprised of referred journal articles, continuing education courses for Certified Public Accountants, including three books for McGraw-Hill, and academic conference presentations. She is a CPA, and MBA, and has a master’s degree in Urban Planning from Texas A&M University. Additionally, she serves as the Volunteers in Income Tax Program co-coordinator. In addition to her interest in student learning, she works with first and second year students.
Abstract
A 2016 Price Waterhouse Cooper’s global economic crime survey indicated that the percentage of financial crimes committed by senior executives increased by 4% compared to the previous year. Since the myriad of financial debacles in the early 21st century, a focused interest on accountants’ ethical reasoning skills has been unsuccessful in resolving future financial crimes in the United States (Palazzo & Rethel, 2008). Some research posits that the ethical reasoning skills of Certified Public Accountants (CPAs) with more experience and seniority have lower moral reasoning skills compared to individuals with less experience and rank.

Specifically, several studies confirmed that accountants at the staff and senior level in the audit profession demonstrated higher reasoning than audit partners and higher-level auditors (Poneman, 1990, 1992; Elias, 2002). Beyond the audit field, other research concluded that both CPAs and Certified Management Accountants (CMAs) in higher positions revealed lower reasoning skills when compared to accountants in junior level positions (Baada-Hirche & Garmilis, 2016; Etherington & Hill, 1998; Eynon, Hill, & Stevens, 1997; Poneman & Gabhart, 1993).

Alternatively, several studies concluded that no significant relationship existed between one’s experience and ethical reasoning skills (Gorjidooz & Greenman, 2014; Janosik, 2007; Karcher, 1996). In addition, Abdolmohammadi and Ariail (2009) postulated an accounting professional’s position did not relate to one’s reasoning. Further research indicates that previous findings of high-level accountants exhibiting lower reasoning skills may not be as conclusive (Conroy, Emerson, & Poms, 2009). In relation to an individual’s age, some research points to a positive relationship between the age of
accountants and their ethical sensitivity and reasoning (Conroy, Emerson, & Poms, 2009; Karcher, 1996).

A review of the research infers inconclusive evidence of a relationship between higher ranked accounting positions and lower ethical reasoning skills when examining CPAs in the post-Sarbanes-Oxley (SOX) era, as the majority of research stems from the pre-SOX timeframe. Due to conflicting research findings, the researchers see a need to examine ethical reasoning among CPAs in the post-SOX era to determine if the impact of stricter regulations and the focus on ethics within the accounting profession influences the reasoning skills of higher ranked CPAs.

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study is to evaluate the relationship between exposure to real-world work experiences and the ethical reasoning skills of Certified Public Accountants (CPAs). Participants will be recruited via an accounting research panel utilizing Singhapakdi’s (1996) Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility Scale (PRESOR) to measure CPAs’ perceptions of the importance of ethics and social responsibility to an organization’s overall effectiveness.

The PRESOR has the capability to measure ethical decision-making skills in a company, as perceptions may be related to ethical intentions (Singhapakdi, 2001). Individuals must consider ethics and social responsibility to be essential before increased ethical behavior can exist (Singhapakdi, 2001). No previous research has been conducted utilizing the PRESOR to measure accountants’ perceptions. Furthermore, Singhapakdi (2001) specifically suggested future research of accountants utilizing the PRESOR in relation to one’s ethical decision-making skills. Therefore, the researchers plan to utilize
the PRESOR to measure CPAs’ perceptions of the importance of ethics and social responsibility.

With an increase in accounting scandals (PWC, 2016) and a decrease in ethical reasoning skills of newly hired accountants (Abdolmohammadi et al., 2009), the researchers plan to contribute by narrowing the research gap in regards to CPAs’ years of experience, organizational position, and age in relation to one’s perception of ethics and social responsibility.
Leadership and Its Effect to Organizational Culture

Parisa Aflatounian
George Brown College

I am a DBA student focus on Information Systems Management, and hold a Masters of Business Administration degree, and I have extensive experience teaching Business and Information systems. In addition, I have more than 17 years industry experience in domestic and international companies as a financial manager, project manager and director. My effective communication skills, computer and business knowledge, and extensive teaching and industry experience are the foundation of my leadership skills, and these skills help me to develop my student’s potential. Currently, I am teaching as a professor in business school of George Brown College in Toronto, Canada. Also, I am a co-founder of a franchise company in Toronto named Atlantis Health, Beauty & Laser Clinic.

Abstract
This paper is a reflection on leadership theories, characteristics, and skills I have learned during the course of Organizational Leadership. In this reflection paper, I deliberated on the relationship between leadership styles in different situation and organizational culture. I have responded to the question “how a leader can promote a healthy organizational culture?”, and have discussed about promoting the organizational culture by tools of power and ethics.
The Length of Financial Statement Note Disclosures in Canada Pre and Post IFRS with Consideration of Information Overload

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Mount Saint Vincent University

Jeff McKinnon
Mount Saint Vincent University

Dr. Elsie Henderson is a faculty member in accounting at the Department of Business & Tourism, Mount Saint Vincent University where she teaches Intermediate Accounting, Auditing and Advanced Accounting. She is a professional accountant, CPA, CA, and is motivated to assist students pursuing a career in accounting. She earned her PhD in 2016. Her areas of research interest are ethics, particularly in accounting, and financial statement note disclosures.

Jeff McKinnon is a faculty member in accounting at the Department of Business & Tourism, Mount Saint Vincent University where he is currently working toward a tenure position. He teaches various accounting courses and has developed a real estate certificate program. He has an MBA and is a professional accountant CPA, CMA. His areas of interest include International Financial Reporting Standards and capital markets.
Abstract

The length of financial statement note disclosures has increased significantly over time and there is concern that there is information overload in the notes (Morunga & Bradbury, 2012; Radin, 2007). While more information is indicative of transparency the value of the information may be lost if users are not processing the information whether for lack of time, understanding, or complexity of the information (Holton & Chyi, 2013; Jackson & Farzaneh, 2012). There is evidence that financial statement note disclosures further increased with the adoption of IFRS - International Financial Reporting Standards (Morunga & Bradbury, 2012).

IFRS was adopted in Canada for years beginning January 1, 2011. The researchers examined whether the adoption has resulted in increased financial statement note disclosures thus contributing to information overload. A sample of public companies was selected from Sedar.com annual report filings for pre-IFRS and post-IFRS. Results indicate that overall there was 36% increase in financial statement note disclosures pre-IFRS and Post-IFRS. T-tests and One-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine whether the total amount of disclosures pre-IFRS and post-IFRS were significantly different. Results were significant. When considering specific notes, accounting policies notes showed a significant increase pre-IFRS and post-IFRS.

Standard setters are currently addressing concerns about information overload in financial statement disclosures (Barker et al, 2013; IFRS, 2018) while other countries are considering adopting IFRS. This study will further inform standard setters and expand the theory of information overload to financial statement note disclosures.
Moats: They Aren’t Just for Castles!

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Austin Peay State University

Michael D. Phillips
Austin Peay State University

Dr. Volker is interested in entrepreneurship and creativity. He earned his Ph.D from Walden University and also holds an MBA. Dr. Volker worked in consulting and the oil industry before making the move to higher education in 1988. Dr. Volker was awarded the Socrates Teaching Award at Austin Peay State University for excellence in teaching. He has also taught design thinking in London, England. Dr. Volker designed and implemented the entrepreneurship minor at APSU and has also developed an art entrepreneurship course.

Dr. Phillips earned his DBA from Mississippi State University. He has taught finance and real estate courses at Austin Peay State University for over 25 years. Dr. Phillips is active in the community through investing clubs and has also been instrumental in developing a trading room for the College of Business. Dr. Phillips also successfully manages the TVA investment challenge and the CFA challenge at APSU. His research interests are behavioral finance and entrepreneurial finance.

Abstract
We examine the concept of moat in a business context and explore the use of moats by entrepreneur; unwittingly or not. We explain and discuss the five (5) types of moats
and how they protect a business. We also discuss the magnitude of the moat and illustrate ways to measure the strength of a moat.
Modeling an Empathic Approach to Persuasion: The Television Commercial Drama

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*University of Wisconsin-River Falls*

Michael Stoica  
*Washburn University*

Ozcan Kilic  
*University of Wisconsin-River Falls*

Anca Gata  
*University of Galați, Romania*

Darryl W. Miller received his PhD in Business Administration from Kent State University. His research interests include advertising, branding strategy, and services marketing. Dr. Miller’s recent research appears in *Journal of Marketing Communications, Services Marketing Quarterly, Journal of Historical Research in Marketing, Journal of Digital & Social Media Marketing,* and *Journal of China Tourism Research.*

Michael Stoica earned a PhD in Nuclear Engineering from the Institute for Atomic Physics, Bucharest and his PhD in Business Administration from Washington State University. His current research interest and work is in small business strategy, entrepreneurship and international marketing. Dr. Stoica’s recent research has been published in the *Journal of Small Business Strategy, Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, Journal of Vacation Marketing,* and *Journal of Nonprofit and Public

Ozcan Kilic received his PhD in Marketing at Istanbul University. His research interests include, and international marketing, branding strategy and personal selling. Dr. Kilic’s recent research appears in the Journal of Brand Management, Journal of Asia Pacific Business, and International Journal of Customer Relationship Management, Marketing and Services Marketing Quarterly, and Journal of China Tourism Research.

Anca Gâță earned her PhD from the University of Bucharest. Her research interests include translation studies, discourse analysis, organizational communication and institutional argumentation. Dr. Gâță’s recent publications include: Semiotics: Virtual Identities, Strategic maneuvering with presentational choices in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) reports in Journal of Argumentation in Context, Translation in Business Contexts: Lexical and Semantic Transfer in Bilingual In-Flight Magazines in W. Abu Hatab (ed.), Translation Across Time and Space.

Abstract
This project involved the formulation and testing of a model of cognitive and affective responses to a television commercial. As expected the process of empathy partially mediated the effects of the perceived verisimilitude on attitudes toward the commercial itself and toward the advertised brand. Verisimilitude relates to the production quality of commercial dramas and empathy, the extent to which viewers vicariously experience the depicted scenarios is a key viewer response. This approach can be persuasive
because, when effective, it mitigates viewers’ normal counter-arguing responses to persuasive advertising appeals.

Introduction
This study extends the testing of a model of cognitive and affective responses to TV Commercial Dramas to a Romanian context. A key question that receives focus is the role of empathy. Previous research indicates that this is the key viewer response that mediates the effect of a TVCD’s executional elements on attitudes toward commercials and brands. However, empathic concern is thought to vary cross-culturally. Researchers have proposed that empathic tendencies may vary according to several of Hofstede’s (1980) values dimensions.

A tourism commercial is an appropriate choice for such a test because the TVCD is an advertising execution that is very often employed within the sector (Miller, Stoica, & Kilic, 2017). Also, tourism is an important economic sector globally. The World Travel and Tourism Council (2017) estimated that in 2015 about 10.1% of worldwide GDP was accounted for by tourism. Estimates for Greece and Romania are 18.5% and 5.10%, respectively.

Tourism locations and services tend to be vigorously advertised and promoted because consumers have so many destination choices. However, tourism agencies have found that with the rise of social media and its ability to spread word-of-mouth communications virally, the overall impact of marketer-controlled communications has diminished (Litvin & Hoffman, 2012). Nevertheless, marketer-controlled communications such as websites and advertising in traditional media remain
important components of the communication mixes of resorts, casinos, cruise lines, and destinations (Bhagwat & Debruine, 2008; Rasty, Chou, & Feiz 2013). In 2015 estimated total media advertising spending worldwide was $592.43 billion with $170.50 of the total represented by digital media, and $64.25 represented by mobile internet (eMarketer, 2014). The majority of media spending on traditional media implies that tourism marketers believe that these channels still have an important role to play in creating awareness as well as in building and maintaining brand images (Pan, 2011), and attracting visitors (Meehan, 2008). A type of advertising that is commonly used in the tourism industry is the vignette form of the television commercial drama (Miller et al., 2017). The TVCD in tourism is a type of execution that portrays tourists enjoying the amenities of cruises, resorts, etc.

The marketing literature contains several studies that involve analysis of cognitive and affective responses of consumers as they view two forms of TVCD, the classical and the vignette. A few of these studies have attempted to model the influence of TVCD characteristics and the relationships among cognitive and affective responses such as ad-evoked feelings, attitudes toward the ad (Aad) as well as beliefs and attitudes toward the advertised brand (Ab). A psychological response that is critical to TVCD effectiveness is empathy (Boller & Olson 1991; Escalas & Stern 2003, Miller et al., 2017; Stern 1994; Wells 1989). Verisimilitude, which relates to the authenticity of the depicted scenarios, is perceived by the viewer and critical variable for sufficient empathy to develop (Boller & Olson, 1991; Deighton, Romer, & McQueen, 1989; Miller et al., 2017; Wells, 1989). These variables have been shown to influence the complex of viewer response variables such as Aad and Ab (Miller et al., 2017). In the current study, a pattern of these antecedent, mediating, and attitudinal response variables responses is
tested with a vignette TVCD for the major resort area of Halkidiki, a region on the North Aegean Coast of Greece. Using TVCD’s in the Romanian market is an appropriate approach because research has shown that such soft-sell, empathy-based appeals resonate well with European consumers (Hastings, Stead, & Webb, J. 2004; Whitelock & Rey, 1998). Further there may be cultural differences in empathy that may come into play.

Literature Review

Television Commercial Dramas

The TVCD is a format that is like a short movie or play where the brand message is conveyed through the interaction of characters. When effective, viewers are psychologically drawn into the depicted scenario as close-in observers or even vicarious participants (Wells, 1989). In a sense, a viewer becomes lost in the story and experiences the concerns and feelings of the characters (Deighton et al., 1989). The approach seems particularly suited to the advertising of tourism services (Miller, et al., 2017). Depicting tourists enjoying the amenities of cruises, resorts, etc. is akin to Berry and Clark’s (1986) visualization strategy for overcoming the inherent intangibility of services.

Stern (1994) points out that there are two types of TVCD—classical and the vignette and that early research focused exclusively on the former. The classical contains a single unified plot with a beginning, turning point, and resolution. As applied to a TVCD the beginning typically involves a consumer recognizing a problem, experiencing a turning point in which they are introduced to the advertised brand and the resolution when they adopt the brand. Alternatively, the vignette drama features repetition of
unconnected or loosely connected episodes depicting characters interacting with one another and the advertised brand. The episodes feature a diverse set of characters, locations, and temporal contexts. There is no plot, problem, and resolution linear structure. The vignette features breadth of experience rather than a depth of focus on a single situation. Its function is to display evidence of the richness and diversity of life, unified by the common denominator of the advertised product or service. However, she says, a TVCD vignette is not chaotic. Some structure is typically provided by via narrative devices such as music, voice-overs, superimposed graphics and titles.

The persuasive effects of TVCDs involve both cognitive and affective responses. Cognitively, consumers may draw inferences about how an advertised brand may help them solve consumer problems (Wells, 1989). In doing so they might generate self-reflective thoughts that connect their experiences with the depicted scenario (Boller 1990; Deighton & Hoch, 1993). Also, consumers can become vicarious participants in the dramatized scenario they may experience some of the feelings associated with using the advertised brand Wells (1989). This affective response may, in turn, positively influence Aad and Ab (Wells, 1994). The influence of TVCD on feelings and Ab has been empirically demonstrated by Deighton et al. (1989) and on Aad by Escalas and Stern (2003). It is important to note that for these effects to occur there must be sufficient levels of involvement (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Wells, 1989).

Key Mediator: Empathy

The key and necessary consumer response for a TVCD to work seems to be empathy (Boller 1990; Boller & Olson, 1991; Escalas & Stern, 2003, Stern 1994; Wells, 1989). However, there has been a lack of consensus among social psychologists as to whether
empathy is more cognitive or affective and whether it is more process or trait (cf. Davis, 1983; Goldstein & Michaels, 1985; Strayer, 1987). Marketing researchers similarly lack consensus. Wells (1989) uses the term migrate into a drama and experiencing the feelings associated with buying or using the advertised brand. MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) describe the process in terms of role-taking. Boller (1990) discusses vicarious participation described as the projection of one’s self into the perceptual and emotional perspectives of characters combining the processes of identification and vicarious participation under the umbrella of empathy.

Stern (1994) argues that empathy as described by the early research in TVCD is not actually a single process. Descriptions involve two related processes—sympathy and empathy. Whereas empathy is primarily affective and involves becoming immersed or “lost” in the drama, sympathy, though often described as affective, is actually more cognitive with which the viewer remains detached and aware of him/herself.

Empathy, being affective, should influence Aad. The connections between ad-evoked feelings and the affective dimension of Aad have long been established in the advertising literature (e.g., Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987). Also, the influence of Aad on Ab has also been long established (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Ab can also be influenced by feelings influenced as consumers judge the desirability of a brand based upon their calculation that the brand possesses features that they view has attractive (Petty, Cacioppo & Schuman, 1983). In the testing of the pattern of effects in response to the TVCD, Escalas and Stern (2003) confirmed that empathy effects Aad. Miller et al., (2017) confirmed this relationship using a tourism commercial.
Antecedent Variable: Verisimilitude

For empathy to occur there is a critical antecedent variable related to the execution of the TVCD that is of concern. That is, a TVCD must be perceived by viewers as having verisimilitude (Boller & Olson, 1991; Deighton, et al., 1989; Wells, 1989). Verisimilitude means that the commercial must have the appearance of authenticity and plausibility or being real or true. Verisimilitude is less likely to occur not only if the dramatized events seem contrived but also if the commercial has production flaws such as poor casting, acting, direction, editing (Boller & Olson, 1991) and/or a lack of coordination of verbal and visual cues (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989). If the commercial lacks verisimilitude, consumers tend to remain mentally apart from the commercial and engage in critical thoughts about the commercial itself and/or the advertised brand. Verisimilitude may also directly influence Aad. This may occur from viewers’ reaction to peripheral features of a commercial not directly relevant to empathy. These could include background scenes, the style of background music, or the overall pace and tone of the commercial (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Such a direct path from Verisimilitude to Aad was empirically demonstrated by Miller et al. (2017).

Cross-Cultural Differences in Empathy

Although empathy is a universal human psychological process researchers have proposed that there may be cross-cultural differences in empathic tendencies. Several have tied explanations for these differences to variations in cultural values. Some researchers have proposed that empathy is associated with Hofstede’s masculine/feminine dimension (e.g., Timofejeva, 2014) or his power distance dimension (e.g., Sadri, Weber, & Gentry, 2011). Greater empathic capacity is posited to be associated with more feminine values and lower power distance. Most, however
(Chopik, O’Brien, & Konrath 2014; Prot, et al. 2014) have suggested that empathic capacity should covary with Hofstede’s individualist/collectivist dimension with more collectivist tendencies being associated with greater empathy.

Empirical evidence supporting these propositions is quite mixed. One reason for this lack of consistent empirical support stems from variations in how individuals studies have defined and measured empathy. For example, Timofejeva (2014) investigated whether compared with managers from countries with masculine values those from countries with feminine values would be more effective as perceived by their subordinates. She posited that the latter should be viewed as more effective because they, coming from a feminine values culture, they would have greater emotional intelligence characterized by a greater tendency for empathy. Testing these propositions, she found that a sample of hotel managers from Denmark (feminine values) scored higher on measures of empathy than did a sample of hotel managers from the U.K. (masculine values). However, the managers from the U.K. outscored those from Denmark on measures of perceived effectiveness.

In another cross-cultural investigation of the role of empathy in managerial effectiveness Sadri et al. (2011) predicted that compared with managers from high power distance countries those from low power distance countries would be more empathic with subordinates and, in turn be viewed by them as been more effective. Testing these propositions with samples from 38 counties and employing power distance scores from the Globe project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) they found that power distance moderated the relationship between empathy and perceived effectiveness in the predicted direction.
Dalsky, Gohm, Noguchi, and Shiomura (2008), using measures that operationalize sympathy in emotional terms (i.e., empathy) found that Japanese undergraduates (collectivist) exhibited greater capacity than did American undergraduates (individualist). Alternatively, Cassels, Chan, Chung, and Birch (2010), found that affective empathy measured with the empathic concern (EC) subscale of via Davis’ (1980) IRI, was greater among Canadian HS and College students of western heritage than for their counterparts with eastern heritage. Somewhat similarly, Prot et al. (2013) using Davis’ (1980) perspective taking (PT) and EC subscales found the highest scores for Australians, followed by Germans, both individualist cultures. Americans and Chinese were very close on empathy but below the others. Alternatively, Birkett (2014) studying self-compassion and empathy among American vs. Chinese undergraduates, found that Americans were higher on empathic concern but there was not a significant difference between the two for perspective-taking.

Note that these studies employed youthful subjects via convenience samples. Previous research suggests that age correlates directly with empathic tendencies (Lennon & Eisenberg, 1990). Further these studies have involved comparing empathy for a mere two, three, or four countries at a time (Chopik et al. 2017). For both of these reasons, as well as the aforementioned lack of consistency in the operationalization of the constructs, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions based upon the limited scope of most of these studies. Fortunately, a study has recently been published that employed a more age-diverse sample of adults across 63 counties (Chopik et al. 2017) expecting to find that empathy would be positively associated with a country’s degree of collectivism. Using Davis’ (1980) EC and PT subscales their expectation was confirmed
for EC which directly and significantly correlated with Hofstede’s individualism/collectivism scores. However, PT did not. Noteworthy also is that neither EC nor PT were not significantly correlated with the remaining Hofstede dimensions.

Summary of Proposed Effects and Research Question

The pattern of proposed relationships can be seen graphically in the Figure (below). It is identical to that hypothesized by Miller et al. (2017). Along with this hypothesized pattern of effects we pose the following research question: Given the possibility of cross-cultural differences will empathy serve as the key mediator in the Romanian case as in the American case? It is difficult to make a firm prediction given that, compared with the USA, Romania is characterized by far greater collectivist and feminine values, but it is also characterized by much higher power distance.

Method

Sample

A convenience sample of 164 undergraduate business administration majors at a mid-size university in eastern Romania was employed. Some criticize using students as subjects as a compromise of external validity but this is a valid concern only in cases where the demographic factor is likely to interact with the theoretical variables in a confounding way (Calder, Phillips & Tybout, 1982). In this case any such confound seems unlikely to have occurred. About eight percent of the students indicated that they had visited advertised resort and more than half (54%) said that they had received knowledge of it via word-of-mouth communications. Further, many of the actors depicted within the stimulus commercial were young adults similar in age to our subjects indicating that undergraduates would fit within the target market segment.
Stimulus

We chose a tourism commercial for the Halkidiki (or Chalkidiki) region posted by the Greek Halkidiki Tourism Organization (2012) on Youtube. This commercial is appropriate because it is virtually a pure vignette drama like that used by Miller et al., (2017). It consists of three and a half minutes of scenes showing vacationers interacting within one another and tourism personnel. There is no voice-over. The audio track consists of gentle instrumental background music throughout. The commercial includes more than 100 camera shots lasting approximately two seconds with several approximately four seconds. The sequence of scenes ranges from sunrise to late evening. Tourists are shown singly, as couples, family groups, and large groups. They appear to range in age from young children to middle-aged. Activities depicted include beach activities, visits to archeological and cultural sites such as a vineyard and a monastery, sporting activities such as golf, scuba, horseback riding, and cycling. Also depicted are scenes of dining, strolling through villages, gambling in a casino, enjoying a concert and dancing in a disco. The commercial ends with a Halkidiki tourism logo, a slogan “inside your dreams,” and a URL www.visit-halkidiki.gr.

Measures

Variables were measured with multiple item summated indexes using 7-point semantic-differential scales. Each item was independently translated and back-translated by two scholars fluent in both Romanian and English. Scales developed by Miller et al. (2017) were used for measuring verisimilitude. Respondents were asked to indicate whether the situations depicted in the commercial seemed: natural/unnatural, realistic/unrealistic, to have the appearance of truth/to not have the appearance of truth, contrived/authentic, and implausible/plausible. For measuring empathy scales
developed by Escalas and Stern (2003) were used. These included: While watching the ad, I felt as though I was one of the characters; I felt as though the events in the ad were really happening to me; I experienced many of the same feelings that the characters portrayed; and I felt as if the characters’ feelings were my own. Three widely used items (Bruner & Hensel, 1994): positive/negative, bad/good, and favorable/unfavorable were used to measure Aad. Attitude toward the brand (Ab) was measured with 4 items chosen from (Bruner & Hensel, 1994) that exhibited face validity for vacation resorts. These included boring/exciting, appealing/unappealing, enjoyable/unenjoyable, undesirable/desirable.

Results

Data Checks

Descriptive statistics for all summated variables can also be seen in the Table. Also, as shown in Table 1 internal consistency reliability coefficients for all measures were above the minimum 0.70 necessary for adequate reliability established by Nunnally (1978).

Table: Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Coefficients for all Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Sk</th>
<th>Chronbach’s α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verisimilitude</td>
<td>4 – 28</td>
<td>22.43</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>4 – 28</td>
<td>15.59</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aad</td>
<td>3 – 21</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab</td>
<td>3 – 21</td>
<td>18.48</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>-1.62</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results

The results of the test of the proposed model can be seen in the Figure. Goodness-of-fit indexes recommended by Bagozzi and Yi (2012) show that the data fit this model (CFI = .955, NNFI = .943, RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .061). As expected, verisimilitude influenced empathy (β = .309) and Aad (β = .508). Empathy influenced Aad but the effect was small (β = .079). Finally, as expected, Aad influenced Ab (β = .461).

Discussion

This study involved a test of cognitive and affective responses to a commonly employed advertising approach used within the global tourism sector – the vignette TVCD. A model was built on the existing literature and considered the relationships among antecedent verisimilitude, the key mediating process of empathy, and the consumer response variables of Aad, and Ab. The test was conducted with a sample of Romanian consumers and a commercial for an Aegean resort destination. Thus, it was our intention to draw some cross-cultural conclusions concerning whether empathy would operate differently among consumers from a culture characterized by collectivist, feminine, and high power distance values in comparison with previous research involving consumers and commercials from a culture characterized by individualist, masculine and low power distance values (i.e., American) cultural context. The basis for this question lay in previous research suggesting that empathic tendencies should be greater within collectivist and feminine but lower within high power distance cultures.

The hypothesized pattern of effects was confirmed. The influences of verisimilitude on empathy and on Aad along with the influence of empathy, in turn, on Aad were significant. This pattern is consistent with findings of Escalas and Stern, (2003) and
Miller et al. (2017). Also, consistent with the findings of Miller et al. (2017) and many other previous advertising studies, Aad influenced Ab.

The most surprising results were the weak influence of empathy on Aad along with the strength of the direct effect of verisimilitude on Aad. Thus, the effect of verisimilitude operated largely independently of empathy. This seems is very curious until one examines the descriptive statistics (Table) for empathy. The mean was just below the scale midpoint and the distribution had a slight negative skew. This indicates that the levels empathy elicited by the ad was not high enough to have a strong influence on Aad. Even so, the viewers enjoyed the ad and came away with very positive Ab. For both of these variables, the scale means were quite high and the distributions were skewed toward favorability. The direct influence of verisimilitude on Aad may relate to favorable reaction to the depiction of features of Halkidiki resort not directly relevant to empathy. These could include scenes of the seaside, resort amenities, the style of background music, or the overall pace and tone of the commercial. The latter two are examples of what are defined as peripheral elements from the perspective of the Elaboration Likelihood (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983).

This result neither consistent with what is implied by the possible cultural factors involved especially in comparison with the findings of Miller et al. (2017) who used a sample of viewers from a highly individualist and masculine culture, the U.S.A., and found a very influential role played by empathy in response to a very similar commercial. Even though we cannot draw firm conclusions when comparing the two sets of results since different commercials served as stimuli we may make some
comparisons and draw tentative conclusions based upon the similarity of the commercials and two samples of subjects.

Feminine and high collectivist values characterize Romania. Both factors suggest an empathic response to a well-designed TVCD. Of course, Romania also features high power distance which seems to have an inverse relationship with empathic concern. Unfortunately, no open-ended responses were asked of the viewers that might help explain these results so further research is required to determine the likely reasons for this pattern of effects.

A possible post hoc explanation might relate to the youthfulness of the sample of viewers.
Research has shown that empathic capacity, despite cultural background, correlates directly with age (Lennon & Eisenberg, 1990). Also, given that benefits of a tourism service are largely affective (e.g., fun, romance, enlightenment, self-actualization), the commercial may not have featured a sufficient number of scenes with characters conveying affective-laden cues as stressed by Boller and Olson (1991). The college students liked what they saw but remained detached. Perhaps an older non-student sample of viewers may have generated sufficient for the mechanism to work.

Managerial Implications and Limitations
These results show that whether a vignette drama elicits adequate levels of empathy that it produces a perception of verisimilitude is critical. A commercial’s production value should be of high quality and include realistic depictions of settings. A commercial cannot have flaws that will disrupt the focus on the advertised amenities
and produce execution derogation cognitive responses and/or cause viewers to cease processing the ad. As is the case with all advertising, a vignette drama commercial for a tourism product must get attention and generate sufficient involvement for the intended message to get through whether or not empathy is stimulated. To increase the likelihood of generating empathy a TVCD must contain a sufficient number of scenes featuring actors conveying affect-laden cues.

As stated above, a future study could involve running the experiment again on an older sample of viewers. Also, other variables could be brought into the model. One might be perceived homophily, i.e., similarity of viewer and characters in terms of values, attitudes, and/or appearance (McCroskey, McCroskey, & Richmond, 2006). Research has shown that this can be an influential mediator of verisimilitude (Miller et al. 2017) and play a role in persuasion in facilitating identification in and therefore empathy in the formation of mass media relationships (Eyal & Rubin 2003; Schiappa, Allen, & Gregg, 2007). Another would be beliefs about the product generated by the ad. It has been shown that a TVCD can generate inferences that may positively influence attitude toward the advertised product (Deighton et al. 1989).

These results must be evaluated with the limited experimental context within which they occurred, i.e., a test of a single ad, with a student sample from Romania, and a laboratory-like environment. Future research could test the model for other tourist destinations and services popular in Europe. The model could be tested with student samples and non-student samples from other European countries. Indeed, one of the primary target market segments for tourism venues is the elderly/retired segment of many nations. One wonders whether they would respond similarly. Finally, the
laboratory-like setting of the exposure may have created high task involvement in subjects. Future research could test the effects in a more natural setting.

References


Myers-Briggs Type and Accounting Students: A Correlation between Performance

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**Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to determine whether the Myers-Briggs personality type of accounting major students at a private, religious institution in the South is indicative of the grades earned in accounting courses. Fifty-eight students were surveyed taking into account their classification, gender, Myers-Briggs personality type, and grades received in 14 accounting courses. The average GPA of each personality type was calculated, as well as a regression analysis of the data. Based on past studies, the hypothesis was that
the majority of the students would have an STJ preference, and that this would lead to higher grades in accounting courses, with S being the best indicator of higher grades. The results of this study showed that the majority of the students identified as INFJ with ISTJ being the second most common type. Based on a regression analysis, there was no significant link determined to be found between type and overall GPA.
The "New" 5th P of the Marketing Mix: Philanthropy

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During his over thirty years in business, Dr. Fioravante has mentored several young associates and he is very involved with philanthropic initiatives, including Board-level Foundation work. He has been a guest speaker and panel member at many industry and educational sessions on an international level, including as a keynote speaker. In addition, he has published several peer reviewed articles and a book in the areas of corporate philanthropy and the value proposition in strategic philanthropy.

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Abstract
The business marketing concept of the 4 Ps of Marketing were introduced several decades ago and focused on rudimentary elements of how companies employ Product, Price, Place and Promotion in the marketing mix. Each has been portrayed as having substantive value in how firms achieve performance in the marketplace. Actually since its inception, in the 1960’s era, there have been iterative developments of the classical 4Ps to six and even 8Ps. In this particular paper, the “new” element that needs to take a
forefront position is philanthropy. In its rawest form, philanthropy can provide firms with a plethora of marketing considerations in developing a holistic new-age approach to strategic marketing.
Strategic Leadership Development through Energy Management

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This research is supported by The Robert D. Walter Center for Strategic Leadership at Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

Abstract
University students are increasingly more involved as they juggle managing life away from family, making time for coursework, fulfilling organizational commitments, and honoring social engagements as well as, for many, holding full-time jobs. At a time when students’ lives are more intense than ever, many are at a distinct disadvantage because of inadequate energy management. This research will examine the energy management (or lack thereof) of participating students while testing the effectiveness of various interventions used to communicate well-being and energy management. This research extends the 2012 study by Spreitzer and Grant that used the Energy Audit as an intervention to assist students in increasing their energy management. To enhance
the validity of the previous study, we operationalized it into a three-cell, quasi-experimental design analysis supporting the research hypothesis that students will increase their self-awareness and well-being when primed through helpful, positive interventions. Findings support Spreitzer & Grant’s premise; the results of this study indicate that priming students though systematic interventions may decrease their perceived stress and enhance their self-awareness and energy management.

Keywords: Energy Management, Energy Audit, Business Pedagogy, University Students

Introduction
Technological advances have enhanced productivity; in fact, since 1760 “productivity has increased almost 30 fold” (Martin, 2018). At the same time that technology has assured increased individual access to knowledge and promoted faster job performance, the National Center for Health Statistics reports the overall suicide rate has increased 24 percent from 1999-2014 (Tavernise, 2018). Lohr and Schwartz project that the downside of increased productivity expectations of today’s workers has resulted in decreased energy levels. In the rush to get more and more accomplished, optimal energy renewal is not being maintained by 74 percent of today’s employees, resulting in plummeting physical, emotional, mental, and spiritual energy renewal. If not corrected, depression, sickness, and burnout may occur (Lohr & Schwartz, 2005; Sarner, 2018).
Researchers from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Singer, 2017) report an increase in teenage depression from 8.3 percent in 2008 to 10.7 percent in 2013. Since more than 60 percent of people who die by suicide suffer from depression, this may be a
factor in suicide becoming the second leading cause of death among young adults. Most troubling is the idea that one in twelve college students make a suicide plan (Neuman University, 2018). Thus, it becomes paramount to consider the unhealthy distress that today’s university students may struggle through and to devise mechanisms that allows students to charge of their energy to enhance their well-being. Incoming college freshmen are entering one of the most exciting times of their young-adult lives. For the first time, they are allowed to set their own schedules, make their own decisions, and make new friends. Conversely, there is a great deal of anxiety and fear as they become members of a community where they blend instead of standing out. The reality of leaving friends and family back home, juggling life on their own, scheduling classes differently, handling challenging coursework, balancing social and organizational commitments, and, for an increasingly large number of students, holding full-time jobs can become stressful and overwhelming. It is easy to surmise that, while students are experiencing this life-changing event, many develop inadequate energy management habits that put them in a distinct disadvantage for short-term as well as live-long personal and professional success. In fact, Schwartz and McCarthy (2007) posit that “managing energy, not time, is the key to enduring high performance as well as to health, happiness, and life balance. Whereas our time is limited and finite, energy can be renewed via four main wellsprings in human beings: the body, mind, emotions, and spirit” (p. 2).

Spreitzer and Grant (2012) applied Lohr and Schwartz’s (2003) energy management concepts into the university classroom and found qualitative evidence of success. This paper adapted a similar method to prime students to take control of their well-being through energy management of their body, mind, emotions, and spirit. Thus, the current research involved collection of data to determine whether students introduced
to ways of renewing their energy to decrease stress and achieve greater success in their personal and professional lives would report significant benefits from this intervention.

Literature Review
“Managing energy, not time, is the fundamental currency of high performance. Performance is grounded in the skillful management of energy.” (Loehr & Schwartz, 2003, p.17)

Intuitively, it is easy to agree that technology is creating more rapid change. Thus, our daily workload is intensifying because of the speed in which our lives are moving. Most workers today are experiencing ever-present distractions that encourage task switching. The results of this work environment perpetuate stress and often result in being busy vs being productive. Today’s business landscape reveals company closures, mergers, downsizing, and reorganizing. This often results in job responsibilities changing and increasing for remaining workers who may need to extend working hours in an effort to maximize performance. Thus, time management became the mantra for training workers to achieve new and extended performance goals through daily, weekly, and monthly to-do lists. Then, Lohr and Swartz in 2001 asserted that managing your energy (not your time) was the better way to maintain high performance and personal renewal. Ericsson and colleagues in 1993 published research that studied expert musicians to determine how their energy is expended and replenished. Using this idea of the flow between intense practices and intermittent rest, Loehr and Schwartz first began to apply the concept in the sports arena to enhance the performance of expert athletes and branched out to consulting with and training leaders in all types of organizations. Their training programs are bolstered by the concept that “if sustainable great performance
requires a rhythmic movement between activity and rest, it also depends on tapping multiple sources of energy” (Schwartz, 2010, p. 7). Thus, Loehr and Schwartz, along with colleagues encourage the management of energy instead of time. Whereas time is finite, energy can be utilized and replenished, enabling an enhanced capacity to get things done. This results in maximized performance and an enhanced quality of life. (Loehr & Schwartz, 2001; 2003; Mason et al., 2018; Schwartz, 2010; Schwartz & McCarthy, 2007).

Loehr and Schwartz proffer that we are, indeed, in an energy crisis. At the same time, “great leaders are stewards of organizational energy. They begin by effectively managing their own energy. As leaders, they must mobilize, focus, invest, channel, renew and expand the energy of others” (Loehr & Schwartz, 2003, p. 17). In order to renew energy, Loehr and Schwartz (2001, p. 123) identify four sources that must be maintained for optimal positive energy:

- Physical Energy: Regular exercise, balanced nutrition, and appropriate levels of sleep are positive fuels for maintaining heightened energy levels. Student awareness of their current physical energy levels along with how to regulate this dimension will minimize a “possible crash and burn.”
- Mental Energy: Setting short-term and long-term productivity goals, focusing on a single task at a time (decreasing multi-tasking), and taking short breaks are key to regulating and achieving increased mental energy.
- Emotional Energy: Building enthusiasm for tasks throughout the day requires a positive mindset. Starting the day with a positive disposition assists in overcoming times of negativity, depression, and stress.
• Spiritual energy: The is ability to be mindful and thankful can be enhanced through self-talk, gratitude journals, meditation and a sense of one’s life purpose, which will increase spiritual energy and gratefulness.

Across college campuses, university faculty strive to provide graduates with the technical knowledge for their fields as well as some breadth of knowledge across the arts and sciences. It is important that, as the leaders of tomorrow, our students become more adept in the skillful management of their energy. Energy management may well be the competitive advantage that sets students apart from peers in work/life balance and career advancement. In fact, Wamp (2009) challenges schools to create a culture of movement and recovery to manage student energy at optimal levels. To this end, Spritzer and Grant (2012), drawing from the work by Loehr and Schwartz (2001), and recovery from work demands literature, introduced energy management into the classroom. They asserted that “the more we can help students develop healthy habits around energy while still in school, the better we can help them sustain their energy for high performance for a lifetime” (2012, p 16). Their longitudinal, qualitative study indicated that respondents reported better understanding of the energy depleting forces (77%). Almost two-thirds (69%) stated they had a better understanding of specific strategies to improve their energy management. The respondents represented every academic discipline within the college.

This research draws from Loher and Schwartz’s energy management literature (2001; 2003) along with Spreitzer and Grant’s classroom interventions (2012), to introduce energy management into freshman introductory business courses. This paper extends the research by adding data collection to determine statistically whether students’ self-report assessment will show significant growth after the energy management audit.
Additionally, the research findings indicate whether students participating in energy management audit as well as pre- and post-survey report decreased stress.

Methodology
In this study, undergraduate students who were enrolled in three sections of an introduction to business class at a large university in the Midwest were selected for this study. Voluntary respondents in all three sections completed the pre- and post-survey that gauged their self-assessed energy management scores. This study sought to determine whether students (Sections 3) who were primed for enhanced energy management through self-awareness (energy management pre-test), self-analysis and reflection (energy audit), intervention and plan for change (lecture and activity), and energy management post-test would have greater post-test energy management scores than students (Section 2) who received all but the intervention. Sections 3 and 2 findings could also compare with Section 1, who received only the pre- and post-test. Decreased stress levels at the end of the semester might also indicate an impact by enhanced energy management. Section 1 consisted of 35 students; section 2 had 46 students, and section 3 had 75 students. All sections averaged 19.7, 19.6, and 19.8 years of age, respectfully (See Table 1).

Throughout the course of the 2017 spring semester, undergraduate students taking sections 2 and 3 of the introduction to business at a Midwestern state university were introduced to the concept of energy management through a series of short (15-20 minute) conversations and activities. The 5 phases of engagements included a pre-test survey, energy audit administration, energy audit collection, intervention, and post-test survey.

Phase 1: The first phase consisted of the pre-test survey and overview of the study. Introduction to the pre-test survey was communicated through the explanation of the
positive impact that each student could make on the study of well-being and professional development. Students received the printed survey that, instead of place for names, included a random 4-digit number written on the top right of the survey. Students were asked to email themselves or take a picture of the 4-digit number for their own records to use on their post-test. Students were then encouraged to close their computers, put away their cellular phones, and take notes for the remainder of the session. The survey itself was explained to the students in 3 sections. The first section consisted of general information such as gender, class year, major, and expected grade that the student thought they would receive in the course. The students were then told that the middle of the survey would consist of information on their current practices and thoughts in regard to the management of their physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual energy. They were not given any information to explain each dimension at this time. The final section of the survey, the students were told, were open ended questions that they should answer to the best of their ability. Students were given ample time to complete the survey in class. Those not participating were encouraged to simply remain quiet in their seats with the electronic devices remaining away. The surveys were then collected and later given to the data analyst. The study was then explained to students. They were told about the extent of the study adjusting the remarks for each of the sections. For example, Section 3 was briefed that the study would include their participation in a future energy audit, a short mini-lecture on the four dimensions of energy management, and the post-test survey administration.

Phase 2: The second phase consisted of the energy audit administration for Sections 2 and 3. Students were once again encouraged to close their computers and put away their cellular phones for the explanation of the energy audit. Once administered, all dimensions of the energy audit were clearly communicated as the students followed
along and asked questions if desired. The 2-day time duration of the energy tracking audit was first communicated in order to give the students a finite scope for the project. The first page of the audit was an overview that gave specific instructions on the times in which to track their energy, how to document their levels, and what to do if they were unable to exactly track their levels at the times instructed. If unable to document their levels at a specific time, students were instructed to recall what their energy level was during the missed log-in and return to the next specified time in order to get back on track. The second page of the audit gave students the opportunity to actually track their levels of energy throughout the day in one-hour increments. The left column tracked their morning energy levels and the right column tracked afternoon and evening energy levels. Both sides allowed the student to track their energy level from 1-10 with 10 being the highest. The third page of the audit was created to show a graphic representation of the data that the student documented throughout their two-day study of their energy levels. As helpful hints to the students, it was suggested to set hourly alarms on their phones to remind them to track their energy levels. It was also suggested they could track energy levels on a task-list via their phone and transfer the data to the audit tool at the end of each day. Once completed, students were asked if there were any questions pertaining to the energy audit tool.

Phase 3: The third phase consisted of the energy audit collection for Sections 2 and 3. Two days after being given the energy audit, students who participated in the data collection were thanked for their participation and were asked questions pertaining to their experience while tracking their own energy levels. Conversations centered on student’s new self-awareness about their energy web and flow. Other comments included the ease of the documentation as well as the challenges associated with the
project, resulting in constructive brainstorming on ways in which students could better monitor their habits and self-awareness.

Phase 4: The fourth phase consisted of the intervention for Section 3. All students (even those who did not participate in the data collection) participated in a full, class time lecture (50 minutes) that reintroduced and further explained the four dimensions of energy management, including physical, emotional, mental, and spiritual energies. After the introduction of each dimension, students were given a template for their own “personal development plan.” This plan suggested ideas for them to bring their own dimensions to life. The timing of this intervention was such that the students were getting ready to end their semester. Conversations were extended to include ideas surrounding successful tips for ending the semester and being productive over the summers as well as into their future.

Phase 5: The fifth and final phase consisted of the post-test for all Sections. Students received the printed survey and included their 4-digit number on the top right of the survey. Once administered, the students were again encouraged to close their computers, put away their cellular phones, and take notes for the remainder of the session. Those who did not participate were once again encouraged to simply remain quiet in their seats with the electronic devices remaining away. The surveys were then collected and given to the data analyst. The students were thanked for their time and participation in the study.

Results/Findings
The Energy Audit Survey was offered to three sections of students who were enrolled in the same course in the College of Business at a large university in the Midwest. Volunteer respondents enrolled in each of these sections completed the survey twice: at the beginning of the course before any interventions, and at the end of the course after
the interventions were implemented. The goal of the interventions was to assist students in managing their energy across four dimensions: physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual. Each of the three sections received different levels of intervention as described previously, with Section 1 receiving minimal exposure and Section 3 receiving the most comprehensive set of interventions.

To determine the impact of interventions, we first evaluate whether the respondents start out with similar perceptions or at the same “base level” in the four dimensions of interest. To test this we use independent-sample t-tests between all section pairs. This analysis results in a significant difference in one item, the measure of regular breaks, between Sections 1 and 2 and Section 3. Section 3 has an initial level in this item which is higher than either of the two sections, and is quite high at a mean of 4.13/5.0. It would be difficult for Section 3 to show any positive change in this item, regardless of intervention, though it would be possible to show a negative change.

To test the hypothesis that interventions make a difference in how students manage their energy, we compare the pre- and post- survey responses for the students in the three sections. We used SPSS Statistics 23 to conduct the analysis, using paired-sample t-tests. The null hypothesis is that there is no significant difference between the student’s response to the pre- and post- surveys. Results are summarized in Table 2. The results suggest that the interventions have an effect in the students’ responses. Significant differences can be observed between the pre- and post- intervention surveys. For reference, positive differences indicate that the post-intervention result was higher than the pre-intervention result, negative differences indicate the reverse. There are several results of note. The first is that each of the three sections reported significant positive growth in the three concluding measures. Independent of the impact of the interventions, students report that exposure to the course itself improves
their knowledge of leadership, improves their self-efficacy, and for student in Sections 2 and 3, their level of stress is decreased.

- In the measures of Physical energy management, Section 2 respondents report significant negative changes in two items (sleep duration and exercise frequency), and negative (but not significant) changes in two items (breakfast and small meals). Section 3 respondents report mixed results, with significant negative changes in exercise frequency but significant positive changes in eating small meals.
- In the measures of Mental energy management, Section 2 respondents report significant positive changes in taking regular breaks and multitasking. Respondents in Section 3 do not report any significant changes in this dimension, but we note again that their initial level of “regular breaks” was quite high. The increase in multitasking, however, is a significant difference between these two groups.
- In the measures of Emotional energy management, respondents in Section 2 do not report significant changes in any of these measures. Respondents in Section 3 report significant decreases in measures of being perceived as a positive person and helping others in need.
- In the measures of Spiritual energy management, respondents in both Section 2 and Section 3 report significant positive changes in writing goals and creating a vision board.

Discussion and Conclusion
Although not generalizable, the results of this study do suggest that the energy management interventions have an effect in the students’ responses. Interestingly, students with more information about energy management reported significant negative changes in sleep duration and mixed results in eating habits. This may be the
result of heightened awareness in how they are managing their energy at the end of the semester with finals looming. Respondents in the section receiving energy management coaching reported significant positive changes in writing goals and creating a vision board. Creating a personal vision is one way to begin formation of a life purpose, which contributes to the spiritual dimension of energy management. Perhaps the most encouraging finding is that students in Sections 2 and 3 who received energy management coaching reported reduced levels of stress. This is encouraging in today’s campus climate where students will benefit from learning energy management skills to offset the increased pressures they are introduced to when embarking on their college career.

Future statistical analysis of the initial and final energy self-assessments might substantiate that energy management could be an important additional concept within the business curriculum. This entry into introducing energy management within the freshman business curriculum shows that these students can connect with the need for energy management and are, in fact, eager to utilize the tools available to them. From the beginning of the semester to the turning in of their final survey and future plan, students were engaged in the process of learning more about how they could maximize their success and productivity. Through the five phases (self-awareness, self-analysis, reflection, intervention, and plan for change) of activities, lectures, and measurements, students seemed to be interested, inquisitive, and even enthusiastic about learning more about themselves and how they could improve their own energy management.
References


Table 1: Respondent demographics

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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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### Table 2: Summary of Survey Results

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<td></td>
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<td>.044</td>
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<td>I utilize a gratitude journal daily.</td>
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<td>I have a vision board and post it where it can be easily viewed.</td>
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<td>My level of stress and concern is lessened.</td>
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Using Class Presentations to Educate Business Students about Accreditation and Assurance of Learning

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James “Mick” Andzulis is an Assistant Professor of Marketing at Ohio University. Mick completed his PhD at University of Alabama and currently teaches foundations of professional sales and sales strategy & technology as an Assistant Director with The Ralph and Luci Schey Sales Centre at Ohio University. His research interests include strategy, sales and technology.
Abstract
This research assesses a presentation designed to increase awareness among business undergraduate students about The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accreditation, the role of assessment in accreditation, and student benefits from assurance of learning. After the presentation, students completed a survey about students’ (1) awareness of AACSB accreditation and assurance of learning, (2) confidence in attitudes towards quality of education, (3) perceptions about claimed benefits of accreditation and assessment, and (4) behavioral intentions. Findings indicated that this presentation had a strong effect on improving or reinforcing students’ confidence in the quality of their education and curriculum. This group perceived the most important benefits of accreditation and assessment to be the perceived importance of having a competitive advantage after graduation and of earning a degree from an accredited program. Interestingly, the average importance of a competitive advantage ranked higher than the average importance of assuring learning, teaching improvements, and curriculum improvements.

Keywords: Assurance of learning, accreditation, business students

Introduction
Assessment and assurance of learning are cornerstones of the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). AACSB provides internationally recognized, specialized accreditation for business programs that meet or exceed its 15 Standards. Standard 8 requires that “the school uses well-documented, systematic processes for determining and revising degree program learning goals; designing, delivering, and improving degree program curricula to achieve learning goals; and demonstrating that degree program learning goals have been met” (AACSB, 2017, p 33).
To promote the importance of AACSB accreditation, the AACSB (n. d.) website has a section dedicated to promoting accreditation including a suite of tools and resources to help current students understand the value of attending an AACSB-accredited school. However, the research is sparse on how AACSB accredited business schools are providing current students with information about the importance of AACSB accreditation, the role of assessment in the accreditation process, and how students benefit from the Assurance of Learning (AoL) process. Thus, one Midwestern college of business designed a promotional campaign that was launched shortly before the college’s AACSB reaffirmation review.
Literature Review
The reaffirmation of accreditation bar shifted for business schools in the last decade, when AACSB moved from basing accreditation solely on faculty credentials and teacher/student ratio to also encapsulating student learning outcomes along with continuous program improvement (Abdelsamad, et al., 2015; Samson & Betters-Reed, 2008; Zhu & Fleming, 2017; Zocco, 2011). During this same period, new programs and options provided more opportunities and choices for prospective business students (Bennett et al., 2015). As a result, accreditation is being marketed more by AACSB and university officials as a competitive advantage for graduates of accredited programs (Sohail & Shaikh, 2004). Stiber (2014) posits that parents and prospective students may consider accreditation when making college choices, although not as much as location, financial aid, and tuition costs (Bennett, et al., 2015; Chapman, 1981; Moogan, Baron, & Harris, 1999; and Soutar & Turner, 2002). Extant research exploring student perceptions of accreditation is sparse. Daily, Farewell, and Kumar (2010) found that AACSB accreditation was an important factor influencing university selection among international students pursuing secondary education in the United States yet also found that international students do not fully understand the meaning of accreditation by AACSB. Likewise, Mourad and Selim (2011) found that most engineering students at one university were not aware of the ABET accreditation process and the benefits of accreditation. Mourad and Selim (2011) recommend making students more aware of accreditation through offering seminars, workshops, posters, and lectures. By comparison, Al-Khourry et al. (2014) surveyed students in Lebanon and found a high awareness of accreditation and a willingness to pay higher tuition fees if the university is internationally accredited. Shurden, Natvig, and Shurden (2009) surveyed approximately 400 business students at a public, southeastern university in the United States about their knowledge of accreditation and found that about half of students (47%) enrolled in the business program were aware that the business program had AACSB accreditation. However, less than one in five students (17%) indicated that their decision to enroll in the program was influenced by its accreditation. The study also found that 96% of students surveyed believe that graduating from an AACSB accredited business school will be beneficial to them in the future.

Methodology
A plan was designed with the promotion objective to increase awareness among business undergraduate students about the importance of AACSB accreditation, the role of assessment in the accreditation process, and student benefits from the Assurance
of Learning (AOL) process. The first planning activity enlisted student leaders in brainstorming best practices for marketing this promotion to undergraduates. A student organization consisting of junior and senior students representing the business college were assembled to learn about the proposed marketing promotion and to brainstorm promotion ideas for the project. After this initial meeting, several members of the group volunteered to complete this project and subsequently submitted a short report detailing ideas. Examples of suggestions included short presentations to classes, distribution of informational cards and brochures, social media posts about AACSB and AoL on professional business organization websites, and games with prizes that focused on accreditation knowledge.

Presentation
Based on the suggestions of the student group, the team planned presentations to all introduction to business classes and two student organizations. The presentation included six content slides focused on information about AACSB and its benefits to students (Appendix A). Presentations also included a distribution of two pieces of marketing collateral: a business card and a tri-fold brochure. The business card provided the college’s mission statement and learning goals. The outside of the tri-fold brochure (Appendix B) included a title page and tagline, the college’s mission statement, overall learning goals, and the college’s statement about its promise to students. The inside (Appendix C) included narratives answering three sets of questions: What is AACSB and why should I care? What is Assurance of Learning and how does the college do this? What is continuous improvement and what does it all mean?

Data Collection
Following the presentations and distribution of marketing collateral, students completed anonymous questionnaires designed to measure their awareness of AACSB accreditation and AoL, their confidence in attitudes towards quality of education, their perceptions of the importance of benefits of accreditation, and their behavioral intentions after the presentation. See Appendix D for a copy of the measurement instrument.

The quasi-experiment was a one-shot case study with post measures. Participants were obtained using purposive sampling and convenience sampling. For purposive sampling, participants were undergraduate students enrolled in two introduction to business courses at a Midwestern public university. This course is designed for underclassmen majoring in business. The convenience sample was used for
comparative purposes; participants included undergraduate students who were members of one of two student business professional organizations.

**Procedures**
The stimulus was a 10-minute presentation about AACSB and AoL within the business college at a Midwestern university. Participants were enrolled as undergraduates majoring in business at the university. The content included information about AACSB business accreditation in general, standards for accreditation, student benefits of AACSB accreditation, AoL in general, AoL goals, the AoL process, and the benefits of AoL for students. The presentation was framed from a student perspective and delivered by an undergraduate student. For example, the presentation discussed recent changes to curriculum based upon the results of the AoL process. After hearing the presentation, each participant completed an anonymous, self-administered survey during class or during the student organization meeting. The survey consisted of a series of questions that measured participants’ self-reported (1) awareness of AACSB accreditation and AoL, (2) confidence in attitudes towards quality of education, (3) perceptions of the importance of benefits of accreditation and assessment, and (4) behavioral intentions after the presentation. The survey also collected demographic information including major, class rank, gender, and GPA.

**Sample**
The population size for the two introduction to business courses was 310; the population size for the two student organizations was 80. After excluding two surveys with excessive missing data, the final sample was 235 participants: 168 (71.5%) students enrolled in the introduction to business courses and 67 (28.5%) members of student organizations, for response rates of 54.2% and 83.75%, respectively.

All participants were undergraduate university students. Excluding missing data, the majority were female (59% vs. 41% male) and underclassman (73.9% vs. 26.1% upperclassman). The sample included a range of business majors including accounting (24.3%), business economics (4.7%), business pre-law (7.7%), entrepreneurship (3%), finance (24.3%), international business (4.7%), management (7.7%), management information systems (18.3%), marketing (20.0%), and other/undecided (22.1%). The distribution of majors in the sample is consistent with the distribution of majors in the undergraduate student population at the university at the time of the study. The sample was skewed towards students reporting cumulative grade point averages 3.01 or higher (80.3% vs. 19.7% reporting 3.00 or less). Most participants were unaware of
AACSB Accreditation (66.4%) before the presentation. Likewise, most participants were unaware of AoL (79.2%) prior to the presentation.

**Measures**

Three global constructs were measured using multi-item, formative scales. Unlike reflective scales, formative scales assume that a construct is a function of its measures such that the construct is formed by a combination of the measurement items (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). As such, index construction involves construct content specification and indicator specification (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Eight items for measuring confidence in attitudes towards quality of education were generated using the 2013 AACSB business accreditation standards (AACSB, 2013). Items utilized a five-point scale (not-at-all to a-great-deal) and included quality of faculty, curriculum, student services, faculty-student interaction, knowledge acquisition, skill development, effectiveness of teaching, and innovation.

Seven items for measuring perception of the importance of benefits of accreditation and assessment were generated using AACSB (n. d.) online promotion materials for students. Items utilized a five-point scale (not-important to very-important) and included AoL, teaching improvements, curriculum improvements, course improvements, opportunities for learning, degree from an accredited program, and competitive advantage post-graduation.

Behavioral intentions were measured using six items (five-point scale: not-at-all to a-great-deal) and included motivation to learn more, make efforts on future assessments, word-of-mouth communications, and college recommendation intentions.

**Results / Findings**

Paired sample t tests were used to test for mean differences among the formative items within each construct. Independent sample t tests and one-way ANOVA were used to test for mean differences among demographic characteristics of the sample.

**Mean Comparisons within Constructs**

For confidence in attitudes, the highest mean among the eight measures was quality of education: skill development ($M = 4.13$). The average rating for quality of education: skill development was statistically equal to the next three highest means: quality of education – knowledge acquisition ($M = 4.08$), quality of curriculum ($M = 4.07$), and course innovation ($M = 4.06$), $p > 0.05$. By comparison, the average ratings for all four of the items with the highest means were statistically higher than the three lowest means. Specifically, the mean for quality of education: skill development ($M = 4.13$) was
statistically higher than the mean for quality of student services ($M = 3.73$), quality of student-faculty interactions ($M = 3.76$), and quality of faculty ($M = 3.80$), $p < 0.05$. As such, the results suggest the presentation had a stronger effect on improving or reinforcing students’ confidence in curriculum development and AoL as compared to the effect on confidence in faculty and support services. Table 1 provides the results of the paired sample $t$-tests for confidence in attitudes.

For the benefits of accreditation and AoL, the two highest means among the seven measures were the perceived importance of having a competitive advantage after graduation ($M = 4.71$) and the importance of earning a degree from an accredited program ($M = 4.69$). The results of the paired sample $t$ tests suggest that both the highest rated items were statistically higher than the three lowest rated items. Specifically, the average importance rating for competitive advantage ($M = 4.71$) was higher than the average importance ratings for assuring learning ($M = 4.54$), teaching improvements ($M = 4.56$), and curriculum improvements ($M = 4.58$), $p < 0.05$. As such, the results suggest students perceived the externally-related benefits of accreditation and AoL as somewhat more important than internally-rated benefits. However, it is also important to note that means for all items exceeded 4.50 on a five-point scale and that the largest effect sizes for mean differences were moderate-weak. See Table 2 for the results of the paired sample $t$-tests for benefits of accreditation and AoL.

For behavioral intentions, there was wide range of means. The two highest means were: recommend the college to others ($M = 4.04$) and expend more effort on future AoL assessments ($M = 3.39$); the lowest means were talk about AoL with others ($M = 2.85$) and talk about AACSB with others ($M = 2.92$). Except for learning more about accreditation and learning more about AoL in the future, the results of the paired sample $t$ tests suggest the means for the six behavioral intention measures were significantly different. As such, the results suggest the presentation had the least effect on direct word-of-mouth communication intentions and the greatest effect on indirect word-of-mouth communication intentions. See Table 3 for the results of the paired sample $t$-tests for behavioral intentions.

**Mean Comparisons by Demographic Variables**

A series of independent sample $t$ tests suggested very few mean differences among groups for each of the formative items within each construct. For differences between class rank groups, the only difference between groups for the 21 items was the perceived importance of having a competitive advantage after graduation. Specifically, upperclassmen ($M = 4.79$, $SD = 0.51$) on average rated this item higher than underclassmen ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 0.85$), $t(75.73) = 2.60$, $p < 0.05$. As expected, differences
between students who listened to the presentation during class rated the perceived importance of having a competitive advantage after graduation lower than students who listened to the presentation during a student organization meeting, \( p < 0.05 \). The results of independent sample \( t \) tests for gender found no significant differences between gender groups for any of the 21 items. Likewise, the results of a one-way ANOVA test for GPA groups found no significant differences among GPA groups for any of the 21 items.

**Discussion**

Most of the business students in this study knew nothing about AACSB Accreditation (66.4%) before the presentation. These findings are supported by Gennett et al. (2015), who indicated that “students in fact hold a positive perception of accreditation, although they possess limited knowledge and awareness of specialized business school accreditation” (2015, p. 78). Similarly, prior to the presentation, most students in the current study (79.2%) were unaware of AoL. For these students, the presentation had a strong effect on improving or reinforcing their confidence in the quality of their education and curriculum. One possibility is that the highest means were for items that were about student confidence in the outcomes of the educational experience. Because students may be less confident in their ability to successfully assess the quality of the outcomes of their educational experience until after graduation, they may value AACSB accreditation and AoL as a quality check through which external experts review, approve, and validate the quality of their educational experience. By comparison, the lowest means were related to factors associated with the educational experience process (e.g., faculty, faculty-student interactions, student services), which students may feel more comfortable assessing through personal experience throughout the program rather than relying on expert judgment.

All seven items measuring the importance of benefits of accreditation and assessment had extremely high means (>4.50). However, two items had statistically higher means than the other five. This group perceived the most important benefits of accreditation and assessment to be the perceived importance of having a competitive advantage after graduation and of earning a degree from an accredited program. Interestingly, the average importance of a competitive advantage ranked higher than the average importance of assuring learning, teaching improvements, and curriculum improvements. Like the pattern of means for confidence in attitudes, these students emphasized the benefit of external validation of the quality of their degree as compared to benefits associated with the educational experience (e.g., opportunities, courses,
curriculum, teaching, and learning). Thus, students believed the externally related benefits of accreditation and AoL to be more important than internally related benefits. This trend was more pronounced with students closer to graduation and students hearing the presentation in a professional organization meeting. For these students, the results suggest that the presentation had a far lesser impact on intended behavioral change. Although students were more motivated to recommend the college to others, the presentation only moderately motivated them to try harder on assessments, learn more about AACSB, and learn more about AoL. The results indicate that students were even less likely to talk about either AACSB or AoL with others. Thus, the results suggest that changes in attitudes do not easily translate into changes in behavior.

Although the results of this study cannot be generalized across the global business undergraduate population, it can be used as an indicator that sharing accreditation and AoL information with students attending AACSB institutions is beneficial. Further replication of this study across business schools could provide validation of study results. Equally important would be studies to determine ways to elevate students’ sense of importance attached to assuring learning, teaching improvements, and curriculum improvements as this pertains to closing the loop in assessment and AoL.

**Conclusion**

Marketing the benefits of AACSB Accreditation and AoL to business students may have a strong effect on improving or reinforcing confidence in the quality of their education and curriculum. In fact, this group of business students perceived the most important benefits of accreditation and assessment to be the perceived importance of having a competitive advantage after graduation and of earning a degree from an accredited program. Interestingly, the average importance of a competitive advantage ranked higher that the average importance of assuring learning, teaching improvements, and curriculum improvements. Future research findings may validate these findings. Additionally, researchers might also seek ways to enhance the perceived importance of assuring learning through continuous improvements in teaching and curriculum.
References


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Table 2: Paired Sample t-tests for Benefits of Accreditation and Assurance of Learning

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Table 3: Paired Sample $t$-tests for Behavioral Intentions

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Appendix A: PowerPoint Presentation

AACSB Accreditation +
College of Business +
Assurance of Learning =
Ensuring Your Competitive Advantage

What is AACSB Accreditation?

Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB)
Accreditation = International Recognition of Quality Business Education

Earning AACSB Accreditation is not easy…
Less than 5% of the world’s 13,000 business programs have earned AACSB Accreditation.
Why is AACSB Accreditation important?

As a Student

A Better Learning Experience

- Engaged Faculty
- Quality Curriculum
- Centers of Excellence
- Student Services

As a Graduate

A Competitive Advantage

- Knowledge & Skills
- Employer Interest
- Competitive Salaries
- Graduate School Qualifications

What is Assurance of Learning (AoL)?

Monitoring Student Achievement of Learning Goals

Knowledge
- Acquire knowledge of current business practices and theory.

Critical Thinking
- Demonstrate the ability to apply a holistic, integrated approach to framing and solving business problems.

Professional Skills
- Develop and enhance professional skills and competencies.
What Learning Is Monitored?

- Accounting
- Operations Management
- Marketing
- Management
- Finance
- Business Law
- Quantitative Business Analysis
- Industry Analysis
- Information Systems Development
- Digital Product Design
- Company Analysis
- Teamwork Effectiveness Skills
- Written Communication Skills
- Oral Communication Skills

How does Assurance of Learning (AoL) work?

Faculty Measure Learning
- Tests
- Rubrics
- Performance Reviews

Faculty Review Results
- Strengths
- Weaknesses
- Opportunities for Improvement

Faculty Implement Improvements
- Teaching
- Curriculum
- Courses
- Opportunities

What are the Benefits of AoL for You?

- Improved Teaching
- Improved Curriculum
- New Opportunities for Students
- New Courses
- Team-Based Learning
- Flipped Classroom
- Integrated Business Cluster
- Internships
- Centers of Excellence
- Student Organizations
- Introduction to Business
- Business Analytics
Appendix B: Tri-Fold Brochure Information (Outside)

AACSB Accreditation & Assurance of Learning: Ensuring Your Competitive Advantage

College of Business Learning Goals
- Acquire (Knowledge). Our graduates will have knowledge of current business practices and theory.
- Integrate (Critical Thinking). Our graduates will apply a holistic, integrated approach to framing and solving business problems.
- Demonstrate (Professional Skills). Our graduates will have professional skills and competencies.

College of Business Mission Statement
The College of Business provides a distinctive learning environment that actively engages students, faculty, and the business community in developing knowledge and skills relevant for success in a complex, global economy.

This environment stimulates student learning and faculty research so that graduates are able to:
- Apply a holistic, integrated approach to business problems;
- Apply the communication, leadership and technological skills necessary to success;
- Understand how to work with diverse populations; and
- Understand the social responsibilities and ethics regarding business of individuals.

A Transformative Business Education
The College of Business is committed to assuring that our graduates acquire business knowledge, apply critical thinking skills, and demonstrate professional abilities relevant to success in a complex, global economy.
Appendix C: Tri-Fold Brochure Information (Inside)

AACSB Accreditation & Assurance of Learning: Ensuring Your Competitive Advantage

WHAT IS AACSB?
Accreditation by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) is the international seal of approval for business and accounting programs that insures the educational needs of students are met through high quality, continuous improvement and excellence in education. To be an AACBS-accredited, business programs must pass very rigorous quality standards. Less than 5% of the world's 13,000 business programs have earned AACSB Accreditation.

WHY SHOULD I CARE?
College is a big investment of money and time. As a student, you want a return on your investment. AACSB standards ensure continuous improvement of curriculum, quality student-faculty interactions, and teaching. As a student in a program with AACSB accreditation, you will have an education that provides the knowledge and skills for success.

Graduates from AACSB-accredited programs have more employers interested in them and receive higher, more competitive salaries than graduates from similar programs without AACSB accreditation.

WHAT IS ASSURANCE OF LEARNING?
Assurance of Learning (AoL) is exactly what it sounds like; it is the assurance of the students learning. The College of Business monitors the extent to which students are able to demonstrate:

- **Knowledge** in accounting, operations management, marketing, management, finance, and business law;
- **Critical Thinking Skills** necessary to analyze business situations quantitatively, conduct industry analyses, make information system recommendations, design digital products, and analyze companies; and
- **Professional Competencies** including skills in effective team work, written communication, and oral communication.
HOW DOES THE COB DO THIS?
Through testing, rubrics, and assignments, a team of faculty identifies strengths and weaknesses in students’ knowledge and skills. The College of Business improves the curriculum and the student learning experience using the results. The cycle of measurement and continuous improvement assures that College of Business students are acquiring knowledge and developing skills necessary for success.

WHAT IS CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT?
AACSB Accreditation requires continuous improvement from the College of Business; we are proud to successfully meet in this challenge. Year after year, the College of Business improves:
- Innovations in teaching and research;
- Quality of faculty and students;
- Curriculum content and management;
- Student-faculty interactions;
- Teaching effectiveness; and
- Career resources for students.

WHAT DOES IT ALL MEAN?
The College of Business is committed to continuously improving students’ learning experience in order to better insure that students are achieving learning goals. In the past few years, examples include:
- Improvements to the content of all core courses in the College of Business;
- Improvements to the content, structure, and delivery of the Integrated Business Cluster;
- New courses including Introduction to Business and Business Analytics; and
- New requirements including an internship experience.
Appendix D: Measurement Instrument

Did you know about **AACSB Accreditation** before the presentation?  
Yes  No  
Did you know about **Assurance of Learning** before the presentation?  
Yes  No  

1) How much did the information in this presentation _improve or reinforce your confidence_ in the following aspects of the College of Business?

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<th>Only a Little</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Moderately</th>
<th>A Great Deal</th>
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2) How **important** are the benefits of accreditation and assessment to you as a student?

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3) How much did the information in this presentation **encourage** you to do the following?

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<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Only a Little</th>
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Addressing Reality: A Model for Learner Driven and Standards Based Internships for Educational Leadership Programs

Gregory C. Geer
Coastal Carolina University

Dr. Greg Geer is an associate professor in the Spadoni College of Education’s M.Ed. program in Educational Leadership. For the eight year, Dr. Geer served as the Superintendent of the Byron-Bergen school district in upstate New York. Dr. Geer holds a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies from the University at Albany, a Master of Arts in Economics from Syracuse University, and received his Bachelor of Arts from SUNY at Potsdam. Dr. Geer has published on the use of technology in education, school crisis management, and total quality management in education.

Abstract
In many professions field experiences apply classroom learning to real-life situations with the oversight of a mentor. For most students becoming qualified to be school building administrators internships are part of field experiences. This component of the educational process for educational leadership has come under criticism (Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Elmore, 2005; Levine, 2005; Southern Regional Education Board, 2005; Illinois State Board of Education, 2006; Murphy, 2006). This article describes the process a professor took when charged with the responsibility of designing and implementing the internship experience for a new Master’s degree program in educational leadership.
Based upon literature criticizing education leadership programs, their internships, and the author’s research and experience, a more flexible, site and intern specific internship model was designed and implemented. The author provides a conceptual framework employing heautogogical principles that internship designers can readily adapt for their own use. Data and comments from both the site supervisors (school principals) and interns are presented. Unexpected positive outcomes for interns and the schools they serve are discussed.
Addressing Social Justice Education through Children’s Literature in Early Childhood

Young Mi Chang  
*Ohio Dominican University*

Matthew Conley  
*Ohio Dominican University*

Young Mi Chang is an associate professor of education. Dr. Chang's research interests include: diversity education utilizing Universal Design for Learning; the integration of technology in education; service learning in teacher education; and social pretend play in early childhood. She holds a Ph.D. in Curriculum and Instruction from Purdue University. Prior to teaching at the college level, Dr. Chang taught in various early childhood (PreK-3) educational settings. Her recent publication includes, "Teachers’ Perspectives: Making Sense of Ethnic Nationalism, Ethnic Identity and Multicultural Education in South Korea" in the International Journal of Education.

Matthew Conley is an Associate Professor of Education at Ohio Dominican University. He holds a Ph.D. from The Ohio State University in Education, Teaching and Learning. His research interests include emergent literacy practice, assessment, and diversity and equity issues in the preparation of teachers. Prior to his work in higher education, he taught at the elementary and middle school level.

Abstract

This presentation focuses on early childhood education and the creation of curriculum that promotes social action skills through children’s literature. Educators are
challenged to find ways to develop age-appropriate curriculum that informs and expands young children’s pre-existing ideas and abilities related to difference and social activism. Introducing young children to literature that addresses diversity and names social inequality is one way to address this challenge. A review of literature suggests that children need to develop resiliency skills when incorporating new perspectives if they are to assimilate notions of fairness and justice into their thinking. Attributes of resilient children include social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose and future. Promoting social action skills through children’s literature has the potential to foster greater resiliency in young children.

Early childhood curriculum evolves around children themselves and their immediate contexts, which oftentimes limits their view of the social world and awareness of social problems. Literature has the potential to connect with children emotionally and make seemingly abstract topics relevant. Furthermore, social studies content standards address 21st century skills of civic literacy, economic literacy, and global awareness. Research suggests that learning about the concept of social action should be integrated into the curriculum at every level, infusing the language arts and social studies classroom. Through content analysis, our research has resulted in various themes and trends in recently published, social justice-oriented children’s literature. We will share children’s literature that exemplify these themes and categories with participants.
African American Parents’ and Students’ Perceptions Regarding Enrollment in a Life Skills Focused Mentoring Program

Stephen R. Marvin  
Freed-Hardeman University

Sharalyn M. Payne  
Push Partner.com

Dr. Stephen Marvin is an Associate Professor of Graduate Education in the College of Education and Behavioral Sciences for Freed-Hardeman University in Henderson, Tennessee. Dr. Marvin’s current responsibilities include teaching graduate education course in both traditional and online formats, advising graduate students, and serving as a dissertation chair for several doctoral students. Prior to his current duties, Dr. Marvin served as an Assistant Dean and Associate Professor for Union University, an adjunct professor for the University of Memphis and Lipscomb University, and a Business Technology teacher for Cordova High School in Cordova, Tennessee. Dr. Marvin resides in Arlington, Tennessee with his amazing wife and two sons.

Abstract

Purpose:
The purpose of this study was to examine parents’ and students’ perspectives related to enrollment in a life skills mentoring program targeted toward African American
students. The primary objective was to gain a better understanding of the motivating factors influencing participation in the mentoring program.

Conceptual Framework:
Linkages have been made indicating that students who participate in after-school programs or mentoring programs may experience gains in standardized assessment scores, grade point averages, and mental and social development (After-School Alliance, 2008).

The achievement gap is the term used to define the divide, which typically exists between minority students and their White peers (Haycock, 2001). The gap is evident in standardized test scores as well as high school graduation rates. As noted by the National Education Association (2016), a myth of the achievement gap is that the gap is the sole responsibility of the school system to close. The challenge with this myth is that schools alone do not solely contribute to the gap (Barton, 2005; Raffo et al., 2009).

For youth to succeed, they need adults in their lives whom are caring and consistent. Unfortunately, many youth do not have a caring, dependable, or consistent adult in their lives. As a result, an increasing need for mentors has occurred (Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 2000). According to Jucovy and Garringer (2008), mentors are individuals who volunteer to provide students with the guidance and support needed.

Mentoring is one means that can be used to improve the academic, behavioral, or social success of the mentees (MENTOR, 2009). According to MENTOR, a national organization, “at-risk youth” with mentors are: 55% more likely to enroll in a higher education institution, 78% more likely to volunteer consistently, and 130% more likely to hold a position of leadership.
The achievement gap between African American students and their White peers may be reduced by the implementation of various solutions. College readiness and preparation programs serve to equip students with the knowledge needed to enroll and graduate from higher educational institutions (White House, 2016). While a substantiated amount of research documented on the achievement gap is readily available, limited research on mentoring programs specifically targeted towards African American students has been conducted. By researching factors that influence enrollment of African American youth into mentoring programs, information may be obtained that could provide stakeholders with information to help decrease the achievement gap and empower youth to succeed outside the academic environment in key academic and life skills areas.

Methods:
In this qualitative research study, semi-structured interviews were conducted to provide an analysis of the data gathered from student and parent study participants. Purposeful, homogeneous sampling resulted in 22 individual interviews of enrolled and non-enrolled students and their parents. By employing a qualitative study approach, the researchers were able to ascertain data rich content captured through the expressed language of each interview participant. The qualitative research methodology (i.e., grounded theory) employed the researchers coding, auditing, and analyzing the data collected from the individual interviews. Data triangulation occurred through the analysis of student perceptions, parent perceptions, and the mentoring program’s marketing materials. During the analysis process, common themes and associated constructs emerged. Emerging themes were cross-referenced with themes found in the review of literature.
Results and Conclusions:
Data revealed the following factors influencing student enrollment: (a) opportunities to grow personally, (b) program structure, (c) personal decisions, and (d) the influence of a third-party. Students who chose not to enroll noted (e) conflicting priorities as preventing their enrollment. Enrollment factors perceived by all parents were (a) opportunities for their child to grow personally, (b) structure of the program, (c) support, guidance, and encouragement, and (d) success strategies. Enrollment factors unique to those parents electing to not enroll their child included (e) conflicting priorities, and (f) logistics.
Best Practices for Developing Pre-Service Teachers’ Cultural Competence

Joanna Greer Koch
North Carolina State University

Dr. Joanna Greer Koch is a Teaching Assistant Professor in the College of Education at NC State University. Additionally, Dr. Koch serves as the English as a Second Language (ESL) Program Coordinator for the Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) program. Her scholarly interests include multicultural education, social studies, English as an additional language, and international education. She teaches multiple undergraduate and graduate level education courses at NC State University. Dr. Koch has a Bachelor’s degree from James Madison University, a Master’s degree from Columbia University, Teachers College, as well as a Doctoral degree from the University of Georgia.

Abstract

The purpose of this presentation is to share best practices for developing pre-service teachers’ cultural competence within undergraduate and graduate level education programs. The issue is that too often pre-service teachers are only enrolled in a single diversity course and have minimal opportunities to actually develop their cultural competence through learning activities, community-based experiences, and international teaching opportunities. The rationale behind discussing this issue centers on the reality that teachers must be prepared to teach in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. Therefore, this presentation will discuss this issue by drawing on data and insights from a review of the scholarly literature and sharing qualitative
research from ethnographic field site visits. The findings from this study suggest that pre-service teachers need multifaceted best practices within their entire education program that includes multicultural course readings, diverse learning activities, community-based experiences, and international teaching opportunities. The results from this research study demonstrated that when best practices were implemented, participating pre-service teachers had more academic and emotional success with their students, teaching colleagues, and students’ families. Furthermore, the pre-service teachers became more culturally conscious and sensitive when teaching in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. Specifically, the pre-service teachers understood the responsibility of learning about their future students’ culture and using the students’ culture as a foundation of learning in K-12 classrooms. Overall, the impact of this presentation includes demonstrating best practices that higher education institutions can implement economically and conveniently within their teacher education programs in order to cultivate their pre-service teachers’ cultural competence.
Building a Pathway for Project-Based Learning through Professional Development for Teachers

Virginia McCormack
Ohio Dominican University

Dr. Virginia McCormack is a Professor of Education. She holds a B.S. in Education from St. Bonaventure University; an M.S. in Educational Administration from the University of Dayton; and an Ed. D. from Nova Southeastern University. Dr. McCormack has served as chair of Ohio Dominican University’s Education Division and Director of the M.Ed. program. Dr. McCormack is a licensed P-12 classroom teacher and administrator with experiences in early and middle childhood, special education, and secondary classrooms in rural, suburban, and urban locations. Dr. McCormack had received multiple grants and her research interests are teacher education, professional development, technology, and literacy.

Abstract
This case study highlights a potential means to building a pathway through sustained teacher participation in professional development. Professional development is vital for the advancement of teacher content knowledge, self-certitude and improving instruction strategies. The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of the professional development learning where teachers gained project-based learning knowledge and strategies in order to integrate project-based learning into their diverse classrooms. The professional development learning activities for teachers provided an opportunity for teachers to build a learning community for support, engage in a variety of learning tasks, develop new project-based assessment tools linked to district
standards, and create shareable resource banks. The case study method was utilized to collect and analyze data. The online survey questions allowed for broad aspects to be explored, was flexible, and well suited to the educational setting. An examination of data revealed that the professional development learning activities utilized throughout the professional development allowed for a clear articulation of the designed projects into the curriculum and provided guidance for possible changes in the course of study as more project based learning was developed and utilized in the curriculum. The results suggested important implications of how teacher professional development could impact the application of project-based learning instruction for diverse learners and the advantages of project-based learning on instructional methods.
Cooperative Learning: A Systematic Investigation of Two Group-Based Approaches to Teaching Assessment in Early Childhood Education

Joseph A. Mayo  
Gordon State College

Joseph A. Mayo earned bachelor’s degrees in psychology and political science from Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania and master’s and doctoral degrees in educational psychology from West Virginia University. He is a professor of psychology at Gordon State College in Barnesville, Georgia, where he has served in administrative and teaching faculty posts since 1989. He has authored books, book chapters, and peer-reviewed journal articles on constructivist pedagogical applications. His scholarship of teaching and learning has received excellence awards at the state level through the University System of Georgia and at the national level through Division 2 of the American Psychological Association.

Abstract

I will present the instructional methodology and results of a follow-up to a prior exploratory investigation of cooperative learning in teaching assessment in early childhood education. In the follow-up study, I systematically compared and contrasted the pedagogical efficacy of two variants of cooperative learning and a more conventional rote-learning assignment. In one cooperative learning condition, students reprised the simulated classroom practice evidenced in the Cooperative Assessment Portfolio (CAP) assignment used in the previous study. In the other cooperative
learning condition, students completed a Cooperative Assessment Case Analysis (CACA) assignment with distinguishing features of case-based learning. The combined results of objective testing of students’ academic performance and students' surveyed perceptions favored both CAP and CACA over rote learning. Additionally, students in the CAP group outperformed those in the CACA group on all quantitative and qualitative measures. I will discuss the overall findings in the context of social constructivist pedagogy and future directions for research.

I. Introduction
Recent decades have witnessed an increase in active-learning pedagogies in college classrooms (Fink, 2004). Cooperative learning continues to hold a prominent place in this changing classroom landscape (e.g., Davidson & Major, 2014; Love, Dietrich, Fitzgerald, & Gordon, 2014). Among the most researched of all topics in the teaching literature, a significant body of evidence supports cooperative learning as a means for students to optimize their own learning while facilitating the academic performance of their classmates (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 2008). As a structured application of collaborative learning, the merits of cooperative learning at the college level can be classified under two broad categories: academic and socioemotional (Jones & Jones, 2008). More specifically, cooperative learning encourages higher-order reasoning, goal-setting, idea-generation, group-to-individual learning transfer, promotive interaction, positive interdependence, and interpersonal competence (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2014; Mayo, 2010; Williams, 2007).

Cooperative learning has longstanding theoretical roots within the constructivist tradition. Social interdependence theory derives from the confluence of Kurt Koffka’s
(1935/1999), Kurt Lewin’s (1935, 1948), and Morton Deutsch’s (1949) shared recognition of groups as dynamic initiators of varying levels of interdependence among individual group members. Lev Vygotsky (1962/1986) built upon this perspective with his sociocultural theory of development. According to Vygotsky, there is an interplay between cognitive processes and social activities such that social interaction becomes essential to active knowledge construction on an intrapersonal level. In practice, cooperative learning brings together the basic elements of these theoretical stances. Groups of students work together to learn, while each individual becomes personally accountable for his or her own learning within the group context (Brame & Biel, 2015).

II. Background and Purpose of the Present Study

In a prior exploratory investigation, I asked groups of students to complete an end-of-semester project, called the Cooperative Assessment Portfolio, in junior-level assessment classes for early childhood education (ECE) majors (Mayo, 2013). The study focused on the extent to which this assignment served as a formative learning tool for ECE candidates in successfully designing teacher-developed strategies for assessing the learning of young children. Student performance on the assignment demonstrated assessment proficiency as applied to simulated classroom practice. Moreover, students’ surveyed perceptions toward completing the assignment pointed to its effectiveness in facilitating mastery of academic content while fostering productive group interaction.

The purpose of the current study is to compare the pedagogical efficacy of the Cooperative Assessment Portfolio with that of another group-based assignment (Cooperative Assessment Case Analysis) that relies on elements of case-based learning (CBL). CBL typically incorporates collaborative learning processes that permit students to solve problems and reflect on their experiences (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). The primary purpose of CBL is to teach students to apply theoretical knowledge (Ching, 2014). The
manner in which CBL accomplishes these intersecting educational aims can be summarized as follows:

[CBL] provides generative contexts for prospective and certified teachers to work together in small collaborative groups. Together, they analyze problems, discuss options, and make informed decisions to solve problems based on authentic teaching situations with real, multifaceted challenges (DeSimone, 2014, p. 17).

In spite of CBL’s widespread use in teacher education, there has been relatively little published research on instructional methodologies or outcomes related directly to teacher preparation (Goeke, 2008). The present study aims to add to this area of research. It also seeks to make an original contribution to the teacher education literature through systematic comparison of two cooperative-learning assignments in the framework of teaching ECE assessment.

III. Method
A. Participants

Participants were 140 ECE baccalaureate candidates enrolled in six equivalent-enrolled sections of a junior-level course in ECE assessment for which I served as instructor of record. Classes, which were taught at a public state college in the southeastern United States, occurred in an accelerated four-week summer semester (two hours of instruction per day, five days a week). Two class sections were offered in each of three consecutive summer terms.

The participant pool consisted of 90% female. The racial demographic was 83% Caucasian, 14% African-American, and 3% multiracial. Participants ranged in age from 20 to 43 years (M = 24.76). More than half of participants were first-generation undergraduates, and roughly three quarters held a full- or part-time job while enrolled
in the course. All participants had completed two semesters of classroom field experience in pre-kindergarten through fifth grade before taking the course.

B. Design

I used a multilevel, three-group, quasi-experimental design in which intact classes were randomly assigned, on a semester-by-semester basis, to one of three conditions. In a baseline-comparison condition (Control), 44 students completed the course in the initial summer of the study with a rote-learning, term-length project requirement. In another condition that took place over the second summer of the study, 50 students completed the Cooperative Assessment Portfolio (CAP) in fulfillment of their term-length project requirement. In the final condition, 46 students completed the Cooperative Assessment Case Analyses (CACA) as their term-length project in the third summer of the investigation. There were no appreciable differences among these three groups on the basis of age, gender, or GPA. Additionally, I held course content, testing format, and other relevant instructional variables constant across conditions.

C. Course

Along with coverage of important assessment-related topics (e.g., comprehending theories embedded in assessment practices, test validity and reliability, interpreting standardized test scores, and applying proper test-preparation practices toward standardized testing), the learning objectives of the course focused principally on the study of appropriate teacher-developed strategies for assessing the learning of young children from pre-kindergarten through grade five. This primary focus included deciding accurately what to assess and how to assess it, with emphasis on the cognitive domain of the revised version of Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives (Krathwohl, 2002). It also encompassed the detection and prevention of bias when
assessing children with special needs and children from culturally and linguistically different backgrounds.

I administered an initial unit exam at midterm in each of the three conditions. This exam contained 50 conceptually applied multiple-choice questions from the non-principal focal areas of the course. At the conclusion of the semester, I administered a second unit exam to students in each condition that served as the dependent measure for comparative statistical testing. This second exam consisted of 50 multiple-choice questions pertaining to the aforementioned chief focal points of the course. In order to minimize the possibility of experimenter effects in composing the second exam, I selected 50 multiple-choice questions from conceptually based test-bank items.

Consistent with considerations surrounding both test security and alternate-form test reliability, I matched questions on both content and level of difficulty in the process of selecting items for inclusion on six different-but-comparable exam versions (one for each of the six participating class sections).

D. Instructional Procedures

Control Condition. In the Control condition, the first three weeks of the semester consisted of in-depth classroom instruction over the entire gamut of assessment topics (both principal and non-principal focal points) described previously in this paper. In the last week of the semester, I allotted class time for individual students to complete an assignment with prominent characteristics of rote learning. Students were asked to write detailed descriptions of what they had learned about each of the following teacher-developed assessment strategies: selected response (true-false, multiple binary-choice, multiple choice, and matching); constructed response (short answer and essay); performance assessment (concept mapping, case-study analysis, analogical reasoning, and autobiographical and biographical journaling); and portfolio assessment. I also
asked students to write what they had learned about the cognitive domain of Bloom’s taxonomy and absence-of-bias in assessment. I graded these written assignments on the joint bases of completeness and accuracy. Altogether, they counted for one third of the final course grade.

CAP Condition. The initial three weeks of the semester in the CAP condition included the same classroom instruction as had taken place in the Control condition. Throughout the final week of the semester, students worked in class within pre-assigned groups of four or five individuals to complete the Cooperative Assessment Portfolio assignment with slight modifications from the version used in my previous preliminary investigation (Mayo, 2013). Modifications, which included eliminating affective assessment and placing greater emphasis on absence-of-bias in assessment, were predicated largely on instructive student feedback from prior summative course evaluations. Once assigned to their corresponding groups, students met preliminarily to select individuals to serve in the flexible and rotating capacities of facilitator, recorder, and other defined roles.

In completing this assignment, I asked each group to identify upfront Bloom’s sequential knowledge dimensions (factual, procedural, conceptual, and metacognitive knowledge) and cognitive-process dimensions (remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating) inherent in each behaviorally stated content standard addressed within its portfolio. In addition, I asked each group to be mindful of the importance of absence-of-bias in assessment while completing the assignment.

Each group selected the grade level(s), subject area(s), and specific topic(s) to incorporate into its portfolio. Each group also established a collaborative division of labor in which each member was exposed to a representative sampling of each assessment strategy as outlined below:
1. selected-response assessment [20 binary-choice (true-false) items; 10 multiple binary-choice items in two sets of 5; 20 multiple-choice items; and 10 matching questions in two sets of 5]
2. constructed-response assessment (20 short-answer items and two different essay items with an accompanying analytic scoring rubric for each)
3. performance assessment (one concept map, case-study analysis, analogical reasoning project, and autobiographical and/or biographical journaling assignment, with a concomitant analytic scoring rubric for each assignment)
4. portfolio assessment (five hypothetical work samples related to targeted skills and/or knowledge for students to master, along with a single analytic rubric on which all work samples could be scored)

Students composed answer keys for all selected-response and short-answer constructed-response items. For the constructed-response essays, performance, and portfolio assessment items, students designed prototypical responses upon which they based their associated scoring rubrics.

Along with demonstrated mastery of each assessment strategy, the evaluative criteria for scoring each group’s assignment included an applied understanding of Bloom’s taxonomy and absence-of-bias in assessment plus evidence of a collaborative division of labor. I rated students on all evaluative criteria except for collaborative division of labor, which was reserved solely for students in corresponding groups to evaluate. On the division-of-labor score, students in each group rated one another in terms of individual contributions to the group (e.g., effort, cooperation, and dedication to team work), with the group’s average per student used for individual scoring purposes. Peer ratings occurred on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = unsatisfactory to 5 = exceptional. I afforded
additional opportunity for students to offer their evaluative comments. I kept all peer ratings anonymous to other students.

Similar to the rote-learning assignments in the Control condition, the CAP assignment counted for one third of the final course average. In calculating each student’s grade for this assignment, I weighted all of the following eight evaluative criteria equally in calculating the cumulative grade for each student: (1) Bloom’s knowledge and cognitive-process dimensions per content standard; (2) absence-of-bias in assessment; (3) average within-group peer rating per respective student; (4) selected-response assessment; (5) constructed-response assessment (short answer); (6) constructed-response assessment (essay); (7) performance assessment; and (8) portfolio assessment.

In assigning grades for each evaluative criterion, I relied on a numerical-rating system with similar anchors as the students’ peer ratings (1 = unsatisfactory to 5 = exceptional). I collapsed all evaluative criteria onto a grading summary sheet, which also included space for a concise synopsis of my evaluative comments and a scheme for converting rubric point-totals to grade-level percentages. I distributed and reviewed the content of this summary sheet during the first class meeting. Once grading was completed, I returned these sheets to respective students at the end of the semester.

CACA Condition. The first three weeks of the semester in the CACA condition involved the same classroom instruction as occurring in both the Control and CAP conditions. Consistent with the CAP condition, students worked in class during the final week of the semester—in pre-assigned groups of four or five—to complete the Cooperative Assessment Case Analysis. As in the CAP condition, students in the CACA condition met briefly after group assignments to choose individuals to act in various flexible and rotating roles within each group.
In the CACA condition, I asked each group to write critiques of a series of fictitious reference cases that reflected all of the assessment strategies canvassed in the Control and CAP assignments. In all, there were 100 cases presented to students across each of the relevant assessment strategies as follows: 40 selected response, 10 constructed response (short answer), 10 constructed response (essay), 30 performance, and 10 portfolio. In completing the CACA assignment, I also required students to address the same considerations as those observed in the Control and CAP conditions, including Bloom’s knowledge and cognitive-process dimensions, absence-of-bias in assessment, and a collaborative division of labor within each group (applicable to the CAP condition only).

I designed all cases as narrative experiential-learning exercises based on teacher-developed assessment information covered in the course. Cases originated from two sources. The first source involved my own instructor-created cases that integrated various types of errors in assessment practice. The second source derived from appropriately referenced adaptations of case scenarios appearing as applied assessment exercises within leading textbooks, workbooks, and other publications within the realm of educational assessment. In some situations, these cases already incorporated one or more errors that students could identify and discuss in their CACA assignments. In other instances, assessment blunders were not present. In either event, I modified case content—ranging from moderately for error-inclusive cases to extensively for correct case applications—such that errors of omission and/or commission were introduced. A simple, illustrative example of a constructed-response (short-answer, fill-in-the-blank) item targeted for use with second-graders appears below. This language-arts item—which includes in italics a brief discussion of the accompanying assessment error—is
adapted from the extended-applications exercises appearing at the conclusion of Popham’s (2014) textbook.

These letters are all vowels: A, E, O, and U. What is the one missing vowel? ____

(Although the most obvious correct answer is “I,” “Y” and “W” are occasionally accepted as vowels. Therefore, this item violates one of the basic premises of developing sound short-answer items, namely, the intended correct response must be unique.)

I used the same rating scales and procedures in the CACA condition that had been used in the CAP condition. Also, I incorporated all evaluative information into the same grading summary sheet that had been utilized in the CAP condition. Once again, I distributed and reviewed this grading sheet at the start of the semester and then returned it to students after I had completed grading at the semester’s conclusion. As with the CAP assignment, the CACA assignment was worth one third of the final course average.

IV. Results
A. Comparative Statistical Testing

As described earlier in this paper, the dependent measure is students’ scores on the end-of-semester unit exam that addressed material related to the major content concentrations in the course (teacher-developed assessment in conjunction with Bloom’s taxonomy of the cognitive domain and absence of bias in assessment). The means and standard deviations for student scores in each condition are Control (M = 76.01, SD = 12.97), CACA (M = 80.92, SD = 10.36), and CAP (M = 84.88, SD = 8.65).

I used an independent-groups analyses of variance to compare student performance on the dependent measure across the three conditions. The results are F (2, 137) = 8.02, p < .001, indicating that there were some significant differences between means.
Following the one-way ANOVA calculation, I applied independent-samples t-tests to three different pairs of means (Control versus CACA, Control versus CAP, and CACA versus CAP) to discover which means differed. The resultant t values obtained through these post hoc analyses are Control versus CACA t (88) = 1.99, p < .05; Control versus CAP t (92) = 3.94, p < .001; and CACA versus CAP t (94) = 2.04, p < .05. Students in both the CACA and CAP conditions significantly outperformed those in the Control who completed the rote-learning assignment. Additionally, a statistically significant difference was observed in favor of CAP over CACA.

B. Questionnaire Data

I gauged students’ perceptions of completing the corresponding assignments in the Control, CACA, and CAP conditions with an anonymous 10-item questionnaire that combined a 5-point Likert rating scale (not at all effective = 1 to highly effective = 5) with several questions about respective assignments to which students responded narratively. I asked students to numerically rate the experience of completing each corresponding assignment in terms of how effectively it: (1) encouraged thinking outside the classroom; (2) fostered participation in learning; (3) increased practical relevance of information; (4) facilitated understanding of course content; (5) increased motivation to learn; (6) promoted intellectual challenge; (7) stimulated interest in the subject matter; (8) distinguished between varied forms of assessment; (9) helped in recognizing the importance of absence-of-bias in assessment; and (10) afforded application of the cognitive domain of Bloom’s taxonomy. I also asked students to comment on what they liked best and least about the assignment in question. Moreover, I asked them to indicate if they would recommend that assignment to other students. Questionnaire results are shown below in Table 1.
Table 1: Students’ Numerical Ratings of the Rote-Learning (Control), Cooperative Assessment Case Analysis (CACA), and Cooperative Assessment Portfolio (CAP) Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Control (n = 44)</th>
<th>CACA (n = 46)</th>
<th>CAP (n = 50)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking beyond the classroom</td>
<td>3.02 (.69)</td>
<td>3.83 (.70)</td>
<td>4.72 (.61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fostering participation in learning</td>
<td>2.75 (.88)</td>
<td>3.66 (.48)</td>
<td>4.58 (.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing practical relevance of information</td>
<td>2.53 (1.01)</td>
<td>3.74 (.62)</td>
<td>4.88 (.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitating understanding of course content</td>
<td>3.49 (.64)</td>
<td>4.01 (.51)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing motivation to learn</td>
<td>2.68 (.72)</td>
<td>3.45 (.51)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting intellectual challenge</td>
<td>2.59 (.78)</td>
<td>3.62 (.53)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Stimulating interest in the subject matter 2.43  .93  3.36  .75
   4.31  .49
8. Distinguishing between varied assessments 3.18  .58  3.71  .43
   4.67  .63

9. Recognizing the importance of absence-of-bias 2.77  .66  3.80  .72  4.39
   .58

10. Applying Bloom’s taxonomy (cognitive domain) 2.63  .81  3.55  .68  4.78
    .42

Students’ numerical ratings coincide with the results of objective statistical testing.
Students in the Control condition had an overall negative perception of the rote-
learning assignment. In all instances, students perceived the CACA considerably more
favorably than the rote-learning assignment. Moreover, students strongly preferred the
CAP assignment over both the CACA and Control assignments across all questionnaire
measures.
Students’ narrative comments are consistent with their numerical ratings. Very few
students in the Control condition expressed positive comments about the rote-learning
assignment. In fact, many indicated that they learn best through more active learning
experiences, and did not view the rote-learning assignment as helpful in this regard.
Not surprisingly in light of this finding, slightly over 80% of respondents would not
recommend this Control assignment to other students. Although approximately 60% of
respondents in the CACA condition commented about the case-analysis assignment’s general utility in bolstering understanding of the targeted course content, only about half that number said that they would recommend it to others. In contrast, more than 90% of respondents in the CAP condition asserted that they would recommend the portfolio assignment to other students. In response to what students liked best about the CAP assignment, the vast majority stated that it provided them with valuable hands-on experience that would later benefit them in their future teaching responsibilities. Many of these respondents also remarked that they never realized how much time and energy went into creating good teacher-developed assessments. Not unexpectedly, the major criticism for all assignments was the perceived workload associated with their completion. This criticism was voiced most often by students in the CAP condition; however, many of these same respondents qualified their concern by noting that the end product was both personally gratifying and worth the concerted effort.

V. Discussion

Viewed together, the results of both objective testing and the student attitudinal questionnaire show that students favored both cooperative learning approaches over the assignment in the Control condition within the broad context of understanding and applying varied types of teacher-developed assessments. The comparative shortfalls of the Control assignment might be attributed to the absence of a collaborative learning component, along with the fact that it is a less active learning experience that leads to more surface thinking and reliance on rote memory than careful reflection and deeper understanding of course content (Jeffries, 2005). Despite the overall success of cooperative learning in the present investigation, tangible differences were still observed between the two cooperative-learning conditions. The present results show
that the CACA assignment did not compare favorably to the CAP counterpart on the joint measures of comparative statistical testing and analysis of surveyed attitudinal data. The core reason why this occurred might relate to fundamental differences in the underlying foundations of these two types of cooperative learning.

The CACA and CAP assignments are variant forms of social constructivist pedagogy (Mayo, 2010) that encourage small groups of students to work together to create shared understanding. In these types of assignments, students collaborate to produce, not reproduce knowledge (Millis, 2002). The CACA assignment aligns with the longstanding tradition of using case-based learning in numerous undergraduate disciplines as a means of linking knowledge and practice through developing students’ critical thinking and applied reasoning skills. (e.g., Allchin, 2013; Floyd & Bodur, 2005; Heitzmann, 2008; Kaddoura, 2011; Mayo, 2002, 2004; Pariseau & Kezim, 2007). Both the CACA and the CAP assignments qualify as problem-centered approaches that advocate for authentic applications of course content in the framework of active and interactive learning. Yet these assignments take differing routes to these educational outcomes. The CACA assignment uses case studies to introduce practical examples and analogous contexts for analysis, critique, and vicarious learning and practice in professional decision-making. On the other hand, the CAP assignment relies on actual simulated classroom practice that offers students ample opportunities to create their own assessments to demonstrate applied understanding of sound principles of test construction. Of the two approaches, then, the CAP is more inherently active in practice. This conclusion is not only supported by related pedagogical findings in other academic disciplines (e.g., Jeffries, 2005), but it also upheld in the present study by students’ perceptions of the CAP assignment as fostering demonstrably greater participation in learning than the CACA assignment (see Table 1).
Overall, the results of the present study validate the merits of cooperative learning in ECE assessment instruction that emphasizes simulated classroom practice as a vehicle for promoting what Hmelo and Guzdial (1996) described more than two decades ago as knowledge-building-for-action. Additional research, involving assignments similar in nature but perhaps different in scope to the term-length CAP assignment, might show if these findings also apply to assessment instruction in middle grades or secondary education programs. Another potentially inviting direction for future research on pre-service students’ assessment instruction might involve a systematic examination of the pedagogical efficacy of a hybrid cooperative-learning approach that integrates key elements of both the CAP and CACA assignments from the current investigation. As a proposed example, students might begin with carefully planned case analyses as a way to scaffold learning experiences (see Hmelo & Guzdial, 1996) in preparation for later simulated classroom practice.

References


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Critical Thinking& Student Engagement: Best Practices

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Abstract

Higher education institutions continue to be under public scrutiny as our constituents’ question whether educational promises are being kept. Beginning at the course level,
institutions can ensure their programs have an outcomes assessment program that moves them to achieve and maintain accreditation. Being able to evaluate the effectiveness of a program in terms of how well students are prepared, begins at the course level. This article will present a five-step process, built upon existing theory and best practice, which will provide educators with a useful means in which to move their courses, in any discipline, toward one that inspires and encourages the development of critical thinking skills with emphasis on high-impact activities. Higher education institutions can then begin to compare results between courses, between online and face-to-face courses, between educators, between programs, and/or compare to external results as evidence of meeting accreditation standards. The challenges of the 21st century demand that educators seek out and utilize new methods to enhance the education of students and to measure student learning and performance. Teaching will not be transformed simply because we philosophically believe in the value of critical thinking. Educators must find practical ways to bring it into instruction, both structurally and tactically.

Keywords: education, teaching excellence, critical thinking, assessment, accreditation

Critical Thinking & Student Engagement:

Best Practices

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Literature Review
Americans often believe that the United States has the finest colleges and universities in the world; however, that belief is being challenged by the many examples of deficiencies in instruction, rigor, and overall student success (Alexander, n.d.). According to Roska and Arum (2011), students have not made many advances in critical thinking. In fact, their research indicated that 45% of students did not demonstrate any significant improvement in learning during the first two years; and 36% did not demonstrate any improvement over all four years.

The results of surveys conducted by the Chronicle of Higher Education (Supiano, 2013) and by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (2013 Press Release), found that American adults and employers want colleges to produce graduates who can think critically and creatively, and can communicate orally and in writing (Desai,
Berer, & Higgs, 2016). Additionally, the AACSB (an international accreditation body for business schools), is calling for business majors to be critical thinkers. Lifelong employability requires knowledge, the ability to apply that knowledge in multidisciplinary, team-oriented, and dynamic environments, and lifelong learning (Bedrow & Evers, 2011). The directive for lifelong learning calls for a different mindset, one that embraces reflection and self-learning. Educators must effectively prepare students as lifelong learners to ensure a seamless transition to work environments (Bedrow & Evers, 2011). Evidence is mounting that “knowing” is not enough. Being able to apply that knowledge to analysis, decision making, and problem solving within team-based, complex environments is essential for success (Bedrow & Evers, 2011).

Many college and university mission statements have made critical thinking their central focus; so much so that the term “critical thinking” could be considered synonymous with “higher education” (Schlueter, 2016). Further, 95% of the chief academic officers surveyed by the Association of American Colleges and Universities indicated that critical thinking was one of the most important learning outcomes expected of their college graduates (AAC&U, 2011). However, Arum and Roksa’s Academically Adrift (2011) illustrated one example of research that has found that college students have made few gains in critical-thinking skills. Unfortunately, working in Higher Education does not guarantee an understanding of critical thinking or the knowledge of how to provide critical thinking opportunities to students. If higher education is going to fulfil their promise of producing critical thinkers, professors in all academic areas must become familiar with the concept of critical thinking and must then begin to explicitly identify ways to teach those skills to students (Schlueter, 2016). In the learner-centered paradigm, educators focus less on transferring factual knowledge to learners and more on developing a learning environment that empowers
learners to construct knowledge for themselves (Webber, 2011). An active learning environment provides opportunities for interaction and involvement around clear objectives (Smart & Csapo, 2007) where educators empower learners to become involved in their learning. Active learning strategies develop more engaged students, with deeper learning and a greater ability to solve problems and think critically (Smart & Csapo, 2007).

Description of the Practice to be Modeled

The authors have developed and propose the following five-step Process for the Development of Higher Level Thinking Skills which can be implemented in virtually any teaching setting (including online) to create a more active learning environment (grounded on objectives) and to move learners toward higher level thinking (based on adequate assessment). The aim is for learners to value the study of the discipline, engage with the content, persist when the work gets difficult, grow from guidance and critique, and connect theory to application and practice.
Figure 1. Process for the Development of Higher Level Thinking Skills

Source: Limbach & Waugh, 2012

**Step 1: Determine Learning Outcomes and Objectives**

Considering the importance of a course, its placement in a program, and its role in providing a base of discipline knowledge, an educator should carefully identify key learning outcomes and objectives that recognize what learners should know when they exit the course. The development of well-written outcomes and objectives will greatly accelerate a learner’s movement into higher level thinking (Ball & Garton, 2005). To make critical thinking happen, these learning outcomes and objectives, as well as the linked activities and assessments, must require students to perform and demonstrate higher level thinking. Thus, an effectively designed course should target a specific behavior (consider using Bloom’s Taxonomy action verbs for critical thinking, see http://www.teachthought.com/learning/249-blooms-taxonomy-verbs-for-critical-
introduce and practice the desired behavior, and end with the learner exhibition of the behavioral response. Additional information for writing learning objectives and measurable outcomes can be found at http://sa-assessment.uoregon.edu/Resources-and-Training/Writing-Student-Learning-Outcomes.

Table 1

*Step 1: Determine Learning Outcomes and Objectives*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lower-level Thinking Skills</th>
<th>Higher-level Thinking Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Remember</strong></td>
<td><strong>Understand</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall or recognition of specific information</td>
<td>Determining the meaning of given information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Apply</strong></td>
<td><strong>Analyze</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using strategies, concepts, principles, and theories in a given situation</td>
<td>Breaking information down into component elements and detecting how the parts relate to one another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluate</strong></td>
<td><strong>Create</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judging the value of ideas, materials and methods by developing and applying standards and criteria</td>
<td>Putting together ideas or elements to develop an original idea/product</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcomes</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definition, Fact, Label, List, Quiz, Reproduction, Test, Workbook, Worksheet</td>
<td>Collection, Examples, Explanation, Outline, Show and tell, Summary</td>
<td>Demonstration, Diary, Illustrations, Interview, Journal, Performance, Presentation, Sculpture, Simulation</td>
<td>Appraise, Breakdown, Discover, Discriminate, Distinguish, Focus, Inspect, Investigate, Isolate, Prioritize, Question, Reason, Research, Separate</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Adapt, Build, Convert, Discover, Discuss, Elaborate, Formulate, Invent, Model, Originate, Revise, Speculate, Transform, Visualize</td>
<td><strong>Learning Objectives</strong></td>
<td><strong>Actions</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Learning Objectives</strong></td>
<td><strong>Learning Objectives</strong></td>
<td><strong>Actions</strong></td>
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<td>Choose, Copy, Define, Duplicate, Listen, Match, Memorize, Recall, Recite, Select, Show, Write</td>
<td>Ask, Cite, Demonstrate, Discuss, Estimate, Express, Generalize, Illustrate, Indicate, Infer, Match, Predict, Relate, Rephrase</td>
<td>Act, Build, Calculate, Choose, Connect, Construct, Develop, Employ, Interpret, Link, Model, Plan, Relate, Select</td>
<td>Abstract, Chart, Checklist, Database, Graph, Mobile, Report, Spreadsheet, Survey</td>
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<td><strong>Actions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Actions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Describe, Find, Identify, List, Locate, Name, Retrieve, Recognize, State</td>
<td>Classify, Compare, Contrast, Exemplify, Explain, Infer, Interpret, Paraphrase, Summarize</td>
<td>Carry out, Contrast, Discover, Execute, Implement, Show, Solve, Use</td>
<td>Attribute, Categorize, Classify, Compare, Deconstruct, Differentiate, Examine, Integrate, Organize, Outline, Structure</td>
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<td>Assess, Check, Detect, Evaluate, Experiment, Hypothesize, Monitor, Recommend, Predict, Test</td>
<td>Combine, Construct, Create, Design, Devise, Invent, Plan, Produce, Role-play, Suppose</td>
<td><strong>Learning Objectives</strong></td>
<td><strong>Actions</strong></td>
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Step 2: Facilitate Learning through High-Impact Activities
To make learning more meaningful, educators should develop high-impact activities. Activities, experiences, or interventions that are focused around clear objectives develop more engaged learners, with deeper learning, and a greater ability to think critically (Smart & Csapo, 2007). For learners to foster understanding and stimulate intellectual growth, they must pose arguments, state opinions, and critique evidence using primary and secondary sources. A “Padagogy” Wheel V4.0 by Carrington at http://tinyurl.com/padwheelposter is a comprehensive online directory of apps for education which identifies 400 Apps by the Blooms cognitive domain categories. The art of interactive discussion begins with establishing what is known and allows the educator to extend beyond to develop new ideas and understandings. Clasen and Bonk (1990) posited that although many strategies exist that can impact learner thinking, educator questions have the greatest impact. They went on to indicate that the level of learner thinking is directly proportional to the level of questions asked. When educators plan, they must consider the purpose of each question and then develop the appropriate level and type of question to accomplish the purpose. Consider direct activities (direct experience with a concept), indirect activities (simulated experience, apply in a related situation), reflection (“think time”), and questioning (interactive discussion) that foster critical thinking. Some examples of “thinking questions” are:

- What evidence can you find…?
- What changes would you recommend…?
- How would you adapt to…?
Additional examples of asking thinking questions to ensure deeper learning are presented at https://notjustanybrickinthewall.wordpress.com/2012/09/15/blooms-taxonomy-a-practical-approach-for-deeper-learning/.
Table 2

**Step 2: Facilitate Learning through High-Impact Activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Remember</th>
<th>Understand</th>
<th>Apply</th>
<th>Analyze</th>
<th>Evaluate</th>
<th>Create</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct Activities</td>
<td>Direct Activities</td>
<td>Direct Activities</td>
<td>Direct Activities</td>
<td>Direct Activities</td>
<td>Direct Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect Activities</td>
<td>Indirect Activities</td>
<td>Indirect Activities</td>
<td>Indirect Activities</td>
<td>Indirect Activities</td>
<td>Indirect Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brainstorming, Google search, Listen-read-discuss, Small group discussion</td>
<td>Buzz group, Mind mapping, Panel discussion, Posing arguments, Social networking, Task group</td>
<td>CAD projects, Gaming simulations, Inquiry learning, Open discovery, Student-lead discussion</td>
<td>Data analysis, Identifying contradictions, Interpreting results, Online simulations, Testing conclusions</td>
<td>Case studies, Online quizzing, Problem solving</td>
<td>Podcasts, Role-playing, Screen casting, Stories, Systematic problem solving, Video Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class discussions, Contracts and logs, Writing blogs</td>
<td>Directed readings, Directed writings, Essays, Forums, Group activities</td>
<td>Class presentations, Experiential research paper, Journaling, Quotes</td>
<td>E-mail discussion groups, Peer Critique, Personal Narrative, Portfolios</td>
<td>Peer editing, Photo essay, Self-evaluation</td>
<td>Community mural, Portfolios, Publications, Service learning projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you find...? Can you explain...? How did...happen? How would you describe...? What is...? When did...? Where is...? Who was...? Why did...?</td>
<td>Can you find...? Can you identify...? Can you list...? How did...happen? How would you describe...? What is...? When did...? Where is...? Who was...? Why did...?</td>
<td>Can you implement...? How would you apply...? How would you develop...? How would you show...? How would you solve...? How would you use...? What links can be made...? What questions would you ask in an interview?</td>
<td>Can you differentiate...? How would you categorize...? How would you discover...? What conclusions can you make...? What evidence can you find...? What is the relationship...? Why do you think...?</td>
<td>Can you predict...? Can you propose an alternative for...? How might you detect...? How would you persuade...? How would you test...? What changes would you recommend...? What ideas justify...?</td>
<td>Can you invent...? Can you think of an original way to...? How would you adapt to...? How would you design...? How would you improve...? What could be done to...? What revision would you make for...? What would happen if...?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Step 3: Allow Frequent Opportunities to Practice before Assessment

Practice is necessary to master any skill; learners must have the opportunity to practice the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors that will be evaluated. Learners become responsible for their own learning when educators create a supportive environment by providing clear expectations (announcements, detailed syllabus, discussions, ice-breakers), monitoring class activities (observations, statistics), and carefully tracking student participation (attendance, use of clickers, digital tracking software, seating charts, teaching diary). Collecting feedback from students about what they have, or have not learned (chain notes, memory matrixes, online surveys, two-minute papers, may present the need to offer opportunities for re-learning (demonstrations, panels, podcasts, reproductions, workbooks) and expose areas in need of improvement (examples of missing links, screen shots). Sample student feedback gathering forms are available at http://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/student-feedback/. Practice improves learning; making the learning more permanent.

Table 3

*Step 3: Allow Frequent Opportunities to Practice before Assessment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Create Supportive Environment</th>
<th>Monitor Class Activities</th>
<th>Track Student Participation</th>
<th>Collect Feedback from Learners</th>
<th>Expose Areas Needing Improvement</th>
<th>Offer Re-learning Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Announcements, Detailed syllabus, Discussion, Ice breakers, Introductions</td>
<td>Number of log-ins/post, Observation, Statistics (participation time)</td>
<td>Attendance, Clickers, Digital tracking software, Seating charts, Teaching diary</td>
<td>Chain notes, Memory matrixes, One-sentence summary, Online surveys, Two-minute paper, Votes</td>
<td>Clarifications, Examples of missing links, Real-world examples, Remediation, Sample works, Screen shots</td>
<td>Demonstration, Game, Panel, Podcast, Quiz/test, Reproduction, Workbook</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Step 4: Continue to Review, Refine, and Improve

Teachers should strive to continually refine their courses to ensure that their instructional techniques are in fact moving learners toward critical thinking. Feedback, like assessment, compares criteria and standards to student performance in an effort to evaluate the quality of work (Ko, 2004). When assessing a course, and prior to providing opportunities to practice what is to be assessed, learners must first understand the standards by which they will be assessed (examples of high quality work, rubrics). Next, learners should be provided with constructive and relevant feedback by the educator and peers, as well as assessing their own performance (guided questioning, self-reflections). Stenger (2014) provided five research-based tips for providing meaningful, timely student feedback.

1. Be as specific as possible
2. The sooner the better
3. Address the learner’s advancement toward a goal
4. Present feedback carefully
5. Involve learners in the process

Learner feedback can then be used to improve instruction (peer and/or supervisor observations, student evaluations of educator effectiveness, self-evaluation) and learner performance (compare value of feedback to standards, document changes and review and modify often).
Table 4

Step 4: Continue to Review, Refine, and Improve

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Feedback</th>
<th>Peer Feedback</th>
<th>Learner Self-Feedback</th>
<th>Improve Instruction</th>
<th>Improve Learner Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Examples of high quality work, Pretest/post-test, Rubrics</td>
<td>Based on grading rubric, Based on observation, Clear expectations, Examples of useful/useless feedback</td>
<td>Based on a scoring guide, Guided questioning, Provide adequate think-time, Self-reflection of knowledge gained (journal)</td>
<td>Peer observer, Student evaluations of instructor effectiveness, Supervisor observer, Teaching expert observer, Videotaping and self-evaluation</td>
<td>Compare value of feedback to standards, Document changes, Keep or modify changes, Periodic review of changes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 5: Assess Learning Outcomes and Objectives

Learner achievement should be measured based on learning objectives, course and program outcomes, and specific discipline knowledge. Assessment data can be collected from the learner (anonymous questionnaires, interviews), through reflection on activities what worked or need improvement, as well as through test results (item analysis, quality standards). This measurement can provide an immediate and significant source of information for the outcomes-based assessment process in evaluating a particular course, departmental program, curriculum, instructional techniques, specific learning activities, and learner achievement. When reviewing the course, educators should pay particular attention to alignment. For some practical assessment strategies (summative and formative) see http://www.cte.cornell.edu/teaching-ideas/assessing-student-learning/measuring-student-learning.html. This step facilitates the continuous review of learning objectives and course outcomes to ensure they are still relevant (compare evidence with standards, ensure measurability, accrediting agency reviews, network with placement services).
Table 5

Step 5: Assess Learning Outcomes and Objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Test Results</th>
<th>Learning Objectives</th>
<th>Relevant Course Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous questionnaires, Learner interviews, Personal conversations</td>
<td>Document activities that worked or need improvement, Gather student feedback, Immediate reflection post activity, Review/compare grades pre-change</td>
<td>Alignment with objectives, Item analysis, Review of highly missed questions, Use quality standards</td>
<td>Compare evidence with standards, Ensure measurability, Set standards to measure against</td>
<td>Accrediting agency reviews, Network with hiring managers, Outside observer reviews, Review current literature, Work with placement services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The successful implementation of the Process for the Development of Higher Level Thinking Skills in any learning environment requires the thoughtful consideration of current instructional techniques and the commitment to embrace changes and differences so as to flourish in an active, high-impact, learner-centered learning environment. Once accomplished at the course level, comparative results can be made between courses, between online and face-to-face courses, between educators, between programs, and/or compared to external results as evidence of meeting accreditation standards. In consideration of implementing this five-step process, you may want to have discussion among your colleagues and address the following six questions posed by Weimer (2018):

1. Does your course contain activities that put students in positions to learn from and with each other?
2. Are students encouraged to discover things for themselves, or does the teacher usually tell them what they should know and do?
3. Is what’s being learned, why it’s being learned, and how it can be learned discussed more often than grades?
4. Do students talk more than the teacher during class discussions?
5. Are skills like critical thinking and problem-solving taught explicitly?
6. Do students regularly comment on evaluations that it was a course where they had to think? Or, was a course where they had to teach themselves (meaning the teacher held them responsible for learning)? (para. 6)

References


Funding for Higher Education:
Georgia as an Example of Crisis in the Academy

Robert E. Waller
Columbus State University

Michael D. Richardson

Abstract
The last decade has seen challenges to higher education funding being reduced by better than 20 percent in many cases along with colleges and universities realizing their endowment funds are at stake due to a stock market that has seen tremendous increases and decreases over the same time period.

Student enrollments have continued to increase during this period with increased Pell Grants and a reduction in the actual costs of attendance due to an increase in the amount of revenue the colleges and universities received from the federal government, but this may not continue due to federal budgetary concerns. Additionally, there has been an unwillingness to increase tuition for several reasons including a fear of losing students due to their not being able to pay the higher rates.

Lastly there are other issues facing these institutions as the infrastructure has been neglected in many cases due to the demands for higher salaries and benefits costs that have escalated steadily over time. The rise of for-profits, other means of taking courses
such as online or projects as edX have also increased pressures on existing institutions of higher learning to examine their fate going forward.

Introduction

Carey (2015) states that higher education had its beginning in colonial America and by the advent of the American Revolution in 1776 there were nine colonial colleges including: Harvard, Yale, William and Mary, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Dartmouth, Kings, Queens, and Philadelphia. The last five institutions later changed their names to: Princeton, Brown, Columbia, Rutgers, and the University of Pennsylvania. They were small in size and employed the continental model where students and faculty members lived in the same buildings. Their goal was not about the creation of knowledge or the distribution of knowledge throughout the state. The goal centered on learning “mental discipline” that focused on learning classical Latin, Greek and being able to recite extensive passages to sharpen their “mental facilities” regardless of whether they would ever engage in reciting those works again. (pp.22-24)

According to Ehrenberg (2012) higher education in America is entering into a transition phase in many arenas including expenditures, faculty makeup and compensation packages, tuition costs for students, the rise of online classes or other forms of technology in the classroom giving rise to nontraditional instructional delivery models, and pedagogical issues. According to the College Board (2015) with adjusting for inflation, the published cost for attending a four-year public college has increased 3.22 times what it was 30 years ago and in public two-year or private non-profit four-year colleges it is 2.4 times what it was in 1985-86. Ordonez (2014) makes the case that competency rather than credit is being explored as an alternative to traditional college courses. The ever-increasing amount of debt student’s graduate with is an additional
concern for college presidents and students alike. Caldwell (2012) explains how for
more than seventy years universities have largely been immune to outside changes but
now are faced with changes that university presidents can no longer ignore calling into
question the basic structure of the institution itself. The conflicts states face between
their established cultural norms and values are under attack by outside forces along
with the rise of technologies promoting the exchange of ideas on a scale that was
unknown in the past. Alstete (2014) adds revenue growth had been slowing based on
current data showing that 29 percent of public institutions and 35 percent of private
colleges and universities did not attain a 2 percent rate of growth in overall revenues in
2011 but did increase their long-term debt.
Archibald and Feldman (2012) divide the history of higher educational funding into
three distinct phases: (1) From the Colonial Period to the early 1960s the cost of higher
education increased rapidly; (2) The late 1960s until 1980 the rate of increase was
negligible or flat; (3) 1981 to the present the rate of increase exceeded the rate of
inflation. The more in-depth explanation for the increases is found in the rise of
technology over the last half century and how it has not had an across the board
reduction in savings for all sectors of the American economy. The problem can be
reduced into three areas: (1) Cost disease, as noted by economists where technology has
reduced the amount of labor needed to produce a given product but in education this
has not been the case, labor intensive service industries still require personnel, (2) Cost
of employing highly educated professionals, this drives up the cost since approximately
70% of colleges and university employees hold a college degree, and lastly (3) Standard
of Care, in order to keep students on the forefront of what is taking place in the outside
world colleges and universities must constantly upgrade the equipment in the
laboratories, online classrooms, computer equipment and other technological areas
even if means constantly replacing equipment where as in the past the tools were basically limited to classrooms, chalkboards, and a professor.

Alstete (2014) goes on to explain how from the earliest parts of the twentieth century many colleges had experienced financial difficulty as the number of children who were enrolled in their institutions increased from sectors of the economy who were not as financially endowed as those previously enrolled there. The enactment of the G. I. Bill of 1944 near the end of World War II and the Veterans Adjustment Act of 1952 for those returning from the Korean conflict provided additional funds for a new class of students who were returning from the war and wanted to get on with their lives. The rise of the cold war and research for national defense which were conducted on university campuses across America also provided large sums of money that offset the rising cost of tuition during that time period. Driscoll, Comm, and Mathaisel (2013) credit Clarke Kerr, who was the former president of the University of California as being instrumental for developing what is known today as the present-day system of higher education in America as the modern research university.

Mathaisel et al. (2013) refers to the period of time from 1999 to 2009 for higher education as being a “lost decade” where there was a surge in students enrolling in institutes of higher education driven by an increased emphasis on advertising, newly created academic programs, and modern buildings and lavish campuses. Jones and Wellman (2010) states from 2009 until now the “Great Recession” created widespread confusion in higher education across America. There were reports of reductions in state funding ranging from 15 to 20 percent in states like California, Virginia, Florida and a host of others.

Caldwell (2012) goes on to cite the rise of the VUCA world (volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous) that universities and university presidents face every day.
The traditional funding sources for higher education that have always been there in the past will be discussed in this paper: (1) federal government grants for research and development (2) state funding for public institutions or land grant colleges derived as a portion of the state general fund budget, (3) student tuition and fees, (4) endowment funds or private gifts from individuals and corporations, all have come under pressure over the last decade due to a variety of reasons that will be discussed in this paper. Erhenberg (2010) adds how many institutions have aging infrastructures that have not been properly maintained or facilities have been added that were poorly planned and have increased costs these infrastructure problems have all added to the uncertainty plaguing colleges and universities.

University presidents and financial officers have been forced to implement a variety of strategies to reduce the effects of the loss of funds or lowering of funding from their traditional sources to meet the mission statements of their respective institutions. Alstete (2014) points out the importance of this based on a 2012 analysis by Bain and Sterling Partners that found out of 1700 colleges and universities both public and private approximately 33 percent were on a path of fiscal insolvency over recent years with an additional 28 percent moving in that direction. (p.9) Jones and Wellman (2010) refer to this as “muddling-through” which has been evidenced by a gradual loss of state dollars for higher education, increased reliance on tuition, largely offset by increased student aid dollars, decreased educational opportunities for low-income or first-generation students and reductions in funding for instruction at colleges and universities. Kelchen (2016) explains how colleges and universities have expanded the usage of fees during this time period to assist with loss of state dollars or caps on tuition based on year of enrollment. The University of Massachusetts has kept tuition (1,714 per year) constant since 2000 but fees according to Kelchen’s calculations have tripled.
Jones and Wellman (2010) go on to explain the difference this time was the focus was not just on finding ways to increase giving or fund raising to off-set losses but to evaluate cost structures and improve efficiency along with effectiveness. The phrase heard on campuses is “the cost model is broken” and going forward there will have to be greater emphasis on fiscal discipline and improved efficiency. The problem has been with higher education is the idea that costs must increase yearly to maintain high quality instruction. This is tied to the non-profit “cost disease” concept which argues that the cost of labor goes up each year and cannot be reduced without a loss of quality. This has changed over the last nine or so years.

The researcher will attempt to examine some of the strategies that have been implemented by the institutions in hopes of offsetting the loss of revenues. Those strategies include but are not limited to: (1) reduction in programs that are not cost effective; (2) increasing class sizes or faculty workload; (3) implementing online degree programs; (4) offering additional degree programs with existing faculty; (5) reducing the number of full time employees or tenure track positions; (6) increased use or adjunct faculty or part-time employees; (7) establishing off shore programs; (8) eliminating benefits or reducing benefits for faculty and staff; (9) generating additional revenues from buildings or grounds during periods of low utilization; (10) eliminating athletic programs or other non-revenue generating student programs; (11) increasing fund raising or private donation solicitation efforts.

Revenue Streams

Colleges and universities depend on four separate income streams to fund operations at their respective institutions those are: (1) federal grants or research projects; (2) state funding allocated from the state general fund yearly; (3) student paid tuition and fees; (4) endowment earnings and or private/corporate donations made
yearly on behalf of benefactors or from stock dividends. Alstete (2014) relying on statistics from the U.S. Department of Education’s National Center for Educational Statistics for fiscal year 2011 as found in Almanac of Higher Education 2013 reported for four year colleges and universities about 19.6 percent of total revenues came from student tuition and fees, additionally 19.3 percent came from state appropriations for higher education, additional revenue streams include: (1) auxiliary services 8.1 percent, (2) independent operations 5.6 percent, (3) gifts 2.3 percent, (4) investment income 3.9 percent and (5) other income 1.9 percent. There will be a discussion of each of them in greater detail in the following sections of the paper.

The following chart was developed from the University System of Georgia for years 2009 through 2017 and attempts to present different categories of funding for the period referred to as the “great recession” with a per student spending component included to illustrate the spending patterns for those years in question. All figures are listed in millions of dollars.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue Category/ # of students</th>
<th>FY 2009 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2010 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2011 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2012 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2013 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2014 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2015 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2016 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2017 FTEs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State Funds</td>
<td>2,020</td>
<td>1,693</td>
<td>1,807</td>
<td>1,702</td>
<td>1,744</td>
<td>1,880</td>
<td>1,942</td>
<td>2,023</td>
<td>2,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grants &amp; Contracts</td>
<td>1,575</td>
<td>1,819</td>
<td>2,007</td>
<td>2,159</td>
<td>2,164</td>
<td>2,119</td>
<td>2,166</td>
<td>2,266</td>
<td>2,381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Tuition &amp; Fees</td>
<td>1,059</td>
<td>1,234</td>
<td>1,408</td>
<td>1,631</td>
<td>1,706</td>
<td>1,752</td>
<td>1,865</td>
<td>2,004</td>
<td>2,056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auxiliary services</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>887</td>
<td>879</td>
<td>901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gifts &amp; Donations</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Sources</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Stimulus Fund</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>267</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relying on the information obtained from the USG audits for years 2009-2017 it is possible to get an accurate understanding of how the University System of Georgia “muddled” its way through this difficult period for colleges and universities described in this article.

Fiscal Year 09 witnessed the system taking a net loss of 120 million dollars in state funding due to difficult economic conditions across the United States, however there were 17 million dollars of federal aid to offset some of the losses. Grants and Contracts increased by 140 million most of which came from Pell Grants due to increased enrollment. Student enrollment went up by 5 percent resulting in an additional 120 million in new dollars (48 million from tuition) with the remainder of 72 million coming from a new mandatory “institutional fee” which was implemented by the Board of Regents to partially offset the loss in state funding. Auxiliary services increased by 12 percent with most of this coming from student housing, transportation, food services, and intercollegiate athletics.

Fiscal Year 10 saw state funding continuing to decrease by an additional 327 million due to the continued economic downturn but was partially offset by an increase in federal stimulus funds that amounted to 267 additional dollars. There was a continued increase in grants and contracts largely due to increased Pell Grants which was a result of increases in the federal discount for tuition rate for universities and colleges. Tuition generated additional funding along with the “institutional fee” continued to rise as more students entered or returned to college bringing in an additional 176 million dollars. There were also increases in auxiliary services revenues largely due to continued increases in housing, food services, transportation and parking, and interscholastic revenues.
Fiscal Year 11 reversed the downward trend in state funding with a 114 million dollar increase but there were no more Federal Stabilization Funds available so there was still a net loss in revenues. However, grants and contracts did see an increase of 188 million largely due to continued Pell Grant revenues. Tuition and fees continued to grow by 174 million as new students were added to the rolls during this fiscal year. There was continued growth in auxiliary services revenues with the largest increases in housing, food services, intercollegiate athletics and transportation and parking.

Fiscal Year 12 brought about a 114-million-dollar loss of state dollars with no additional new federal funds available to reduce the negative impact of the reduction in state funds. Grants and contracts were up by 145 million most of which was due to Pell Grant increases the continued growth in student enrollment provided an additional 223 million dollars in tuition and fees along with additional growth in auxiliary operations with the largest revenue generators being housing showing an increase of 25 million, food services 19 million, athletics 10 million and parking 4 million dollars.

Fiscal Year 13 had the state increasing its contributions by 42 million, grants and contracts were up by an additional 12 million due to Pell Grant increases, but this amount was marked the smallest increase beginning in 2009. Tuition and fees were up by 75 million on increased enrollment and the presence of the institutional fee that was implemented in 2010. Additionally, auxiliary operations continued to grow by 27 million with residence halls generating and additional 20 million, food services 5 million, and transportation- parking generating 2 million more dollars.

Fiscal Year 14 saw the state funds continuing to increase by 136 million but grants and contracts fell by 45 million dollars. There was an increase in tuition of 46 million and auxiliary operations added 44 million dollars with housing once again leading the
way with 14 million, food services 10 million and interscholastic athletics 10 million for the year.

Fiscal Year 15 had the state continuing to increase its contributions by 62 million for the year. There was an increase of 47 million from Grants and contracts once again due to Pell grant increases, additionally Tuition and fees increased by 113 million along with auxiliary operations providing an increase of 40 million for the year with residence halls generating an increase of 20.8 million dollars along with interscholastic athletics.

Fiscal Year 16 found the state continuing to increase funding by 81 million dollars. There was an additional 100 million from Grants and contracts largely due to continued Pell Grant increases. Tuition and fees increased by 139 million dollars which was reflective of increases in enrollment but also due to additional fees implemented by the Board of Regents across all institutions.

Fiscal Year 17 once again had the state increasing its contributions by 127 million dollars. Grants and contracts showed an increase of 115 million dollars due to increased enrollment and higher Pell Grant funding. There was an increase of 52 million dollars from tuition and fees due increases in enrollment and auxiliary operations provided an additional 22 million dollars of revenue with the largest amounts coming from residence halls and food services.

**State Funding for Colleges and Universities**

Tandburg (2010) writes how funding for higher education which began to fall in 1988 has continued to do so even though state spending for other areas such as Medicaid has expanded, most likely due to legislators taking funds previously allocated for higher education and shifting them to other areas where they perceive greater need.
The legislators see how federal student aid can be used to offset losses of state revenue now and in the future.

Geiger (2009) describes how six states at the beginning of the financial crisis reduced their support for higher education from 8 to as much as 24% of funding that had been allocated under their 2009 budgets. The effects were somewhat ameliorated by the Obama stimulus funds in 2010 but that did nothing to help when the recession continued after 2010 was over. Ehrenberg (2012) writes how in public colleges and universities there has been a steady decline in state funds based on a full-time student receiving $7,993 in 1987 to $6,454 (State Higher Education Executive Officers, 2011, figure 3) in fiscal year 2010 in terms of constant dollars. This reduction amounts to a 19% reduction over roughly a 20-year time period. The net effect is for colleges and universities is that they were receiving the same amount of funds in constant dollars in 2007 as they were in 1987.

Doyle (2013) suggested how states had rebounded somewhat in 2013 with 31 states increasing funding for higher education nominally. But according to a study conducted by Dadayan and Boyd of the Rockefeller Institute of Government in Albany the previous twelve quarters of funding increases the percentage of needed to have averaged 12.5% but only averaged 8.9% at that time. Doyle relied on data from the State Higher Education Executive Officers (SHEEO) finance report released in 2013. Doyle made mention of how SHEEO had attempted to better explain the concept of funding by using a term: *educational appropriations per full time equivalent* (FTE) student which included state and local funds used for maintenance and operational costs but excluded research or medical costs. The net effect of employing this methodology was to reduce variance between states in terms of dollars spent per student.
Doyle (2013) described four categories of states: (1) Boom or Bust states, such as California, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Missouri (2) Steady Decline, where there has not been the volatility of the afore mentioned states just a steady decline in state funding for higher education from the 1990s with Michigan showing the greatest decrease in funding, (3) Energy States, such as North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming, Texas, and New Mexico where recent petroleum discoveries and revived drilling have provided additional state revenues for state legislatures, and lastly (4) Over a Cliff, to include states that have seen drastic reductions in spending that did not exactly coincide with the beginning of the current recession. Louisiana, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Arizona are examples of the “Over a Cliff” states with Louisiana reducing support for higher education by 5.2% in 2013 with an additional eleven million scheduled to be eliminated in Fiscal year 2014.

Sav (2016) explains how at the beginning of the Fiscal 2004 school year state funding for higher education averaged 32% by 2008 it had decreased slightly to 31%, however by 2013 it had dropped to 23% (GAO, 2014) as states were feeling the full impact of the financial crisis. The real problem occurred when private donations which colleges and universities had been increasingly relying on collapsed in 2008. The rate of decrease in private giving from 2008 to 2013 amounted to slightly more than a 12% loss of revenue. The following chart was developed for the University of Georgia system of Colleges and Universities based on information found in the annual reports from the auditor to the Board of Regents. It is the authors goal to provide a better understanding of how expenditures increased over this period, but the picture is still incomplete due to a lack of transparency in areas such as salaries for what percentage of salaries are paid for administration, full time faculty, part time faculty, or adjunct faculty.
The information provided by the Board of Regents and the University System of Georgia was very helpful. A brief explanation per Fiscal Year to illuminate how the dollars were allocated by function.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>FY 2009 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2010 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2011 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2012 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2013 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2014 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2015 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2016 FTEs</th>
<th>FY 2017 FTEs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Salaries</td>
<td>1559</td>
<td>1587</td>
<td>1689</td>
<td>1686</td>
<td>1753</td>
<td>1708</td>
<td>1861</td>
<td>1855</td>
<td>1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research and Grants</td>
<td>929</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>1115</td>
<td>1169</td>
<td>1219</td>
<td>1237</td>
<td>1371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auxiliaries School stores</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>766</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance Plant Operations</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>637</td>
<td>641</td>
<td>689</td>
<td>682</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Support</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>641</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Services</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships/ Fellowships</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCG Patients</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following section is an attempt to provide additional insight into what happened each year as the Georgia Board of Regents attempted to make its way through what was one of the most financially challenging periods of time in recent memory:

Fiscal Year 09’s budget of 5,842 billion had an increase of 8 percent with most of the increases in the following functions: Instruction (130 million); research (94 million); auxiliary (71 million); salaries and benefits (310 million); increased supplies and services (52 million).

Fiscal Year 10’s budget amounted to 6,033 billion including a 191 million dollar increase with the following functions receiving the largest share of increases: scholarships and fellowships (106 million); instruction (28 million); research (34
million); academic support (15 million); student services (12 million); plant operations and maintenance (26 million); and auxiliaries (36 million).

Fiscal Year 11’s budget increased to 6,439 billion with an increase of 406 million with the following functions receiving the largest amounts for the upcoming year: instruction (102 million); plant operations and maintenance (77 million); instructional support (64 million); scholarships and fellowships (42 million); research (39 million); auxiliaries (31 million); student services (26 million); academic support (24 million); public services (7 million) much of the increases were necessary due to the continued increase in enrollment during this year.

Fiscal Year 12’s budget amounted to 6,738 billion with an increase of 299 million dollars that allocated the largest increases to the following functions: instructional support (132 million); Patient care (73 million); research (54 million); auxiliaries (54 million); plant operations and maintenance (48 million); academic support (29 million); and student services (12 million) this follows the research with colleges and universities providing more funding for areas such as student support and instructional support.

Fiscal Year 13’s budget of 6,894 billion included an increase of 156 million that was allocated to the following functions: instruction (67 million); research (59 million); auxiliaries (22 million); instructional support (2 million). This was the university system’s first year of declining enrollments due largely to the economic downturn that began in 2008 but had now reached the universities in Georgia.

Fiscal Year 14’s budget reached 7,138 billion dollars including an increase of 244 million dollars with the following functions receiving the majority of the funds: instruction (67 million); research (59 million); auxiliaries (26 million); academic support (32 million); student services (8 million); and instructional support receiving (79 million) as the university system faced the second year of declining enrollments.
Fiscal Year 15’s budget of 7,452 billion included an increase of 314 million dollars most of which went to the following functions: instruction (73 million); research (50 million); auxiliary programs (28 million); student services (27 million); instructional support (57 million) and plant operations and maintenance (43 million). This year marked the return of student growth and the largest increase in state funding in four years.

Fiscal Year 16’s budget was 7,563 billion dollars contained an increase of 110 million and the funds were allocated to the following functions: research (18 million); auxiliary operations (20 million); academic support (19 million); student services (13 million); instructional support (28 million); and scholarships and fellowships (6 million) with student enrollment continuing to increase slowly.

Fiscal Year 17’s budget totaled 8 billion dollars which included an additional 449 million in funds with the largest amounts being allocated the following functions: instruction (141 million); research (134 million); auxiliary programs (43 million); academic support (30 million); instructional support (30 million); and student services (7 million). This was the largest increase in dollars for higher education allocated by the state government and the Board of Regents for the colleges and universities for any year since FY 09.

**Student Tuition and Fees**

Luca, Nadauld, and Shen (2015) make the argument that higher tuition costs increase the demand for student loans, but loan supply also effects the equilibrium by allowing students to take on even greater amounts of debt. Interestingly, tuition for an average undergraduate student increased from $6,950 to approximately $10,000 in 2012 dollars or an annual adjusted rate of inflation of 3.5%. There are several different types
of colleges and universities ranging from four-year institutions which grant a bachelor’s
degree, two-year associate degree granting institutions to vocational technical schools.

Luca et al. (2015) explains the history of federal student loan and aid programs as
having their origins in the 1965 Higher Education Act (HEA). The original HEA
contained six mandates providing funds for higher education. Title IV directed federal
financial aid in support of higher education with two central programs: (1) Federal Pell
Grants and (2) William D. Ford Direct Loan Program, that in July of 2010 became the
Federal Family Educational Loan (FFEL) program. Students who attend Title IV eligible
institutions may qualify for federal loans or grants by completing a Free Application for
Federal Student Aid (FAFSA) form. The outcome of completing the form is a
determination of the student’s expected family contribution (EFC) that is a
representation of the total amount of dollars the family is expected to contribute
towards a dependent student’s education. There are several calculations involved in
this process, but the end result is the student’s EFC and the specific institution’s costs
determine the student’s contribution. Sav (2016) explains how the federal government’s
funding for higher education through Pell Grant funds for low to moderate income
students with increases in eligible student numbers from approximately 25 percent to
38 percent in 2011. Congress enacted changes in the student loan programs in 2011
which resulted in a flattening of the curve at 37 percent by 2012-2013.

The College Board explains how there are differences between the cost of attending a
college or university that the public is most familiar with which is commonly referred to
as the “published price” and the actual cost or the “net price.” Their best estimates for
the 2015-2016 school year for instate students published price including fees was
approximately $9,410 the net price was approximately $3,980 with the rest being paid
with grants and deductions for a full-time student. (p. 8) The reason for net pay to have
decreased is that beginning in the 2010-2011 academic year the federal government increased its funding for students. (p.8) Ehrenberg (2012) refers to this as the “tuition discount rate” where a percentage of each tuition dollar is returned to the student in the form of needs based or merit grant aid. This rate increased at private four-year colleges from 26.7 percent to 42 percent in 2008 according to the National Association of Colleges and Universities Business Officers (2009-2010).

Alexander and Arceneau (2015) call for revisions in how the federal government funds education. There have been significant changes since 1965 when Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Higher Education Act of 1965 with his vision of direct aid to students for higher post-secondary education. The President’s vision of a better economy for all citizens as part of the “War on Poverty” with aid for students who could demonstrate need for additional funding was laudable. The reality is over the last four decades based on a 2010 report written by the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) social mobility has decreased to the point it is at the bottom when compared to other OECD countries. Additionally, graduation rates now place the U.S. at 12th in rate of college completion for those between ages 25 to 34 at this time and if current trends continue the U.S. will fall to 19th by the end of the decade. The last fact is even more alarming with approximately 71 percent of high income homes graduate from college with a bachelor’s degree while the graduation rate for the poorest quintile fall between 6 to 10 percent.

Ehrenberg (2012) points out how other budgeting concerns have consumed more dollars over time for colleges and universities including: (1) student services; (2) Academic support services; (3) Institutional support services; (4) Alumni affairs and development; (5) Auxiliary enterprises and (6) Administrative costs from 1987-2008.
Costing Cutting or Reduction Strategies

Chabotar (2010) states how small colleges like Carleton College placed restraints on hiring, reductions in faculty and staff. Carleton lost ten faculty members but was able to accomplish this through attrition rather than eliminating personnel. Greensboro College announced in January 2009 that it was going to give raises for the 2010-2011 school year but due to enrollment shortfalls and staffing reductions it was not going to be able to do so in April of 2010.

Ehrenberg (2012) cites statistics provided annually by the American Mathematical Society which illustrated the percentage of full-time faculty members in mathematics departments remained relatively constant between years 1967-2009 at approximately 90 percent in departments which offered doctoral degrees. There were significant increases in the number of faculty members holding a Ph.D. at colleges and universities over this same time period where the highest degree awarded was a masters from 40 to 80 percent of the faculty. The increase for faculty members holding a Ph. D. at institutions where the highest degree offered was a bachelor’s degree increased from 30 to 70 percent during the same time period. Ehrenberg assumes the same increase in the availability of Ph.D.’s across other programs have led to similar increases over the same time period with the greatest increases taking places during the 1980s.

Ehrenberg (2012) makes the point that during this same time period the percentages of full-time faculty members who were on a tenure track decreased while there was a corresponding increase in the numbers of faculty members who occupied non-tenure track positions with the most significant increases occurring in private non-profit institutions and in for-profit institutions. Interestingly, part-time positions increased across all types of institutions with greatest increases taking place in the for-profit sector.
and the lowest percentage of increase occurring at non-profit private colleges and universities.

Ehrenberg (2012) discusses the rise of technology in higher education as a means of controlling costs. It appears the for-profit sector has been more aggressive in this arena than traditional brick and mortar institutions especially in the areas of remedial and lower level courses. Betts and Heaston (2014) report American post-secondary enrollments today are incredibly diverse. According to a (2012) New American Report, “Only 14 percent of undergraduates attend and full time and live on campus” (p. 2) There are studies which point to the fact that for adult students the use of a blended format with some online work and regular face to face sessions is more effective than a straight online approach. Moloney and Oakley (2010) reported how in the second Sloan-C survey among public and for-profit institutions almost 65 percent reported that online programs were critical to their long-range plans.

Brint et al. (2016) explained how of the four clusters identified in the study all were forced to reduce faculty and staff, but the most pronounced reductions took place in the “complete arsenal” category with more than 500 people being laid off and more than 50 faculty searches being canceled. Those reductions took place over multiple years with 3 percent, 5 percent, and 7 percent reductions over the six-year period.

Reducing or Eliminating Full Time Positions

Ehrenberg (2012) writes that even with tuition increasing over the last three decades there has been a tremendous change in full time faculty positions nationwide from approximately 80% in 1970 to 51.3% in 2007 with a majority of the part time or adjunct employees not holding a terminal degree. The percentage of full time faculty not on a
tenure track has increased from 18.6 percent to 37.2 percent between 1975 and 2007.
Additionally, the sector of the higher education market place that has made the most use of part-time and full-time non-tenure track faculty has been the for-profit sector. Institutions such as community colleges and comprehensive universities that have elected to compete in the same sector of the market will be forced to make even greater use of part-time or adjunct faculty to be cost effective.

Eliminating or Reducing Benefits for Faculty and Staff

Ehrenberg (2012) states how both private and public colleges and universities made dramatic changes in resource allocations over the last twenty years with a much higher percentage going to areas such as non-faculty programs such as student services, academic support, and institutional support rather than going to increase salaries or benefits for faculty. Brint et al. (2016) explained how the “complete arsenal” schools were the most likely to reduce or make changes to faculty compensation packages. They also used early retirement incentives in an attempt to reduce overhead costs by having more senior staff retire.

Jones and Wellman (2010) explain how over the last two decades the percentage of compensation devoted to employee benefits has increased more rapidly than have actual salaries, with the greatest driver being that of health insurance. This is seen as being the single greatest factor leading to the increased use of part-time or adjunct faculty members. The projections are based on a study by the Commonwealth Fund (2009) that over the next decade family health insurance will practically double increasing to almost $24,000 on average. Not to be left behind pension costs are also rising due to the ever-increasing number of people who retire and live longer thus increasing pressures on the pension funds. The other factor associated with this is the
percentage of unfunded liabilities brought on by losses to the mutual funds and other retirement accounts during the “Great Recession.”

Concluding Thoughts

There are a multitude of issues facing higher education as we move forward with low graduation rates, high student debt, questions of utility of a college education itself and a public that is highly skeptical of the value of a college education itself. College budgets continue to increase but salaries for full time professors have not kept pace with those of administrators or staff members. The rise of technology with online classes or online degrees with little to no human contact also call into question exactly what is being learned over the four to six years it takes to graduate today.

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Dyslexia and Dyscalculia: Teachers' Beliefs and Experiences

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Dr. Elizabeth Wadlington is a professor at Southeastern Louisiana University. She has more than thirty years of experience in education in various roles. She teaches graduate classes regarding dyslexia, English as a second language, and elementary/secondary reading. She has been awarded the Hyde Endowed Professorship which allows her to research dyslexia and dyscalculia.

Dr. Patrick Wadlington has a Ph.D. in Industrial/Organization Psychology from the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. He has 13 years of experience in his field. He is currently researching cross industry data analytics and machine learning models to better understand educational, business, and other settings.

Abstract
The authors will present information regarding educators with dyslexia (reading disability) and dyscalculia (math disability). The information will come from a longitudinal research study in which educators were asked questions regarding how their beliefs and own disabilities have affected their work with their students as well as their own personal lives. Key insights, implications, suggestions, and future directions will be discussed. Audience participation will be encouraged.
The Energy Management Challenge: Priming Student Change with The Energy Audit

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Andrew Pueschel Ph.D., Associate Director of the Emerging Leaders program at the Robert D. Walter Center for Strategic Leadership, is a Lecturer in the Management Department of the College of Business at Ohio University. He teaches Management in the Integrated Business Cluster, Introduction to Business, and Leadership in Practice. Andrew holds a Bachelor of Arts in Business Ethics and Public Policy from Carnegie Mellon, a Master’s in Public Policy and Management from the Heinz School, and a
Doctorate in Leadership and Instructional Management from Robert Morris University. Research includes Well-Being, Leadership, Soft Skill Development, Organizational Behavior, Culture Change, and Motivation.

Abstract
University students are increasingly more involved as they juggle managing life away from family, making time for coursework, fulfilling organizational commitments, and honoring social engagements as well as, for many, holding full time jobs. At a time when students’ lives are more intense than ever, many are at a distinct disadvantage because of inadequate energy management. This research will examine the energy management (or lack thereof) of participating students while testing the effectiveness of various types of tools used to communicate well-being and energy management.

This research evaluates and extends the 2011 study by Spreitzer and Grant titled, Helping Students Manage Their Energy: Taking Their Pulse With the Energy Audit. In order to enhance the validity and reliability of the previous study, we have operationalized their study into a four-cell experimental design analysis supporting the hypothesis that students will increase their self-awareness and well-being when primed through helpful, positive interventions.

For this research, four separate cohorts of students, all enrolled in an introduction to business course were given the opportunity to participate. In order to measure the effectiveness of the use of an energy audit, a pre-test and post-test examined all of the students’ self-perceptions about personal well-being and energy. Cohort 1 participated in only the post-test. Cohort 2 participated in the pre-test as well as the post-test.
Cohort 3 participated in pre-test and post-test test as well as the energy audit. Cohort 4 participated in the pre-test and post-test, the energy audit, and an instructor-lead intervention discussing well-being.

After analysis, statistically significant findings will solidify the importance of training students in energy management to not only positively impact their university experience but to also enhance their professional as well as personal lives. In addition, this research could improve both education in management and, ultimately, the practice of management by exploring the interventions that can lead to improved performance.
Engaging Students Through Technology an Interdisciplinary Approach

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Courtney Wiest has a Doctorate in Education from Argosy University, a Master’s in Social Work from University of Central Florida, and a Bachelor’s in Social Work from Saint Leo University. She is currently a full-time Assistant Professor in the Graduate Social Work program at Saint Leo University in Dade City, Florida. Along with her teaching duties, she is the Associate Director for the Graduate Social Work program. She has been at Saint Leo University for the last eleven years. Before she was a full-time instructor at Saint Leo University, she was a Behavior Specialist the local high school in Dade City, Florida. In her earlier career, she was in the field of social work working with children and families in the dependency system. Courtney Wiest’s current research interest are: goals are higher education and online learning, particularly related to “sense of community” in the online environment. Along with online program development and student engagement.
Abstract
As technology has emerged, we see institutions utilizing technology in teaching. There are multiple platforms and tools available to instructors. This article examines multiple platforms and tools (Prezi, Blackboard Collaborate, Gamification, Video Conferencing, and Avatars). The article highlights application along with pros and cons for instructors. The article will also examine the use of these As technology has emerged, we see institutions utilizing technology in teaching. There are multiple platforms and tools available to instructors. This article examines multiple platforms and tools (Prezi, Blackboard Collaborate, Gamification, Video Conferencing, and Avatars). The article highlights application tools across disciplines and course formats (grounded, online, and blended) at Saint Leo University. The article will illustrate how these tools enhance student engagement, collaboration, and learning benefits.

Since computers were introduced into the school setting in the mid-1970, educators have extensively discussed their potential for helping to increase academic growth and student engagement (Hew & Brush, 2007). Computers and digital technology endless possibilities have not been realized because of the limited availability of these devices in the classroom setting. The ratio of students to computers in 1983 was estimated at 168 to 1 (Anderson & Ronnkvist, 1999). As schools have attempted to meet the needs of 21st-century learners, they have significantly increased the number of digital devices available. The school days of the chalkboard, pencil, and paper, students raising their hands to answer questions and going to the library to gather research, are pages in history compared to the modernized classroom of students today. Classified by Deep Patel of the Huffington Post (2016) as the generation of individuals who have grown up with the constant bombardment of connectivity, today’s Generation Z students are more digital and tech savvy than previous
generations. Also, with an estimated 60 million Generation Z-ers (individuals between 15 – 20 years of age) presently among the elementary to college age students, they are expected to quickly surpass both the Millenials (Generation Y) and the Baby Boomers (Monster, 2016). Generation Z individuals have never known a world without a rapidly moving environment of constant connectivity and advancing technology. The Generation Z's have grown up multi-tasking in a fast-paced world of the internet, networking on social media, i-pads, laptops, smartphones, Google, and video streaming. Often Generation Zers long for and appreciate alternative forms of learning experiences rather than the restrictive ancient technology of their parents' generation. Many of today's Generations Zers are reevaluating traditional formal education and are choosing instead to be homeschooled, attend alternative-learning classrooms, or to participate in massive on-line courses (MOOCS). Technology has changed the way we live and offers us opportunities to enhance our teaching methods. The never-ending question still remains "Are we using the best approaches to engage the student and help the learning process" (Paholsky, 2012 and Kirchner & Razmerita, 2015)? Through the use of technology in the classroom students are becoming further educated about different problems in society, via social media posts, blogs, websites, television, presentation tools, gaming, and more. Educational tools that help students implement their ideas which create solutions to problems and inform others is impactful. Technology can be considered good or bad depending on your perspective and how it works any given day. However, most professors agree that our main goal in creating instructional environments is to focus on learning, and that technology is another way to engage students and add to the learning objectives of their chosen subject. Student engagement is a significant issue for instructors in the K-12 setting as well as in higher education. The issue of engagement is compounded when preparing future teachers
through the online setting to address the needs and engagement of their future K-12 students. This paper will review the current technology tools utilized at Saint Leo University by instructors in multiple program and various platforms (Mukherjee et al., 2017).

Overview of Technology in the Classroom

In 2010, it was reported that 97% of teachers in the United States had access to at least one classroom computer every day with 93% of those computers having Internet access (National Center for Educational Statistics, IES, 2010). The Center found that the ratio of students to computers was 5.3 to 1. The increased availability of computers seems like it should have increased daily use of technology in K-12 instruction; however, only 40% of the teachers interviewed in their study reported using computers often during their instruction. However, digital resources have been expanded to include more than just computers. The various types of information and communication technologies available have increased. Most K-12 schools in the United State currently have access to high-speed Internet as well as other digital resources such as printers, video projectors, digital whiteboards, iPads, iPods, and smartphones. The educational digital landscape is being transformed through these additional resources (Robinson, McKenna & Conradi, 2012 and Al-Abri, Jamoussi, Kraiem, & Al-Khanjari, 2017 and Mukherjee et al., 2017).

The anticipated increase in academic performance resulting from the expanded technology usage has not materialized. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (2013) reported reading and mathematics test scores that are at about the same level as they were 40 years ago. This seems to support Kozma’s (2003) observation that a positive impact of technology on achievement does not occur automatically. Instead, the impact of technology is determined by how teachers use the digital resources in their
classroom instruction, not just whether they have access to the educational technology. Instead, rigorous professional development needs to accompany the new monetary investments in purchasing the technology to help build "skills that have not historically been in the teacher toolbox" (Walker, 2015, para. 18). Teachers need support and encouragement to keep up with the fast-paced world technology, especially as innovation explodes throughout our world (Kopp, 2015). Consequently, instructors in higher education need to exposure future teachers to a variety of digital resources so that they have opportunities to develop confidence using and infusing these digital resources into their instruction. They need to see how these digital resources can be used to enhance their instruction so that it can meet the learning needs of their students. Technology is an integral component in how students learn and process information (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

**Literature Review**

This literature review attempts to present a framework of useful educational technologies arising from the literature in order to inform the discussion among educators about their applied use in creating complex interactions in learning environments. This is not the first research review of creativity and technology used in education; for example Banaji, Burn, and Buckingham (2010) undertook a systematic research synthesis in new technologies and learning, whilst Banaji and Burn (2006) and Banaji, Burn, and Buckingham (2010) have reviewed a range of literature from which nine ‘rhetorics’ of creativity emerged: creative genius; democratic and political creativity; ubiquitous creativity; creativity for social good; creativity as economic imperative; play and creativity; creativity and cognition; the creative affordances of technology; and the creative classroom (Mukherjee et al, 2017).
Bandura (1991) described social learning as cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors which foster a level of learning for the participant. In Bandura’s (1977) original work he identified four learning components which are: attentiveness, symbolic coding, motor retention processes, and motivation (Wiest, 2015 and Al-Abri, Jamoussi, Kraiem, & Al-Khanjari, 2017). Bandura (1977) studies dispelled past theories that observational learning is simply passive; rather, learners make a conscious choice known as human agency and cognitively processed activities and make behavioral changes. According to the social learning theory, learning is an active process between all participants. Students need to be engaged with each other and the instructor to gain the desired outcomes. Learning is not viewed in a vacuum, rather, learning is seen as an exchange of ideas and knowledge which results in greater knowledge for all participants (Vygotsky 1978 and Wiest, 2015). Instructors are expected to foster and engage students as active participants. This engagement is done through collaborative learning activities and use of multiple technology avenues in the current online, grounded, and blended classroom platforms. Through the collaborative social learning process, students are able to develop skills, critically think, and acquire new knowledge among peers (Bell, Urhahne, Schanze, & Ploetzner, 2010 and Wiest, 2015 and Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Additionally, Engagement theory has emerged from the examination of online learning. The theory focuses on the level of student engagement in the learning process. Kearsley and Shneiderman (1999) and Kearsley (2005) noted the fundamental principle is that students must be meaningfully engaged in the learning process through challenges, activities, and peer interaction. The theory examines the role of technologies and the ability to promote student engagement through a varied of tools such as discussion boards; group projects; videos; web tours; web live classrooms;
problem-based learning. These various learning tools through technology promote engagement for all learning styles; however, traditional settings do not always allow the slower thinkers to process and engage in the learning process (1999, 2005 and Wiest, 2015 and Mukherjee et al, 2017). There are three basic principles of the engagement theory

1. Group context (i.e., collaborative teams)
2. Project-based

This emerging theory differs from past technology theories where the emphasis has been on the individual learning process or instruction method. Rather, this model focuses on the group collaboration process (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1999 and Wiest, 2015). This theory highlights the use of technology in the new academic arena to engage students in the learning process (Al-Abri, Jamoussi, Kraiem, & AlKhanjari, 2017 and Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Prezi
One of the most well-known presentation tools used for presenting completed projects by students in the classroom is PowerPoint which was designed as a computer-generated slide presentation tool. It was later sold to Microsoft Windows-based version and used in a wide variety of settings such as business, entertainment, and education. Power Point like other presentation tools such as Prezi has been designed to tell a story or to make a report come alive illustrating a core message. Both are considered to be graphics programs, not word processing using slides as visual aids to help the speaker project that message and connect with the audience (Mukherjee et al, 2017). description.
Prezi is an internet presentation software that stores your presentation in the cloud allowing for more flexibility and collaboration than is possible with PowerPoint (Settle, Abrams, & Baker, 2011). Prezi is accessible as long as you have internet access then you will be able to locate your Prezi. Prezi software has a free educational use only application for students and faculty with an .edu address which provides an adequate space to create allowing for the easy insert of Youtube videos, images, PDF files, and other objects to enhance the presentation. Prezi Presentations can be edited at any place and any time among multiple users when they are provided editing access through the internet. A link is available that will allow others to view the presentation, and any changes made to the presentation will be reflected in what a viewer sees. As a result, students can use Prezi much more easily to work collaboratively on projects (Strasser, 2014). Ultimately these features allow Prezi to offer increased creativity in designing and using the presentation tool for both the instructor and students. A fascinating feature of Prezi is the ability for it to zoom in on items in the presentation (Settle, Abrams, & Baker, 2011). This can be visually appealing when not overused and emphasized to cause disequilibrium. This feature tends to capture the student’s attention and provides the professor an opportunity to embed discussion questions and hidden answers into the slide creating easy review for forthcoming exams. However, if you want to highlight the connections between topics and want a very visually oriented presentation, then Prezi is the correct choice (Harris, 2011). It is important to explore the different feature of Prezi to fully utilize them to create a well-designed presentation. The topic needs to be viewed in multiple perspectives from interconnected parts to the whole visual picture. The better Prezi presentations use both perspectives to create an excellent learning experience (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Application
A Prezi offers both the professor and students an opportunity to be creative, demonstrate relationships among concepts and objects, allows for interesting visualization, and active learning opportunities. Most classroom projects whether they are research projects or experiential learning activities requires students individually or in groups to create a presentation to share their work, findings, and reflections. Creativity can be encouraged and facilitated when students are able to use Prezi to design their presentations. The Prezi can emphasize how different relationships among the assignment topics are linked together. A timeline, a theory, and general applications showing steps of progression can be highlighted easily using Prezi and made interesting by inserting images, graphics, articles, pictures, and YouTube videos and more. All these visual aids help to draw a picture to capture the audience's interest and engage them in the process unfolding before their eyes. The collaboration among students happens when each group member is able to help design the Prezi and contribute to a dynamic presentation (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Gamification

As educators, we need to recognize that Generation Z-ers are from a world that is rapidly evolving, and as such we cannot expect them to be educated in the same manner as past generations. It is our job to advance their learning capabilities by acquiring new skills that will foster a productive environment for motivated and critically thinking individuals that will be able to succeed in their chosen career. The integration of technology into the classroom curriculum to enhance learning is rapidly advancing and it is imperative that instructors learn to implement lessons and activities that will facilitate the scholastic environment while engaging and motivating its learners. One movement that is being used quite effectively in today's classroom environment to increase motivation and learning while sustaining student interest is the
use of gamification. Broadly defined, Gamification is an educational approach to learning that implements the use of video designed games in which to motivate and influence behavior that will stimulate and inspire students to learn while in a classroom environment (Deterding, Dixon, Khaled & Nacke, 2011). "In today’s digital generation gamification has become a popular tactic to encourage specific behaviors, and increase motivation and engagement. Though commonly found in marketing strategies, it is now being implemented in many educational programs as well, helping educators find the balance between achieving their objectives and catering to evolving student needs."

(Huang, & Dilip, 2013, p.5) Scott and Ghenia (2013) advocated the use of gamification in the classroom to encourage attendance, increase student collaboration, and enhance focused attention. A gamified classroom provides an active learning environment, in which students are required to engage, critically think, and problem solve. In addition, "Ben Leong, Assistant Professor at the School of Computing, National University of Singapore advocates there should be a clear understanding that gamification is independent of knowledge or skills. Gamification directly affects engagement and motivation and it indirectly leads to acquiring more knowledge and skills. Gamification encourages students to perform an action; for example, motivating students to practice computer programming will increase their skill and motivating students to memorize consistently can increase their knowledge (Huang and Soman, 2013, p. 15). The implementation of gamification within the classroom becomes the instrument for content learning. Instructors who apply gamification as an alternative to their traditional instructional content will discover students' increased attention and engagement within the classroom while heightening motivation for students to analyze alternative solutions to problem-solving. While successfully implementing gamification into the classroom environment is not exactly an easy task, it can be very beneficial and
when instigated properly can be a powerful tool in which to enhance the education process. When developing curriculum for a classroom and deciding how to include gamification, it is important to understand that the curriculum is not built around the game, but the games are developed around the curriculum. In order to adequately implement gamification into the classroom, an instructor must first consider the makeup of the students, their technological skills, and their learning styles (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Application

One such game that has been effectively used in the classroom for engaging students with smartphones and tablets is Kahoot. Through the use of Kahoot the professor can create a fun game made from a series of multiple choice questions, and it allows the addition of videos, images, and diagrams to be inserted to enhance the learning potential for the audience. Kahoot is best played in groups involving the entire classroom, with students using their own technological devices such as the smartphone, laptop, or tablets. Players respond to the questions shown on a large screen to the entire class, which unites the class in play encouraging players to see how others responded to the questions without identifying students by name. This game promotes social learning whether the players are in the onground classroom or online classroom. It also offers students a chance to create their own Kahoots to deepen their understanding of the course material and share it in a round of game play. Designing a game that will effectively enhance the learning environment and accomplish the instructor’s goals may require some investment in time in the beginning to be able to adequately plan and organize the curriculum assignment and assessments. However, once the process is complete the instructor will discover that gamification, when implemented properly, can be a very effective educational tool in which to enhance the learning objectives of
the classroom. By providing an active learning environment, motivating students to critically think and problem solve and increasing student engagement, gamification is another way in which to reach the new generation of Zers (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Graphics and Infographics
Information graphics, or infographics, are resources teachers can use to present information, graphics, or other content quickly and clearly through the visual modality. Free software, such as easel.ly (2017), PiktoChart (2017), and Canva (2017), provide many editable templates which make these visual posters easy to create. The templates are fully customizable. The online tutorials make it easy for even a first-time user to adjust the text, background, images, and layout (De Alzpurua, 2016 and Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Application
Teachers enrolled in a graduate online course identified a lesson with a significant amount of content presented through connected text. They then attempted to revise this content to better address the needs of visual learners. The teachers used the infographic software of their choice to create an infographic to help their students to better understand and engage with the content. One future teacher shared the following comments about his experience "I found the tool had an easy learning curve. I could create an infographic fairly quickly. I am not artistically inclined and I am sure this infographic is elementary at best. But the tool easel.ly was not difficult to use. The pros of the software were the ease of instruction. I found a video on YouTube that was quite helpful." Another teacher stated, "I could definitely use an infographic such as the one I used for this lesson. Easel.ly is easy to use with many tutorials for each step. I love all the templates that you can choose from or you can start from scratch. There is a toolbar where you can add color, font, pictures, and lots of other extras with tutorials on how to
do add them. The visual along with text makes infographics a great learning tool." This supports the observation by Kopp (2015) "As long as teachers have a topic to teach, the Internet has an instructional resource to connect students in the classroom to the world around them" (p. 108).

Blackboard Collaborate

Online learning has become a popular model of learning in higher education. Allen and Seaman (2016) reported that 5.8 million students are enrolled nationally in online higher education courses. This rising trend necessitates the use of good pedagogical principles along with relevant, complete, and accurate content. One aspect of good pedagogy is building online learning community through opportunities for interaction and engagement through synchronous communication. Rovai, (2002) identified two dimensions for successful online learning community: social dimension (connectivity) and learning dimension (academic). Synchronous classrooms are virtual classrooms that connect the social and the learning dimensions through an econferencing system and helps build learning community. Blackboard Collaborate is a platform that combined the capabilities of industry leaders Wimba and Elluminate, Blackboard Collaborate provides a comprehensive online learning and collaboration platform designed specifically for education. It is helping thousands of higher education, K-12, professional, corporate, and government organizations worldwide deliver a more effective learning experience through blended and mobile learning online collaboration tools, and it will help open up all-new aspects of real time, or anytime, learning to engage more students and improve outcomes (BlackboardCollaboratewebsite, n.d. and Mukherjee et al, 2017).
The Social Dimension of Learning

Synchronous sessions remove social isolation, provide opportunities for collaboration and real-time interaction. Designing e-learning is about bringing together accurate and relevant content with effective instructional design elements for self-paced learning without the need for instructor presence; however, according to Moore (2014) student success with learning in an online setting is frequently connected to the instructor. Online instructors can thoughtfully and intentionally create a learning environment to engage students with course materials. Assumptions in an online environment is often about students learning at their own pace, in their own space, and in their own time; however, when the online environment provides a structured, yet communicative environment, when students feel a sense of belonging, when the classroom allows for learners to collaborate meaningfully, when there are opportunities for free and open communication, and when students can build community and participate openly and freely in learning activities, then there is deeper learning, course success and satisfaction (Ascough, 2007; Moore, 2014). Synchronous classes provide direct access to instructor and peers in real time and gratify the social side of learning for students who are often separated geographically. Palloff & Pratt (1999) observe that failure to build a learning community directly results in unsuccessful learning (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Build Engagement

In an online learning environment, synchronous sessions provide a way for students to connect and engage with peers in real-time on a variety of learning activities, such as direct instruction, seminars, student-led discussions, group projects, in class presentation, topic discussions, and resource sharing. As in face to face classrooms, these discussions provide enriching and empowering learning experiences.
and help students engage with content. Cooperative learning strategies like jigsaw or desk critiques used in the whole classroom or in breakout rooms allow the learner to interact, collaborate, and engage actively in a low affect environment with their learning. Ascough (2007) noted that when students’ feel that they belong to a community there is student engagement, increased motivation, greater productivity, and deeper learning. According to Park and Bonk (2007) the major benefits of having synchronous classroom in online classes includes providing and receiving immediate feedback, exchange of varied perspectives, increased social presences which foster a sense of emotional support in an otherwise isolated experience (Mukherjee et al, 2017). To engage students, technology is incorporated into the course. This allows students and opportunity to review content prior to class and utilize the content as a resource week to week. When preparing for a course, the professor must carefully create lessons that will allow students to grow and understand content. Part of this process is integrating appropriate technology to support student learning. “Learning is promoted when learners are engaged in solving real-world problems; (2) learning is promoted when existing knowledge is activated as a foundation for new knowledge; (3) learning is promoted when new knowledge is demonstrated to the learner; (4) learning is promoted when new knowledge is applied by the learner; (5) learning is promoted when new knowledge is integrated into the learner’s world (Frick, Chadha, Watson, Wang, & Green, 2009, pgs. 707-707). These five principles allow the professor to build on student knowledge, expose them to new content, and move them from remembering to evaluation (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Application

Currently, at Saint Leo University Blackboard Collaborate is embedded in our LMS platform. Instructors and students can access the system with easy for face to face office
hours, collaborating on group projects, and live class sessions. In the Graduate Social Work program, Collaborate is used weekly for live classes. In these sessions, instructors use an active learning model to conduct small group activities, role play demonstration of clinical skills, and group discussion (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Video Conferencing

Over the years, technology has infiltrated academia and pushed the institution to expand education and its parameters. Because of fiscal responsibility efforts and expanding the institution's reach, professors are being charged with integrating technology to reach and teach students who are not seated in a traditional classroom. One modality to address this shift is synchronous video conferencing which has been around for 50 years (Anastasiades, 2009). It is important to recognize VC is synchronous learning which means all participants are gathered together at the same time. The variation with VC is this gathering can take place in numerous geographical locations. "Videoconferencing offers people who are at different locations worldwide the opportunity to communicate and collaborate, regardless of their geographical position" (Anastasiades, 2009, p. 3). VC is a solid tool that can be utilized to teach and engage students while reducing stress and anxiety for the professor. In many schools, the necessity of expanding education to rural areas is a key focus. This focus is connected to their core values and missions. In addition to reaching rural areas, many organizations are opening to the idea of educating their employees their business centers. Both options provide great opportunities for education institutions to expand their reach and go beyond the traditional classroom. As such, it is essential that educators begin to assess this option as a delivery tool option. This section will focus on the advantages of VC as well as potential issues for professors and students. Also, a best practices framework will be provided to guide implementation of VC (Mukherjee et al, 2017).
Advantages

VC offers multiple advantages for the academic institution, professors, and students. These advantages require flexibility, preparation, and engagement. As with all tools, it takes time, effort, and consistency to create a comfort level. When properly implemented, VC can be an effective tool for academic environments. Berger, Stein & Mullen (2009) highlights multiple advantages for VC integration: enhanced accessibility for learners in remote communities, financial savings by sharing resources and decreasing travel expenses, exposure of a large audience to exemplary teachers, facilitating interaction between students and with instructors and extending opportunities for the class to exist as a learning group beyond the traditional in-class limited time, improving and enhancing teaching creativity, cultivating technological skills. (p. 477). One of the primary reasons academic institutions implement VC is to reach beyond the traditional classroom walls. "The transformation of higher education into a system that has to cope with much larger numbers comes the need to develop a greater flexibility to suit student needs" (Knipe & Lee, 2002, p. 302). This reach often includes connecting with students who cannot travel to the institution. The benefits for students is immeasurable as they can engage in learning without worrying about barriers. In addition, the cost savings for institutions can be drastically reduced with the use of VC because only one instructor is needed and travel expenses are greatly reduced. VC allows the professor to engage students using activities and lectures.

Organization is key to successfully implementing VC. VC provides professors with an opportunity to expand their teaching skills. In traditional environments, students are in one space. This allows the professor to more easily engage students, lecture, and provide activities. With VC, it is essential to think through planning and implementation processes to ensure learning outcomes are achieved for all students. VC
also offers well-seasoned professors a great opportunity to present to a larger audience. This could equally be utilized as a learning tool for new professors who do not have access to seasoned professors. While these advantages come because of intensive work, they ultimately allow growth for the institution, professor, and students (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Disadvantages
The disadvantages with VC are connected to technological components. Whenever new tools are introduced, there is a learning curve for all participants. Berger et al., (2009) offer numerous disadvantages (growth areas): Disadvantages have been claimed to include negative effects on classroom student– teacher interaction, which has been documented as a major determinant of students' outcomes and learning experience, limitation of spontaneity, isolating the instructor from students, enhancing passive rather than interactive learning, technical problems that interfere with the pace of the class, increased stereotyping and misunderstandings because of loss of capturing of nuances in non-verbal communication, increased demands on teacher's and students' time, and, competition and tension between sites. (p. 477). These disadvantages can be addressed with strategic planning. When implementing VC, the organization must ensure each site has sufficient technology to facilitate classroom engagement. This is essential to ensure all parties can be connected. Before launch, the technology department needs to physically assess each area. This assessment should happen on a routine basis. In addition, training for the professors should take place prior to launch to ensure they know how to properly use the system as well as troubleshoot student concerns. "Not only does training need to include how to use the technology, but also teachers may need more general help with their lecturing skills. They will need
particular guidance on how to keep the audiences on the distant sites engaged and how to encourage interaction" (Gill, Parker & Richardson, 2005, p. 574). To address potential student disengagement, the professor must constantly focus on inclusion (Shephard, 2016). This inclusion is demonstrated by calling students by name or creating group activities. With a focus on training and preparation, the research indicates there's no reduction in student achievement and learning outcomes (Berger et al., 2009 and Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Application

Participate in training and practice Teaching via VC is very different from face to face class time. To properly prepare, professors must take time to engage in training. It is equally important to practice working in front of the camera (New York University, 2014). During the first class session, provide training for students. Remember, this is new for them as well. They need to understand the basic process. It would be helpful to create an information sheet. This is also a great time to let students know how to access you outside of class. This is necessary because they will not have access to the professor at the end of class sessions (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Create the session outline

This is key to ensure you have covered all the session components. "Time should be taken to organize and think about how to make the teaching interactive. Crucially, the lecturer will need to look at ways to encourage the audience to interact with him/her and each other" (Gill et al., 2005, p. 574). Unfortunately, there is no room for spontaneity with VC (Shephard, 2016). Think through how to engage off-site students. The timetable needs to be formatted in a manner that allows the professor to engage all students (Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Utilize interpersonal skills.
Learn student names, call them by name each time, and build rapport. This promotes engagement and creates an inclusive environment. In addition, remember to speak clearly and look at the camera when talking (New York University, 2014 and Mukherjee et al, 2017).

Develop assessments for technology.
This is especially important during the first launch phase. Receiving feedback on student experiences will help address concerns for future courses. "Develop a simple evaluation tool for assessing student satisfaction, with the course delivery method and suggestions for the course. You will be able to modify your course structure and delivery if needed from the students' responses" (New York University, 2014, p. 2).

Methodology

Problem Statement
The use of technology tools has drastically increased over the past ten years. Past research demonstrated mixed findings related students’ perceptions on the use of technology in the classroom (Wiest 2015). The researchers investigated these findings further by completing an exploratory pilot study evaluating the students’ perceptions of the technology tools utilized in the classroom. The researchers utilized innovative technology tools (Blackboard, VTT, Gamification, Prezi, and Avatars) at a nonprofit Catholic institution in Florida to evaluate the students’ perceptions.

Purpose
The purpose of this study was to examine the students’ perception of the various tools utilized in the classroom of the School of Education and Social Science (SESS) at a nonprofit Catholic school in Central Florida.

Hypotheses
The researchers had two hypotheses for the study:
1. The researchers hypothesized that the students’ comments on the final course evaluations will express a positive benefit to engagement and student learning in the course.

2. The researchers hypothesized that the students’ course rating on the technology tools in the classroom, will be a 3 or higher on a 5 point scale.

Population
The population of interest for the study was comprised of six instructors’ courses over the academic year 2016-2017 in the School of Social Service which has programs in Criminal Justice, Social Work, Education, and Human Service. The study examined the students’ perception of the technology tools utilized in the classroom.

Sample
The sample size for the current study is based on current enrollment in the nonprofit Catholic institution’s courses for the six instructors in this study in the School of Education and Social Service. This was a purposeful sample (Creswell, 2009). There was a total of 64 end of the course evaluation for the academic year 2016-2017; however, not all end of the course evaluations had specific qualitative comments related to technology (Dr. Susan Kinsella, personal communication, August 26, 2017).

Sample Demographics
The demographic variables for this study were the enrollments in the School of Education and Social Services at the nonprofit Catholic institution for Fall 2016- Spring 2017. The four programs in the SESS have similar student demographics. The School serves not only traditional students but adult learners as well. The programs in SESS are located in over 40 States. The School has both male and female (Dr. Susan Kinsella, personal communication, August 26, 2017, Wiest 2015). The current age range of the School is 20 years old to 65-plus years old. Various ethnicities are represented in the
two programs, including Caucasian, Hispanic, African American, Jamaican, Russian, Polish, Haitian, and other. Students in both programs have various employment statuses as well. Along with employment diversity, students in the Schools have diverse families (married without children, married with children, single with children, single without children, divorced with children, divorced without children, cohabitating (Wiest, 2015). Lastly, the nonprofit Catholic institution serves a large veteran population, so some students in the School are active or retired veterans from all service branches (Saint Leo University website, n.d.).

Methodology
A pilot study was completed to examine the students’ perception of the teaching technology tools utilized in the classroom. An exploratory post survey model was conducted. A mix method approach was implemented to evaluate the students’ qualitative comments and overall rating of technology in the course on the end of course evaluations. The end of course evaluations were reviewed for the last academic year (2016-2017) The end of the course evaluations have a 4 point scale (1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 agree, and 4 strongly agree) which contains questions related to the resources in the class, the instructor, the technology in the class, and the overall learning experience. For this study, the researchers only examined the questions related to the technology tools used in the class and students’ satisfaction on the 4 point scale. Additionally, the researchers reviewed the qualitative remarks on the end of course evaluations to examine and find specific themes related to students’ perceptions of the specific technology tools in the course.

Procedure
The researchers reviewed their end of the course evaluations for the course they utilized the specific technology tools examined in the article. The researchers aggregated the
score of the question related to the overall satisfaction of technology tools used in the course. Lastly, the researchers examined the qualitative comments to discover any themes related to students’ perception of the technology tools implemented for the course.

Data Analysis

The researchers reviewed the end of the course evaluation for Fall 2016- Spring of 2017. The average rating was calculated for the one rating on the evaluations which examined the satisfaction of the technology tools utilized in the classroom. Additionally, the qualitative comments on the evaluations were reviewed. Comments which specifically noted the technology tools were taken out and examined further for themes and trends related to the students’ perceptions of the technology tools in the course.

Findings

In the table below, the mean scores for each program (human services, education, social work, and criminal justice) related to the technology tools utilized in the classroom are conveyed. Overall, each program score over the 3 for the tools in the classroom which assisted in the learning process. According to these findings, Hypothesis two is accepted.

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As for the qualitative comments on the evaluation, the feedback was limited. However, there were several comments which suggested the technology tools enhanced the learning process and allowed the students to grasp the materials with greater insight. For instance, the education students utilizing Blackboard Collaborate noted, “Collaborating with peers was helpful because it gave me more insight, ideas, and a level of comfort knowing I was not alone.” Overall, the students expressed positive feedback for the technology tools. Students believed they were more connected with peers and the instructor. Additionally, students felt the tools allowed the students to have greater knowledge through the implementation of the technology unlike course offering without the technology options. Some of these comments are:

“It allowed me to confirm contact information and gain added knowledge from my peers. It gave me real-time interaction that I miss online.”

“Blackboard allowed for instructors and the students to interact, share ideas, and give additional insight.”

“It allowed for peer input and thoughts which builds on the learning experience.”

“I was kept engaged and ready to learn”

“Made the concepts from the book visual and helped me learn.”

These comments highlight the positive feedback expressed from the students regarding the course tools. However, the students also conveyed challenges with the technology tools which were considered as well. For example, students noted there were too many materials via technology and would have preferred more discussion. Additionally, several students noted technology issues with the tools implemented in the course. These issues caused frustration and obstructed of the learning process.
Discussion
While the findings express a high level of satisfaction on the end of the course evaluations for the technology materials in the course, there is still limited insight with the pilot study. Reviewing the qualitative feedback sheds some light on the students’ perception for the various technology tools implemented. Students’ noted more connection and learning insight from these technology materials than the traditional platform in other courses. More importantly, this pilot study supports the need for more targeted research with a validated and reliable scale to fully examine students’ satisfaction and perception of the course technology tools. Along with a specific scale, some qualitative focus groups will further illuminate the views of the students of the technology tools utilized in the classroom.

Conclusion
In summary, the goal of integrating technology with education is to increase students’ understanding and retention of course concepts. Some studies indicate “a positive effect on learning and the overall improvement on the students’ level of understanding of materials” (Bolliger & Supanakorn, 2011, p. 471). As instructors, it is essential to remember technology is not going away. Therefore, it is necessary for professors to embrace tools that promote engagement and learning. VTT, gamification, Blackboard Collaborate, and Prezi, are some of the tools that, with the implementation of the best practices, can support growth for institutions, professors, and students. Maintain openness and flexibility during the implementation phase. Additionally, remember students are the target audience. The end goal is for them to leave with knowledge and understanding. Maintaining a focus on their growth will assist with planning course delivery through multiple technology tools. In this article, an overview of these tools in various learning platforms are presented. Lastly, the pilot study examined the students’
perception and satisfaction with the course technology tools. The study indicated a high satisfaction with the tools; however, further investigation is needed to fully understand all aspects of the students’ views and perceptions.

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An Examination of the Relationship between a Candidate’s Disposition Assessments from Admission to the Teacher Preparation Program to Completion of the Teacher Preparation Program

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Abstract
The research focused on clarifying the responsibility of the institutions preparing teacher candidates. The purpose was to develop candidates who possess dispositions so that they will be successful in the classroom and what to do about those candidates who do not possess those dispositions. The study focused on examining candidates’ perceptions of their own dispositions and if those dispositions changed as they progressed through the teacher education preparation program. The participants were all students admitted into the school of education who also completed their program of
study prior student teaching in a small college in southeastern Nebraska. Three statements were chosen from the candidate disposition self-assessment survey, as those most closely aligned with the requirements of the accrediting bodies. ANOVA was calculated on the pretest/posttest survey results for 95 candidates on all three statements. For statement 7, the p-value was .031747; for statement 13, the p-value was .00002; and for statement 14, the p-value was .009726 and all three were significant at p < .05. Further research was recommended to: add a third survey at the half way point of the teacher candidates’ education program to identify any concerns during the process; implement other strategies/opportunities to assess teacher education candidates’ dispositions; develop an intervention/remediation process for candidates who do not assess well; provide opportunities for candidates’ to reflect on their own dispositions to identify areas that may need to be strengthened; and to compare students self-perceptions of dispositions to faculty and practicum supervisors perceptions of disposition development.

Keywords: Disposition, teacher education candidate, assessment, teacher preparation.

Introduction
The goal of teacher education preparation programs in higher education institutions is to produce teachers who display dispositional attitudes that are consistent with successful teaching and social interaction. It is not enough to possess the requisite knowledge and skills, nor is it enough to articulate the appropriate beliefs (Cantor, 1995). As Cantor (1995) stated, having is not necessarily doing. Katz and Raths (1986) gave the example of listening; it is likely that most children have listening skills, but
they may or may not have the disposition to be listeners (Katz, 1986). The same holds true for future educators. They may possess the desired dispositional qualities, but are they able to consistently apply them? Our future educators will serve as role models for the students they serve. Zost (2014) states that having a disposition process in place will help communicate the overall expectations for teacher candidates, allow remediation and opportunities for growth, and support judging incompetence that would suggest that a teacher candidate is not qualified to teach in the regular classroom.

In 2012, Mark Wasicsko, Director of the National Network for the Study of Educator Dispositions (NNSED), contended that disposition is often what people remember when they fondly reflect on the qualities of their favorite teacher. Wasicsko conducted a nationwide survey in which 5,000 stories were collected. Seventy-five percent of the time, when students think of their favorite teacher what they first think of is a disposition (Edick, Danielson, & Edwards, 2006). If these are the qualities that constitute an effective educator, it makes sense that teacher education institutions should screen for them. Carroll (2011) stated it is common sense that basic qualities of honesty, integrity, and caring are the foundation in teacher education work. These qualities usually find their way into admission screening procedures for a teacher education program.

According to Carroll (2011), the purpose of screening is to prevent those who are obviously unqualified to teach from gaining access to the classroom, or the purpose can be to determine if teacher educators have a responsibility to help prospective teachers develop dispositions. Some researchers suggested that if a teacher has an inclination to interact or behave in a certain way, then certain behaviors should be addressed and changed (Anderson & Brydges, 2010). Dispositions for teaching are under construction.
at all times and they have a significant impact on how teacher candidates perceive, come to understand, and learn to enact the role of teacher. This study specifically examined the candidates’ perceptions of their own dispositions and if those dispositions changed as they progressed through the teacher preparation program. As teacher preparation institutions prepare candidates to become teachers and progress through the program from admission in their sophomore year to graduation in their senior year, there should be growth and improvement in candidates’ dispositions with regard to teaching. If a student is to improve and grow, he or she needs to be able to self-identify the required dispositions in their own self. Doing so will enable candidates to focus on and improve any areas of concern or needed growth. As they reach these goals, they can identify their own progress. This study examined one institution’s teacher education program and using archival data from when the teacher education institution asked the candidates to self-assess their disposition at both the beginning and end of their program. The results of this study provided a clear picture of whether or not the process of going through the teacher preparation program had any impact on the candidates’ self-perceptions of their dispositions as related to teaching. This information is critical in moving forward in making decisions about the effectiveness of the institution in developing dispositions for teacher education candidates as they move through the program. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to determine if candidates’ disposition self-evaluations used by an institution preparing the teacher candidates were effective in improving candidates’ disposition as they progressed through their program. Were the disposition self-evaluations that were assessed when first being admitted to the program improving as they proceed through the program as measured by Candidate Disposition Self-Evaluation at the end of their program? The research
examined the self-evaluation scores when the candidates began the program and again when the candidates completed the program. The significance of this project was that this research focused on the self-evaluation of teacher education dispositions. The emphasis on the importance of teacher candidate disposition should improve as the candidates’ progress through the program. This research examined that through the self-evaluation process. Were teacher education candidates seeing a difference in themselves as they proceeded through the program? The scores were compared to determine if there was a statistical significance between the two assessments. The participants were senior students who had just completed all of their course work just prior to their student teaching semester. The data were gathered from the Candidate Disposition Self-Evaluation instrument authored by the School of Education within the college. The college is a small, public teacher preparation college in southeastern Nebraska.

Research Questions
Student teachers complete a disposition self-evaluation instrument twice during their teacher preparation program, once after admission into the program and once at the completion of the program. These self-evaluations include a Likert-type scale with four options: outstanding, acceptable, evolving, and unacceptable. The two evaluations were compared to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between the two.

Q1. Is there a statistically significant difference between the disposition self-evaluation assessment of teacher education candidates given at the beginning and again at the completion of the teacher education preparation program?
Hypotheses
H10. There is no significant difference between the disposition self-evaluation assessment of teacher education candidates given at the beginning and at the completion of the teacher education preparation program.
H1a. There is a significant difference between the disposition self-evaluation assessment of teacher education candidates given at the beginning and at the completion of the teacher education preparation program.

Literature Review
The literature search strategy involved extensive research in the area of teacher education dispositions, standards, evaluation, identification, background, and recent trends and research. The search engines and library resources included EBSCOhost, ERIC, ProQuest, Educator’s Reference Complete, LearnTech Lib, NCU library, Google scholar, and Education World as well as multiple journals including but not limited to: Curriculum and Teaching Dialogue, Journal of Curriculum and Teaching, Phi Delta Kappa, and Educational Leadership. The researcher also utilized identified research articles from listed references as research articles.
Frederiksen, Cooner, and Stevenson (2011) conducted a study to determine whether there was a significant difference between the perceived dispositions in pre-service teachers in urban settings versus non-urban settings. This research once again points to the importance of examining candidate dispositions regardless of the setting, and if there is a difference between urban and non-urban settings, then what were they and why do they exist? Johnston, Almerico, Henriott, and Shapiro (2011) conducted research to assess and track dispositions of teacher education candidates even to the point of counseling candidates out of the teacher education program if necessary. A
modified interview protocol was implemented and candidates were rated as they went through the teacher education program. If the candidates scored below an acceptable level and did not show improvement over time, they were counseled out of the program. This process reinforces the importance of the disposition evaluation process in teacher preparation programs.

NCATE or CAEP (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation), as it is now called, encourages institutions to evaluate candidates’ disposition; it is important enough that CAEP makes it a criterion for accreditation approval. This research addresses the impact or influence the program is having on students’ self-evaluation of their disposition. There is much published research on the importance of teacher dispositions but research is lacking in assessing students’ self-perception of their disposition. This self-reflection can be critical for identifying strengths and weaknesses in their own disposition and in preparing candidates for the classroom.

Why Assess Dispositions?

What is the purpose of screening for dispositions for teaching? According to Carroll (2011), it can be to prevent those who were obviously unqualified to teach from gaining access to the classroom or it can be to determine if teacher educators have a responsibility to help prospective teachers develop dispositions. As some research has suggested, if a teacher has an inclination to interact or behave in a certain way, then certain behaviors should be addressed and changed (Anderson & Brydges, 2010). Dispositions for teaching are under construction at all times while also having a significant impact on how teacher candidates perceive, come to understand, and learn to enact the role of teacher.
Mark Wasicsko, director of NNSED, contended that a disposition is often what people remember when they fondly reflect on the qualities of their favorite teacher. Wasicsko conducted a nationwide survey in which 5,000 stories were collected. The survey revealed that 75% of the time when they think of their favorite teacher, what they first think of is a disposition (Edick et al., 2006). Walker (2008) also found that students, when asked, refer to personal qualities (qualitative) of their most memorable teacher, not of the teacher’s academic qualifications (quantitative), underscoring the importance of said qualities (Serdyukov & Ferguson, 2011). If these were the qualities that constitute an effective educator, it makes sense that teacher education institutions should screen for such qualities.

According to Da Ros-Voseles and Moss (2007), teacher preparation institutions are focusing on dispositions and send the message to future teachers that content knowledge alone will not suffice in the classroom today. According to Da Ros-Voseles and Moss, the educational process is about understanding the needs of their students. Da Ros-Voseles and Moss stated that a teacher’s disposition will set the tone for the classroom, which in turn affects the overall climate for students to be successful. In other words, setting a climate for success depends largely on the dispositions of the teacher in the classroom. As most experienced educators know, teachers must support the emotional and social well-being of the students in order to facilitate an atmosphere conducive to learning. According to Da Ros-Voseles and Moss, “As NCATE mandates that dispositions of teacher candidates continue to be evaluated, teacher education programs must consider how to strengthen candidates’ desired dispositions, while discouraging dispositions that might negatively impact their teaching skills and practices” (p. 90). Dispositions such as critical reflection, perseverance, empathy, and compassion should being strengthened throughout the teacher preparation program.
Conderman and Walker (2015) discussed a strong connection between a teacher’s disposition and the quality of student learning. The researchers discussed dispositions and standards that align to teacher behavior, especially those considered by NCATE. Communication, collaboration, and leadership are key characteristics teachers must obtain (Conderman & Walker, 2015). Teachers need to have a positive line of communication with all involved in the educational process. Teachers must talk with others and keep everyone on the same page about things happening in the classroom and at school as a whole. These communication and collaboration skills will further develop leadership skills for the future.

Conderman and Walker (2015) made an interesting point about teacher perceptions about disposition, including: perceptions about self, others, subject field, purpose and process of education, and one’s general frame of reference perceptions, and that teacher candidates should model these appropriate dispositions. Conderman and Walker demonstrated a rubric for acceptable and unacceptable dispositions for teachers where there are five different categories of acceptable disposition, including: caring, collaboration, creative and critical thinking, lifelong learning and scholarship, and diversity.

Schussler and Knarr (2013) researched moral sensibilities as a disposition in teaching. Their results were based on a case study viewed by three teacher candidates. The three candidates were selected from a pool of 43 candidates because they were at different levels in their teacher preparation and their views were representative of most candidates at each level of teacher preparation program. Each teacher was required to read a case study and respond to three questions: (a) What are the major issues of this case?; (b) What does Maria/Marcus need to be thinking about in relation to her/his teaching?; and (c) How should Maria/Marcus proceed?
According to Schussler and Knarr (2013), the teacher that was just starting his or her teacher preparation program did not respond well and the teacher that was near the end of his or her teacher preparation program responded much better. Schussler and Knarr attributed the practicums as the reason for the success. Teachers with more experience are more likely to have success.

Schussler and Knarr (2013) described teacher disposition by placing teacher disposition into two categories, the external context, and the internal context. The external context dealt with the classroom and the content taught in the classroom. Here they described the teaching in terms of varying instruction and assessment that will meet the needs of all students. One of the responses in the case study made this perfectly clear when the candidate responded that it is not fair to leave the struggling students behind but it is also unfair to make the excelling students wait around. The internal context dealt with understanding the environment (Schussler & Knarr, 2013). Teachers must recognize their own biases and understand that they are modeling behavior for their students. The best way they described this is through the building of relationships with your students. This does not mean teachers need to be the students’ best friend; rather, the teacher needs to understand the different circumstances that can occur and reflect on what it would be like to be the student.

The Importance of Assessing Dispositions
NCATE has increased its emphasis on teacher dispositions while working with the candidates as they prepare for accreditation (NCATE, 2008). Researchers studied the method that was used and required interviews to be done and reviewed for consensus by a panel of experts for refinement (Johnston et al., 2011). Faculty were used to evaluate dispositions of the candidates’ completed self-evaluation assessment. If the
candidate scored satisfactory or above, he or she was permitted to proceed through the program. If the candidate scored below satisfactory, he or she had to remediate and be re-evaluated later. This was the process implemented to meet the NCATE requirements for dispositions for this institution.

According to Payne and Summers (2008), teacher preparation institutions need to look at the exploration of dispositions to safeguard schools and students by ensuring that teacher candidates not only were content knowledgeable but were also disposed toward creating a safe learning environment for all students. There appears to be some consistency across the research that is pointing at the importance of preparing teachers beyond just the content knowledge they will be teaching. Payne and Summers suggested that the effectiveness of the assessment process for dispositions is imperative for preparing future educators; most importantly, teacher educators should hold themselves accountable to the professional dispositions that they value. Service-learning activities have also been explored in K-12 classroom and how they could affect their teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. Researchers discovered that pre-internship service-learners increased significantly in their TSE (Stewart, Allen, & Bai, 2011).

Meidl and Baumann (2015) suggested that community service can help teachers develop the characteristics that will lead to effective teaching. They examined a community service project for students that involved working for 2 days to help improve a needy school. The university involved hoped that this experience would help students develop attitudes that would help them be better teachers. There was no clear definition of teacher disposition, but generally, it was referred to as attitudes and behaviors that affect the ability to be an effective teacher. The goal of the program was to help develop the ability to care about other people and respond to their needs, as well as to be a situation for personal growth and reflection. The students had the
opportunity to interact with teachers and parents at the school who were willing to give up a weekend to make their school a better environment for their students. The students were then asked to journal about their experiences. Meidl and Baumann found that the journals contained reflections that showed development of empathy, caring, and an understanding of the necessity of teamwork, compromise, and respect for others.

Dispositions can be better assessed in the actual world rather than on paper, such as a what would you do test, according to research by Englehart et al. (2012). Their research was more about what teacher dispositions are and how to improve them in teachers. Englehart et al. described dispositions as “values, attitudes, and beliefs about children, subject matter, and the skills of teaching that cause teachers to act in positive or negative ways” (p. q26). They explained that it is very different to answer a question on paper than be faced with the same situation in real life. The research stressed the need for using both types of assessment to really have a good idea as to a teacher’s true disposition. When using both methods, teachers and their supervisors can have a better idea of what needs to be improved upon and how to go about the improvement.

Can Dispositions be Measured?
Carroll (2011) stated that the basic qualities of honesty, integrity, and caring must be the foundation for teacher education work. These qualities usually find their way into admission screening procedures for a teacher education program, prompting the question: how should institutions measure dispositions? Moreover, can measuring teacher education candidates’ disposition be done effectively? If so, what are institutions doing to measure it? Notar, Riley, Taylor, Thornburg, and Cargill (2009) noted that a universal list of teacher dispositions for educational programs to follow
does not exist. Although NCATE chose to include dispositions as an important component of all teacher education programs, they have not provided any clear guidance regarding the assessment of dispositions (Stoddard, Braun, Dukes, & Koorland, 2007). NCATE (2008) defined dispositions as:

Professional attitudes, values, and beliefs demonstrated through both verbal and nonverbal behaviors as educators interact with students, families, colleagues, and communities. These positive behaviors support student learning and development. NCATE expects institutions to assess professional dispositions based on observable behaviors in educational settings. The two professional dispositions that NCATE expects institutions to assess are fairness and the belief that all students can learn. Based on their mission and conceptual framework, professional education units can identify, define, and operationalize additional professional dispositions. (para. 15)

Brewer, Lindquist, and Altemueller (2011) noted that some institutions have developed a way to assess dispositions; however, few have an improvement process in place to remediate undesirable dispositions.

Perhaps the reason dispositions prove so elusive to measurement is that dispositions for teaching are under construction at all times. Candidates need assistance in building on the foundation of values, personal beliefs, ideals, and ideas they bring to teacher education, to construct a responsible professional identity and repertoire of practice (Carroll, 2011). Raths (2001) came to a similar conclusion; according to Rath, it may be tolerable to say to our candidates that our goal is to strengthen certain dispositions in our candidates, dispositions that almost surely already exist in our candidates. We would not be in the business of change but of strengthening.

Portfolio development provides the opportunity for pre-service teachers to reflect on their beliefs about teaching and learning (Wenzlaff, 1998). By working through the
portfolio, candidates have the opportunity to self-reflect and show growth including their own disposition assessments. Recognizing areas for improvement can be enhanced by utilizing the portfolio process. This process of reflecting on the many elements involved in developing a portfolio helps pre-service teachers develop the habit of being reflective, an approach to problem solving and decision making, and a basis for making evaluative judgments, which research suggests contributes strongly to being an effective teacher. It is as this self-reflection occurs during the portfolio development process that students realize their own beliefs about teaching. The goal is that once these dispositions are assessed and acknowledged, the teacher educators can better guide teacher education candidates through the teacher education program with an emphasis on fostering those dispositions, which leads to effective teaching.

According to Johnston et al. (2011), assessing the dispositions of teacher education candidates while they are in field internship experiences has been increasing by those responsible for the education and training of the teacher education candidates. Researchers have already validated disposition indicators so that now raters know what to rate. There is a growing need for clearer understanding and description of the indicators in each disposition characteristic. Clearer understanding would improve the consistency of rater agreements among raters. Johnston et al. believed that teacher education preparation programs should expand previous disposition assessment efforts by defining the characteristics so that the construct represented by each indicator to increase understanding by both raters and ratees. Johnston et al. wanted to develop a greater understanding of dispositions being assessed in teacher education programs by identifying characteristics, which focus on the meaning of a given disposition. Through this process, Johnston et al. developed an assessment tool to measure candidate dispositions in the field/clinical experience for teacher education candidates.
Jarvis-Selinger and Pratt (2011) indicated that during the process of becoming teachers by successfully completing a teacher education program, students have the opportunity to be both student and teacher. This dual role allows them insight from both perspectives and challenges the teacher education candidates own beliefs on teaching and learning. Pratt noted it is a mix of field experience and coursework in most teacher preparation programs that allow for the combined perspectives. Serdyukov and Ferguson (2011) determined that dispositions have become a part of teacher education professional qualifications. Ferguson suggested that the growing concern over dispositions affects all those involved. As a result, teacher education institutions are having conversations about the various attributes related to teacher education candidate dispositions and ways to develop them more consistently. Ferguson’s research identified four different dispositional categories that included individual dispositions, candidates’ perceptions of dispositions, and their change as the candidates move through their teacher education preparation program. L’Allier, Elish-Piper and Young (2011) stated that much research exists about the importance of dispositions for teacher education candidates and its relation with initial certification; however, Young contended that there is little or no follow up for attending to dispositions as teachers progress through their career. Young indicated this attention to dispositions can be done for advanced certification candidates. Advanced certification candidates can be those teachers seeking additional teaching endorsements or licensure and/or teachers seeking an advanced degree. Young asked, what dispositions are expected of advanced certification candidates? How can these dispositions be explicitly defined, observed, and evaluated? What can be done to encourage the development of these dispositions as candidates progress through the program? Young’s research led to the development of disposition evaluation rubrics
that will be helpful to define, evaluate, and nurture the dispositions needed by teacher education candidates.

The evaluation of the dispositions of teacher candidates has been mandated by NCATE and has been included in the accreditation standards for teacher education units. Da Ros-Voseles and Moss (2011) indicated that teacher education programs can help strengthen the dispositions of their teacher education candidates as well as their teaching skills. Moss identified five dispositions of effective teachers: empathy, positive view of self, positive view of others, genuineness, and a meaningful purpose and vision.

In Singh and Stoloff’s (2008) research, they discuss how teacher quality has become a top priority, not just for our schools of education but also as reflected in our national education policy. Empirical evidence suggests that teacher inputs have an effect on student outcomes, which only makes sense, but the empirical evidence to support that conclusion adds validity (Singh & Stoloff, 2008). Teacher dispositions are equally as critical for student achievement, as are teachers’ pedagogical and content knowledge/skills (Singh & Stoloff, 2008). NCATE and Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) require that teacher preparation programs assess the dispositions of their teacher candidates. Given that, Singh and Stoloff developed a dispositions evaluation tool, Eastern Teacher Dispositions Index (ESTDI), and administered it to 86 teacher candidates.

Pang, Nichols, Terwilliger, and Walsh (2014) introduced a pre-service teacher disposition assessment system implemented at a state university. The goal was to increase the effectiveness of both its candidates and its program, including candidate disposition. The Teacher Disposition Checklist (TDC) was administered during the candidates’ last semester while student teaching. Three semesters of disposition assessment data were analyzed. The results indicated that pre-service teachers at the
university possess positive dispositions; there were minor deficits in the skills of collaboration and life-long learning but not related to dispositions for effective teaching (Pang et al., 2014).

Defining dispositions is necessary if dispositions are to be measured and assessed (Cummins & Asempapa, 2013). Cummins and Asempapa asked if dispositions are fixed, meaning, are dispositions caught and inherent to personality or can they be taught and can dispositions be fostered and learned? Different universities across the country use different definitions. Are dispositions based on perception of self, others, subject field, purpose of education, and process of education? Or are dispositions based on personality traits such as responsibility, dependability, creativity, empathy, and professionalism?

Cummins and Asempapa (2013) wanted to know if teachers became teachers because they automatically possessed the qualities desirable in a teacher, or if teachers learned them in the process of becoming a teacher. Are dispositions caught or taught? The hypothesis in their research study worked off the premise that dispositions can be fostered and supported through teaching interventions provided in teacher preparation courses. The study took place at an urban university in an early childhood program. Ninety-nine students were given a pretest on the topics before instruction began on day one and then again on the last day of class to see if there were any changes in these three categories. This test was much more reliable, as the number of students is greater and they were only being compared to themselves. Tests were coded and students were asked not to put their names in it. This omission increased the reliability as well, since the scoring was anonymous. Tests had 25 questions and were scored with 1 as the weakest knowledge of the concepts and 5 as the strongest. There were also three open-ended questions. The results of the study were not statistically significant, with $p =$
.05167 on the t-test. There was a slight increase in both the mean scores of both collaboration and professionalism. The researchers also said that professionalism was slightly higher both before and after the test. Inclusion was the skill students struggled with on the pretest and somewhat on the posttest. Classroom practices that reflect this disposition may be new to many students, even those who may have come predisposed with the tendency and capability of being inclusive. Therefore, the teaching interventions may have had a greater impact because this disposition provided the greatest room for growth. It would also explain why this category had the most growth from pretest to posttest.

When to Assess for Dispositions

With the assertion that it is critical to measure disposition, the next question is when? Welch, Pitts, Tenini, Kuenlen, and Wood (2010) found some teacher education programs assess dispositions of prospective students as a means to judge applicants for program acceptance, while others measure candidates at various points throughout the program itself (p. 182). Serdyukov and Ferguson (2011) made a strong argument for both. They contended that teacher education should be concerned about not only what we want our candidates to know by the end of the program but also about whom we are accepting into this profession and preparing to teach our children. Because dispositions for teaching are under construction at all times, they have a significant impact on how teacher candidates perceive, come to understand, and learn to enact the role of teacher (Carroll, 2011).

Teacher readiness and skills they need to acquire before going out into the field of education bring together some common overall ethical standards in interactions and relationships as noted by Choi, Benson, and Shudak (2016). According to Choi et al.,
teachers should have a variety of skills and knowledge in content areas; they identified personal characteristics for teachers to obtain. These include: responsibility, respect, integrity, caring/humanity, fairness, and belief that all children can learn. Choi et al.’s research indicated that teachers need to be dedicated, professional (clothing and disposition), clear and concise, time manageable, have positive communication, follow school district rules and procedures, react to diversity, accept feedback, be truthful, maintain confidentiality, listen to others’ ideas, fosters positive communication, be approachable, provide differentiated instruction, be encouraging, and hold high expectations for students.

Even as early as preschool, there is a need for some consistency in dispositions as part of an early-childhood program (Peck, Maude, & Brotherson, 2015). Peck et al.’s (2015) interview study was conducted with preschool teachers who were asked about how they conveyed empathy in their classrooms. Several interviews were conducted with 18 preschool teachers in different preschool programs and their responses were analyzed and coded.

Peck et al. (2015) concluded many things from their findings, but one particular salient portion of their findings was the disposition towards inclusion that all of the teachers had in common. All teachers discussed being willing to teach any student in their classroom, regardless of socioeconomic status, disability, or any other factor. This sets preschool teachers apart from many other teachers in other grades because we begin to reach a point where students are leveled into classes or guided reading groups, students are pulled out for SPED, speech, or other things, or put into separate classrooms altogether. Broadly, preschool still has a hold on the inclusionary model, and this disposition is clearly communicated to students. One teacher, in her interview, discussed the inclusion of students’ families in the classroom. She said that by knowing
siblings’ names and greeting them in the same way she greets her own students, she communicates to her students that everyone is important in this classroom. Neugebauer’s (2011) research revealed similar findings from a national poll asking people what they thought was the most important qualification of a preschool teacher, including degrees, training, and dispositions. Neugebauer found that a nurturing disposition and a love of children is, indeed, very important in a preschool teacher. Not to say that it is not important that the teacher be fully trained in the pedagogy and theory behind what they are doing in the classroom, but the focus at the preschool level in Neugebauer’s survey seems to emphasize the importance at a young age for a nurturing environment that helps create a safe environment and one that is conducive to learning.

Methodology

The methodology includes the research method and design implemented in the study. It also includes the data collection, processes and data analysis and discusses the assumptions and limitations of the study as well as the results and findings.

Research Methods and Design(s)

This research was quantitative to determine if there is a statistical significance between the disposition self-evaluation at the beginning of the teacher education program and the disposition self-evaluation at the conclusion of the teacher education program. The sampling size included all students in the teacher education program in their first teacher education course - 95 students. This number included all students in the program for the years 2013, 2014, and 2015. The institution is a small regional college in southeastern Nebraska with a history as a teacher’s college. This size was chosen as it
includes all students in the program at that time. The goal was to determine if there is a significant difference in teacher education candidate dispositions evaluations as they progress through the teacher education program. Teacher Education candidates completed the disposition self-evaluation in their first teacher education program course and then completed the same disposition self-evaluation during the conclusion of their teacher education program, which was typically during student teaching.

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis
The study data were collected from the disposition self-evaluation instrument administered to the candidates enrolled in the teacher education preparation program in a small college in Southeast Nebraska. The institution is part of the Nebraska State College System and is the oldest teacher preparation college in Nebraska. As the teacher education candidates were admitted to the teacher education program, they were required to take the teacher education candidate disposition self-evaluation; they were required to take the same evaluation at the end of their teacher education program, typically prior student teaching.

The data gathered from the initial teacher education candidates’ self-evaluation were compared to data from the candidates’ self-evaluation gathered at the end of the candidates’ program. The data gathered from the candidates’ disposition self-evaluation at the start and conclusion of their preparation program were analyzed for statistical significance to determine if the candidates’ disposition changed during their teacher education preparation program. A copy of the evaluation instrument used by the institution was included (Appendix A). The results of those surveys were examined to determine if there was a significant difference between the two and if, according to the students’ own perceptions, this method was effective.
The research question asked if there was a statistically significant difference between the disposition self-assessment given at the beginning and again at the completion of the teacher education preparation program. The self-assessment disposition survey consists of 18 statements; the first four are identifier statements that had been left out of this research for that very reason. The remaining 14 statements had the teacher education candidates assess themselves on a 4-point scale, the options being: outstanding, acceptable, evolving, and unacceptable. For the purpose of this study, the statements that dealt directly with dispositions related to teacher education were identified. Those statements were: statement 7 – I demonstrate self-direction and initiative in my learning and practice; statement 13 – my decisions, interactions, and behaviors positively impact the culture and climate of the learning environment; and statement 14 – I demonstrate professional preparedness through organization, planning, and goal setting. This study examined the results of those surveys to see if there was a significant difference between the two to determine if, according to the students’ own perceptions, this method is effective.

Assumptions
The population for this study included all of the teacher education candidates that completed their teacher education program at a small, public university system college in the Midwestern United States. One assumption for this study was that the need for assessing dispositions for this type of population would continue to be emphasized by the accrediting bodies, the institutions, and the public schools they serve. This emphasis on teacher education candidate dispositions has been increasing due to accreditation standards that require some evaluation process for dispositions (NCATE,
and institutions the prepare teacher candidates were having to show how dispositions were being addresses and/or evaluated.

An assumption is that this study was objective, apart from the researcher, and the researcher was independent from what was being researched. The methodological assumption was that this was a deductive process focused on statistical data to guide the results to explain and predict the results. Another assumption was that the respondents were honest in their evaluations on the measurement scale being utilized. Another assumption was that the population was representative of teacher education candidates at other institutions of higher education that prepare teacher education candidates for the classroom.

Limitations
This study was limited by the location of the study; the population of the study was the complete set of teacher education candidates from one higher education institution and therefore was limited as to whether those candidates would be comparable to candidates in institutions across the country. The study used the evaluation tool devised by the institution being studied to evaluate their teacher education candidates. While the creators of the instrument are experts in their field, the tool had not been used in other educational institutions. This could lead to a limitation in validity of the instrument, but has been addressed by applying the consistent usage of the instrument over time for several years.

Delimitations
The research questions were chosen and were within researcher control and are a delimitation of this study. These factors were within the researcher’s control and were
chosen to address the problem identified. The problem itself was a delimitation, as there could have been other problems drawn from the study population. This study could be generalizable to teacher education institution located in the same region that prepare teacher education candidates and that need to provide evidence to their accrediting bodies.

Results/Findings
The findings of this study revealed that for the three statements chosen from the candidates’ self-evaluation survey, a significant difference exists between the pretest and posttest data, thus supporting the institutional goal that the teacher education candidates show growth in their dispositions as they progress through the program. ANOVA for data for all three statements resulted in a statistically significant findings at \( p<.05 \).

These results were expected but not predictable, as this type of study had not been conducted previously. The results were expected because of the goal of the institutions process to have a significant impact on their candidates. The findings are even more significant because the data were based on the candidates’ own self-evaluations. The findings reflect statistically significant growth in the perceptions of the teacher education candidates. This was encouraging as research supported the importance of dispositions; Edick et al. (2006) reported that 75% of the time when students think of their favorite teacher what they first think of is a disposition.

These results can be utilized by leaders of other institutions who may be considering the option of implementing an assessment involving candidates’ self-evaluation. As Anderson and Brydges’ (2010) research states, if teachers have an inclination to interact or behave in a certain way, then certain behaviors should be addressed and changed.
The belief is that the candidates are, to some degree, responsible for their own growth in the area of having the appropriate disposition to be successful in the classroom. If the candidates can identify those dispositions in themselves, then they can be better prepared for a future in education.

Discussion

The problem statement focused on analyzing the effectiveness of a teacher education program in regard to improving the dispositions of their teacher education candidates as they progress through the teacher education program. The results of the study stated implications, recommendations, and conclusions based on the results of the analysis of data provided through the survey. This survey was the unique element of this study in that the teacher education candidates were self-assessing their own dispositions. ANOVA was used to determine the significance of the comparison of the pretest and posttest assessments on each of the three statements. The data from 95 teacher education candidates includes all of the candidates at the institution involved in the study for the year 2012, 2013, and 2014. The three statements used in this study were the three that most closely aligned with the accreditation standards required for the institution.

The three limitations of this study pertained to the location, the population, and the evaluation tool. The first limitation was the location of the study, which is a small rural state institution in southeastern Nebraska. The second was the population of the study, which was the complete set of teacher education candidates from one higher education institution. This population limited whether or not these same results would apply to a larger university with more candidates to assess. The third limitation was the evaluation tool, which was devised by the institution being studied and could have
affected the validity of the instrument. This limitation was addressed by applying the consistent usage of the instrument over time for several years. The results demonstrate a statistically significant difference in all three statements as applied to the research question. The results of this study were clear that there was statistical evidence that the teacher education program at this institution had a significant impact on the candidates’ perceptions of their own dispositions, as measured by the self-evaluation instrument.

Recommendations were included based on the results of the study. The first recommendation was to add a third survey at the half way point of the teacher candidates’ education program to identify any concerns during the process. The second was to implement other strategies/opportunities to assess teacher education candidates’ dispositions. The third recommendation was to develop an intervention/remediation for candidates who do not assess well. The fourth was to provide opportunities for candidates to reflect on their own dispositions to identify areas that may need to be strengthened. Additional recommendations were to research the comparison of students’ self-perceptions of dispositions to faculty and practicum supervisors’ perceptions of disposition development and continue to develop and improve the disposition process implementing a more systematic approach.

As an educator for more than 25 years, it is my recommendation that the area of teacher education disposition become more of a focal point for teacher preparation institutions. I have experienced too many educators who are either burnt out or simply do not have the personality (disposition) to be working with students. Teacher education institutions have more than an opportunity to change this; they have a responsibility to provide the best future educators in the world. The impact a teacher has on a student is immeasurable and teacher education preparation programs should embrace this
responsibility with the goal to reach and teach all students. No student should have to endure the disposition issues of a teacher while trying to grow and learn. We should provide the most supportive educational environment possible.

References


## Tables and Figures

Table 1

*Summary of ANOVA Data for Statement 7*

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**Result Details**

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The $f$-ratio value is 4.68171. The $p$-value is .031747. The result is significant at $p < .05$.

Table 2

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The $f$-ratio value is 19.14182. The $p$-value is .00002. The result is significant at $p < .05$.

Table 3

*Summary of ANOVA Data for Statement 14*

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### Result Details

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The $f$-ratio value is 6.823. The $p$-value is .009726. The result is significant at $p < .05$. 
Examining the Use of Pedagogy Rubrics to Influence and Enhance Mathematics Instruction

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Rivier University

Joseph Spadano received a Bachelor of Science degree from Fitchburg State University and a Master’s Degree and Doctorate from the University of Massachusetts Lowell. Dr. Spadano taught mathematics at Westford Academy and presently holds a dual appointment as Associate Professor in the Division of Education and Department of Mathematics at Rivier University. Dr. Spadano was a 2001 recipient of the Presidential Award for Excellence in Mathematics and Science Teaching, a 2002 recipient of the Distinguished Alumni Award from the University of Massachusetts Lowell, and is a National Board Certified Teacher. He is also a proud member of Pi Sigma Upsilon.

Abstract
Teaching methodology is often influenced by the way we were taught. Despite reform initiatives recommending a pedagogy that is learner-centered, too many mathematics classrooms remain teacher-centered. This qualitative research study investigated elementary and middle school pre-service teachers’ beliefs of mathematics education and examined the use of pedagogy rubrics in their mathematics methods courses. The purpose of the study was to analyze the pedagogy rubrics and provide valid inferences about how the rubrics influenced and enhanced the pre-service candidates’ mathematics teaching and learning. Research data were collected in the form of classroom discourse and learning experiences, as well as reflective writings that
examined learner outcomes associated with the use of the pedagogy rubrics. The data indicated that, when students became increasingly familiar with each rubric and its application pre-service teachers communicated more precisely about teaching and learning as processes and were able to identify and advance desirable mathematical behaviors.

Keywords: Pedagogy Rubrics, Teaching and Learning Mathematics, Problem Solving Educational Orientations.

Introduction
In education, rubrics are commonly referenced as assessment tools. Typically, scoring rubrics are crafted to focus on measuring stated outcome-based objectives in the areas of knowledge, skills, behaviors, and performance. Rubrics are often used by teachers, and students, to monitor academic progress and promote growth. A rubric may also be used in setting goals and guidelines for teachers and students to evaluate complex and subjective criteria.

In this study, three pedagogy rubrics were designed for the purpose of highlighting and evaluating the complex endeavor of teaching mathematics in elementary and middle school. The criteria measured in the pedagogy rubrics included Mathematical Practice and Process Standards, with an increased emphasis on the process of Problem Solving. Twenty undergraduate students enrolled in the course, Teaching Elementary and Middle School Mathematics (Grades 4-8), and four graduate students enrolled in the course, Teaching Mathematics in Grades PreK-3, participated in a qualitative study to examine and analyze the use of pedagogy rubrics through a rich variety of classroom activities and problem solving situations. Pedagogy scoring rubrics used in classroom
learning experiences provided students with a basis for methodology investigation, self-evaluation, reflection, and peer review. These students’ efforts contributed to the data used for this qualitative study.

The reason for this research study was to advance the vision of reform initiatives that embrace a student-centered mathematics classroom. The goal of this research project was to investigate and promote the importance of methodology on learner outcomes. The intent of the study was to provide pre-service teachers with a focused emphasis on the knowledge, skills, and behaviors surrounding mathematics pedagogy that is heavily influenced by mathematics practice and process standards. The purpose of this study was to contribute to the growing knowledge base of recent reform initiatives dedicated to moving mathematics classrooms from teacher-driven to learner-centered.

Literature Review
Rubrics have many purposes and corresponding results. Teachers use rubrics in grading or evaluating student efforts and are used by students when planning their work (Dawson, 2015). The rubric has become a popular educational tool for both teachers and students because it provides clarity of evaluative criteria and a visible evaluative scheme. This literature review will discuss the purposes of rubrics that directly influence and enhance teaching and learning behaviors.

The structure of a rubric often contains three major categories: evaluative criteria, quality definitions for those criteria, and a scoring strategy (Herman, Aschbacher, and Winters, 1992; Popham, 1997). Scoring rubrics are usually, and purposefully, public. The visible nature of rubric criteria may inform students of assignment expectations and provide opportunities for students to self-evaluate. Goodrich (1996) explains rubrics may help students to examine their own work, as well as the work of others,
providing a basis for reflection and peer-editing. Scoring rubrics can also improve scoring consistency. Teachers can reference a rubric in discussions with students about assignment criteria and related evaluative schemes. With clear criteria and exemplars of quality work, grading may become more reliable while advancing understanding (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007; Stevens & Levi, 2013). Typically, rubrics are either holistic or analytic. Holistic rubrics are used to evaluate a product or process as an overall, collective measure using a rating scale with general meaning, such as, proficient - on standard - approaching standard. Analytic rubrics address specific aspects of an on-going project and, although they may use the same rating scale as holistic rubrics, each identified dimension of the product or process is measured separately (Brown, Irving, & Keegan, 2014). Grubb (1981) advocates holistic rubric use when scoring practices or standards associated with a product, process, or performance. The holistic rubric suggests the development, or sophistication, of the degree to which a standard has been met, a strategy has been used, or practices have led to performance. The value of examining well-planned and well-implemented pedagogy rubrics in mathematical methods courses is worthy of consideration. However, the research lacks clarity on rubrics measuring pedagogy or methodology. What does a well-planned and well-implemented pedagogy rubric look like in the mathematics methods classroom? This research project addressed this question and contributed to the knowledge base of pedagogy used teaching-methods courses.

Methodology
This research study investigated reasonable evaluative criteria, quality definitions for those criteria, and an appropriate scoring strategy for pedagogy rubrics. The qualitative
methodology examined a structured approach that compartmentalized mathematics practice and process standards into pedagogy rubrics. In this research, three pedagogy rubrics were introduced to pre-service teachers to provide a basis for valid inferences about how the rubrics influenced mathematics teaching and learning. Twenty undergraduate students enrolled in the course, Teaching Elementary and Middle School Mathematics (Grades 4-8), and four graduate students enrolled in the course, Teaching Mathematics in Grades PreK-3, participated in a qualitative study to examine and analyze the use of pedagogy rubrics through a rich variety of classroom activities, problem solving situations.

The methodology of this study involved an emergent design with grounded theory. This research’s emergent methodology involved students in generating, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating data through the use of the pedagogy rubrics. The emergent design capitalized on the adaptability of the human-as-instrument by utilizing natural skills of listening, observing, inferencing, discussing, and judging (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This research was investigative and attempted to facilitate and illuminate the phenomena surrounding the use of pedagogy rubrics in mathematics learning experiences. The data that emerged were student efforts from classroom assignments, reflective writings that analyzed the application of the rubrics, and through classroom discourse.

Along with the researcher, students in the methods courses mutually shaped data to guard against deliberate or subconscious distortions by providing feedback through individual and classroom discussions as well as reflective writing assignments. The focus of inquiry was students’ reactions to, and reflections on, rubrics measuring mathematics practices and processes embedded in a problem solving educational orientation. This generated grounded theory, theory that follows from data rather than
preceding them, and produced working hypotheses worthy of educational consideration (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

On the first day of class, students were given a brief survey related to their beliefs about the teaching and learning of mathematics. The students’ responses were used to generate discussion of academically productive thought through clarification, elaboration, and redirection techniques, as well as eliciting feelings. In a general sense, notes related to these responses were useful as the beginning of developmental data points in the study. Students were also introduced to the major categories of three pedagogy rubrics (see below).

1. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) Process Standards Rubric
   a. Evaluative Criteria: 5 Process Standards
      1) Communication
      2) Connections
      3) Reasoning and Proof
      4) Representation
      5) Problem Solving
   c. Scoring Strategy for Evaluating those Criteria: Identifying artifacts or aspects of learning that evidence a standard has been addressed.

2. Polya’s Problem Solving Method Rubric
   a. Evaluative Criteria: Polya’s 4 Problem Solving Phases
      1) Understanding the Problem
      2) Devising a Plan
3) Carrying Out the Plan
4) Looking Back


c) Scoring Strategy for Evaluating those Criteria: Identifying artifacts or aspects of learning that evidence a strategy has been used, or practices have led to performance.

3. The Common Core State Standards for Mathematical Practice Rubric
   a) Evaluative Criteria: 8 Standards for Mathematical Practices
      1) Make Sense of Problems and Persevere in Solving Them
      2) Reason Abstractly and Quantitatively
      3) Construct Arguments and Critique Reasoning
      4) Model with Mathematics
      5) Use Appropriate Tools Strategically
      6) Attend to Precision
      7) Look for and Make Use of Structure
      8) Look for and Express Regularity in Repeated Reasoning


c) Scoring Strategy for Evaluating those Criteria: Identifying artifacts or aspects of learning that evidence a standard has been addressed, a strategy has been used, or practices have led to performance.

The teaching methodology used in the methods courses was problem-based. Classroom learning experiences were implemented in a problem solving educational orientation. Given a problem to solve, students were expected to navigate the problem solving process using Polya's (1988) problem solving framework. The phases of this
framework were the evaluative criteria in Polya’s Problem Solving Method Rubric. Students were given assignments to identify artifacts or aspects of learning within each phase of the problem solving framework. Students’ efforts in identifying and compartmentalizing artifacts were considered to be the scoring strategy for evaluating those criteria. In similar assignments, students were expected to make pedagogy judgments by identifying and compartmentalizing artifacts or aspects of learning within the evaluative criteria of the NCTM Process Standards Rubric and the Standards for Mathematical Practice Rubric. Students were also asked to develop, present, analyze, critique, and revise their own lesson plans, as well as those of others, using these pedagogy rubrics. Coursework efforts were collected, analyzed, synthesized, and evaluated through semi-structured personal conversations, class discussions, and reflective journal entries. Reflective journal writings were peer-edited to triangulate data and to refine the understanding of the focus of inquiry, examining pedagogy rubrics. The coursework efforts elaborated on content and themes through students’ interpretations and judgments of the pedagogy rubrics. The strength of the phenomenological descriptions involved the specific experiences as conveyed by the students. There were no rewards or penalties for participation in this study. There were no risks or discomforts associated with this research project beyond that which might be considered typical risks or discomforts associated with learning. There were no direct benefits to students for taking part in this study beyond that which might be considered typical benefits or rewards associated with learning. This study was considered experimental insofar as learning experiences and students’ efforts, in any educative course of study, are considered experiments in the practice of teaching.
Results/Findings
The purpose of the study was to analyze pedagogy rubrics and provide valid inferences about how the rubrics influenced and enhanced the pre-service candidates’ mathematics teaching and learning. Research data were collected and emerged in the form of classroom discourse and learning experiences, as well as reflective writings that examined learner outcomes associated with the use of the pedagogy rubrics. The data indicated that, when students became increasingly familiar with each rubric and its application, pre-service teachers communicated more precisely about teaching and learning as processes and were able to identify and advance desirable methods of mathematical instruction.
In classroom discussions and written reflections, each methods student recognized and confirmed the importance of mathematical process and practice standards in the teaching and learning of mathematics. The data suggested that student efforts in isolating and identifying evaluative criteria within pedagogy rubrics highlighted teaching as a conscious and deliberate skill. The consensus was, summarily, that process and practice standards were ways students acquired knowledge.
The data evidenced that NCTM Process Standards and the Common Core State Standards for Mathematical Practice became visible within Polya’s (1988) problem solving framework during problem solving activities. The data suggested that students engaged in a problem solving educational orientation (PSEO) were active agents, central to the learning process. The data also evidenced a PSEO was a vehicle for identifying the overlapping nature of process and practice standards. The participants of the study all agreed that problem-based lessons required shifting various educative roles and responsibilities from the teacher to the students.
The data indicated that a PSEO advanced learners’ ownership of understanding and represented a productive learning environment. In classroom discussions and written reflections, students recognized and confirmed that artifacts generated within process and practice standards rubrics became measureable learner outcomes. The educative activity of identifying mathematics knowledge or resources within process and practice standards was considered most effective and appropriate in their methods-of-teaching study.

Discussion
Our personal experiences as students in mathematics classrooms may conjure images of teachers directing lessons that “mechanically apply the algorithm of the day”. In these classrooms solving exercises was considered learning mathematics. A new vision of teaching and learning mathematics presents a problem to be solved as the focal point of inquiry and emphasizes process and practice standards as continuous and coherent activities in instruction. This research substantiates the importance of methodology on learner outcomes. The study also suggests implementing a PSEO highlighted mathematics process and practice standards and served as a well-planned, well-structured pedagogical approach. Perhaps more importantly, the mathematical pedagogy and classrooms in this research study stood in stark contrast to the pedagogy and classrooms students may have experienced. This raises the possibility that a new vision of mathematics teaching and learning may be advanced.

The data of this research suggests an emphasis on well-planned and well-implemented pedagogy may influence and enhance the methodology used by pre-service teacher candidates in their future classrooms. The strength of this study was the use of pedagogy rubrics derived from research-based standards and practices. The
operationally defined evaluative criteria of the rubrics were public, a key to this study for triangulating data. The holistic scoring rubrics provided a basis for data collection in students’ self-evaluation, reflection, and peer review. This structured approach may be worthy of consideration by classroom teachers and for future research.

This research may have implications beyond the mathematics classroom to include other content disciplines. The degree to which this research is transferable may depend on the rubrics’ universal appeal in the contexts of process and practice standards as 21st century skills. Teachers, business people, and behavioral science personnel may find this research useful or educationally significant if they wish to explore complex evaluative criteria or client understanding through process and practice standards.

This study was intended to introduce pedagogy rubrics as a means of influencing and enhancing the methodology used by pre-service candidates in the elementary and middle school classroom. For “students of teaching” that would soon become “teachers of students”, the examination of pedagogy rubrics as a means of improving instruction and supporting learning provided insights and propositions of practical working hypotheses for educational consideration. The research contributed to the knowledge base and may be a catalyst for future educational consideration. There are limitations to this study. The findings from this research pertain to particular events for a specific time, place, and situation. Although methods of triangulation and mutual shaping were used to safeguard against possible bias, it should be noted that an additional limitation of this research involved self-reporting in its methodology. Further research may include a field-tested study in a K-12 educational setting. Future pedagogy research may also explore a quantitative analysis of academic growth over a longer period of time.
References

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Exploring the Relationship between Identity Development, Student Achievement, and the Decision to Engage a Post-Secondary Education among Upward Bound Students

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*Southeastern Louisiana University*

Dr. John Hatcher has worked at the elementary, middle, and high school levels; while teaching at the post graduate level for the past 24 years. Dr. Hatcher’s research focus is in the area of African American Male identity development crisis and its’ relationship to academic achievement. Dr. Hatcher has used his knowledge, skills, and passion as a teacher in support of homes, schools, and communities and is a published author. Dr. John Hatcher is a strong advocate for youth development, life-long learning, building leadership capacity, and training youth to be positive leaders in their homes and communities.

**Abstract**

All participants will engage in the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure – Revised (MEIM-R) survey which measures identity development. This will be done in order to gain insights into the survey experience and further questions regarding identity development, up to 10 percent of participants will be randomly selected to be interviewed using a semi-structured interview protocol developed by the researchers. Based on the results of the survey data and interviews, participants may be organized into one of four focus groups comprised of up to 15 students in order to collect follow-
up data that is specific to each identity development status. Student achievement and demographic data will be gathered from the Upward Bound program. Quantitative data from the surveys and preexisting data from Upward Bound will be analyzed to identify trends over time, differences between identity development groups, and outcomes of the Upward Bound program. Qualitative data from interviews and focus groups will be recorded using audio for interviews and video with audio for focus groups, then the data will be transcribed. The data analysis will provide insights related to identity development, academic achievement, the decision to engage a post-secondary education, and the role of the Upward Bound program in each.
Exploring the Use of Technology to Support Literacy of Sixth Grade Students with Reading Disabilities

Jaime Renee Inman
Lindenwood University

Dr. Inman has been an educator for over 10 years, teaching technology to grades K-12 in public and private education settings. Dr. Inman has extensive experience in teaching various computer programming language classes. Dr. Inman has served as an adjunct instructor at the University of Missouri—St. Louis, teaching in the ACP program in computer information systems. In addition, she also has worked as a technology coordinator and webmaster for a private school and completed her Bachelor of Science degree in business administration with minors in accounting and marketing from Maryville University. Dr. Inman holds teaching certificates in early childhood and business education and completed her doctorate at the University of Missouri—St. Louis, an EdD in curriculum and instruction. She holds a Master’s degree in curriculum and instruction from the University of Missouri—St. Louis, as well as a Master of Arts in Teaching from Webster University in educational technology. Dr. Inman serves as the Program Director and Assistant Professor of undergraduate Information Technology for the School of Accelerated Degree Programs.

Abstract
The degree to which the utilization of technology supports the academic achievement of sixth grade students with reading disabilities was examined using a quantitative
research design. The data analysis involved the results from the Educational Technology Assessment Program to measure achievement. The Standardized Test for the Assessment of Reading (STAR) provided 2015-2016 scores regarding academic accomplishment of middle school students with reading disabilities. The central research question was developed based on the current literature on the impact technology can have on student academic achievement (Grinager, 2006). Using a specially designed survey, the researcher examined the teachers’ understanding of educational technology and what technology was used to support learning in students with reading disabilities was determined. Along with the technology used by teachers, student reading scores, as well parent and student perception of technology use surveys were used to answer the research questions. In comparing data sources (STAR assessment and surveys), the degree to which technology supports student academic achievement was described.

Keywords: Assistive Technology, Google Education, Middle School, Reading Disabilities, Technology in the Classroom.

Introduction
Technology is everywhere in today’s society. It is available in every aspect of our lives, from communicating via cell phones and social media, to banking and mobile apps, even in healthcare and education. The list gets longer and longer as new technology advances appear in our lives. Most would say that technology has improved our lives, it has placed information at our fingertips such as directions on Google maps, finding a restaurant or a doctor and even paying bills through mobile apps. Most importantly, how does technology improve or support the education system? Does it support the
needs of students with learning or reading disabilities? The purpose of this research is to describe the use of technology in helping students with reading disabilities. In this research, the researcher will be looking at the technology used by teachers and parents to help their students learn, such as multimedia, educational apps, tablets and Google Education.

Multimedia is a form of technology used in the classroom, using or involving several forms of communication or expression. Google Education offers Google Apps that are free to school districts and educators and uses completely online or cloud-based applications. According to Techopedia website, Google Apps is a brand of cloud computing, productivity and collaboration tools, software and products that were developed by Google. Cloud application is an application program that functions on the cloud (online), not on a user’s device (Rouse, 2016). According to Google Education website, it offers a core suite of productivity applications that Google makes available to schools and educational institutions. These communication and collaboration apps include Gmail, Calendar, Drive, Docs and classroom sites. Google Apps for Education account unlocks access to dozens of other collaborative tools supported by Google.

Technology has enhanced the lives of students in many ways, such as how they communicate, learn, work and relate to one another. As society changes, so do learning styles and as they evolve, education changes as well. Developing advanced technology in schools continues to take place in the 21st century classrooms, (Gagnon, Hughes, Maccini, 2002). But does technology support student learning? And how does the use of technology support higher achievement of middle school students with reading disabilities? According to research, there are new approaches to enhance students’ reading skills through the use of technology-based practices. For example, computer or video-based multimedia program, technology-based assessments or audio texts,
enhance students’ reading skills (Gagnon, Hughes, Maccini, 2002). Guthrie and Davis (2003), have noticed a relationship between technology, curriculum and learning by using real world experiences and personal interaction to connect students to technology and reading. Students have the ability to link to online museums, digital databases, take a virtual tour all through the use of the Internet, making the connection through the use of technology. Technology in education provides students the opportunities for technology literacy, information literacy, the capacity for lifelong learning and prepares students for 21st century skills, (Gagnon, Hughes, Maccini, 2002). While there are numerous ways to define 21st century skills, for this study, the researcher will use the definition from the Partnership for 21st Century Skills framework (P21), focusing on the information, media, and technology portion. Figure below is an illustration of 21st century skills:

Figure 1: Partnership for 21st century skills

Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2007) was designed with recommendations from teachers, education experts and business leaders to create a support system to ensure students are prepared for their future in work, life and citizenship. This study will focus more on the information, media and technology skills when the researcher refers to 21st Century Skills. The P21 Framework focuses on four key subjects that are described as 21st Century Skills:

Life and Career Skills:
- Flexibility and Adaptability
- Initiative and Self-Direction
- Social and Cross-Cultural Skills
• Productivity and Accountability
• Leadership and Responsibility
Information, Media and Technology Skills:
• Information Literacy
• Media Literacy
• ICT (Information, Communication and Technology) Literacy
Learning and Innovation Skills:
• Creating and Innovation
• Critical Thinking and Problem Solving
• Communication

As Goon (2012) explains, John Dewey proposed a significant relationship between student achievement and the process of life skills (Dewey, 1916). According to Goon (2012), “John Dewey describes it’s the teacher’s obligation to mix the ingredients of studies and relevant life skills to make a significant contribution to the value of a student’s life,” (p. 1). John Dewey presented the theory of progressive education. Progressive education includes an emphasis on learning by incorporating hands-on projects, expeditionary learning, experiential learning, and collaborative and cooperative learning projects. Teachers can use these learning opportunities and relate them to technology projects, such as grouping students together in a research project on the Internet and assign the students a PowerPoint presentation.

Dewey conveys it's important to incorporate relevant life skills into the classroom. Students need educational experiences to help them feel empowered. Teachers can help
students feel valued, equal and responsible members of the society, these are all critical life skills. Dewey’s idea is still relevant in today’s 21st Century Skills and educational technology, as teachers struggle to find ways to use educational technology to impact student academic achievement, (Goon, 2012). Educational technology has logical connections with several theorists, such as Jean Piaget’s Constructivist Learning Theory. This theory focuses on knowledge and learning (Fosent, 1996). “Piaget advocated that knowledge is a construction and not a reality, but an understanding, which is continuously being revised and reconstructed as a new experience” (Goon, 2012, p. 22). The Constructivist approach to learning engages learners. Like incorporating technology into the curriculum, students are exploring and personalizing the material during the learning process. Learning transforms into a more project-based instruction allowing learners to experience the world by doing things, rather than just receiving information by listening, according to Goon, (2012). Similar to Piaget’s work, students are using technology to build their academic understanding, using problem-solving skills and gaining 21st century technology skills.

Reading Disability

Learning to read can be taught at a young age, especially in grades 1-3. Teaching reading includes a developmental process involving letter and word recognition, decoding, comprehension and fluency. According to the Online Encyclopedia of Mental Disorders, a reading disability is a learning disorder that involves significant impairment of reading accuracy, speed, or comprehension to the extent that the impairment interferes with academic achievement or activities of daily life. Students with reading disorder perform reading tasks well below the level one would expect on the basis of their general intelligence, educational opportunities, and physical health.
“A common reading disorder is dyslexia. Dyslexia, however, usually includes deficits in spelling and writing as well as reading” (Online Encyclopedia of Mental Disorders, “Description,” para. 2). What happens when students fail to read? Educators begin to search for additional resources to include different instructional teaching methods or materials. It’s important for teachers to remember the shift to technology skills in today’s changing society of learners as a part of of 21st century skills. Incorporating technology into a struggling reader’s curriculum may increase their academic achievement. Through the advancement of technology for students with learning needs, support from technology is becoming more common in our country’s schools. Technology can be an efficient instrument that advances a student’s contribution in the learning process and helps students with accessing and arranging information, (Maccini, Gagnon, Hughes, 2002).

Moats and Tolman (2009) found that students who are reading impaired might be the individuals who score underneath the 30th percentile in reading skills. Among every one of those poor readers, around 70-80 percent experience difficulty with word acknowledgment and comprehension. Another 10-15 percent of poor readers have all the earmarks of reading correctly, but are too slow in word recognition and text reading to score well on tests. Reading-disabled students have a particular weakness with the rate of word acknowledgment and responding to programmed review of word spellings, but may do well on tests on phoneme awareness and other phonological aptitudes. These types of students’ experience difficulty creating automatic acknowledgment of words by sight and tend to spell phonetically, yet not precisely. According to Moats & Tolman (2009), “They also have found that another 10-15 percent of battling readers seem to translate words better than they can comprehend the meanings of passages. These struggling readers are also recognized as dyslexic readers
since they can read words accurately and rapidly and they can spell,” (para 3). Students with dyslexia have reading issues that could be brought about by the different number of thinking, theoretical verbal thought or language comprehensions required for successful reading. There are three types of reading disabilities that can overlap but can also be separate and distinct, such as phonological deficit, processing speed/orthographic processing deficit and comprehension deficit. Moats and Tolman (2009) defined “phonological deficit as implicating a core problem in the phonological processing system of oral language. Processing speed/orthographic handling deficiency influences speed and exactness of printed word acknowledgment and is known as a naming pace issue or familiarity issue” (para 3). However, comprehension deficit can be found in young students with social-phonetic inabilities, vocabulary weaknesses, dialect learning disarranges, learning challenges that influence conceptual thinking and logical thinking (Moats and Tolman, 2009). According to LD Online (2016), students with reading disabilities may experience one or more of the following reading characteristics along with low comprehension:

- Reads slowly and deliberately
- Rereads lines in oral reading
- May substitute, omit, or transpose letters, words, syllables, and phrases
- Has trouble using basic phonics to sound out words
- Has decoding problems (difficulty with sound-symbol relationships and distinguishing between sounds and between certain letters)
- Loses place on page or skips lines, words and numbers
- Has poor comprehension of written materials
- Reads with an overdependence on guessing and compromises comprehension

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- Reads with an overdependence on guessing and compromises comprehension
• Does not like to read (Ruedel, Silver-Pacuilla, 2004, p. 5-6).

Methodology
The objective is to measure, examine and identify how the use of technology can support the academic achievement of middle school students with reading disabilities. As a mixed methods study; teachers, parents and students were surveyed on what technologies are being utilized in the classroom and at home as a support for student achievement. Analysis of the School District’s Educational Assessment data was used to measure achievement. The Standardized Test for the Assessment of Reading (STAR) assessment provided 2015-2016 scores regarding academic accomplishment of sixth grade students with reading disabilities. The technology that the school incorporated to help support students with reading disabilities was identified. The central research questions were developed based on the current literature review on the impact of technology on student academic achievements (Grinager, 2006). How does the use of technology enhance the academic achievement of middle school students with reading disabilities? What educational technology do reading teachers use in the classroom? What educational technology support do students have at home for their reading disabilities? Chapter three presents a detailed overview of the purpose, describes the research methods used and includes the research questions, population and sample, instrumentation, procedures and the data analysis.

Results and Discussions
Results
Results of this study offers a look at how technology supports students with reading disabilities. This research concentrated on one middle school with the participation of
sixth-grade students, teachers, and parents and collected thorough analysis of surveys regarding the use of technology as a support tool for students with reading disabilities. Chapter five presents an overview of the research including a comprehensive summary of the findings as they relate to the research questions, the study’s limitations, implications, recommendations for future research and researchers’ reflections. According to Glatthorn, Boschee F., Whitehead, Boschee B., (2012) there is increasing evidence showing when technology is executed correctly, it can have a substantial impact on student achievement. The data collected for this study is similar to results found by, Guthrie and Davis (2003) who noticed a relationship between technology, curriculum and learning by using real world experiences and personal interaction to connect students to technology and reading. There are some academic benefits that technology can enhance problem-solving skills, writing processes, content and higher order thinking skills. From the data collected, two themes emerged from all three survey responses: the use of technology and purpose of technology. In addition, the data responses showed how the use of technology provided enhanced learning and how the purpose of technology can support different individual learning styles of students with learning disabilities.

Findings and Conclusion
A detailed description of the data analysis, the results of the study and themes were presented in this study. Through this quantitative and descriptive analysis, two themes were generated by this research. With the use of the surveys that were taken by the participants, the researcher found two themes related to the research questions and literature review. Even though a majority of the results had positive feedback the researcher recommends future research.
Theme 1: Use of Technology.

Research question #1: “How does the use of technology support the academic achievement of sixth-grade students with reading disabilities?” According to fifty students with some type of learning disability who participated in this research study, 91% expressed technology was very important to learning and having access to technology, they stated they learned better from the use of technology. Ninety-four percent of the students who took the survey questions specified that technology is important to their learning experience (survey question # 11 Appendix G). This result is similar to what was found in the literature. According to Glatthorn et al., 2012, research stated several beneficial outcomes when a relationship is established between technology, curriculum, and learning. Some of the academic benefits that technology can have are enhanced problem-solving skills, writing processes, content, and higher-order thinking skills (Gulek and Hakan, 2005). According to Gagnon, Hughes, Maccini, 2002, there are new methods to enhance students’ reading skills through the use of technology-based practices. Some use of technology expressed by teachers was 1-to-1 laptop environment, Google Education along with Google Apps, which provided an interactive approach to learning and collaborative learning with classmates and teachers. Technology can meet the instructional needs of individual students in different ways based on each student’s needs.

The 2015-2016 Standardized Test for the Assessment of Reading (STAR), measured the students reading scores during Fall of 2015 and Spring of 2016. During Fall of 2015, the STAR test was administered to the students in September of 2015 and then administered to students in Spring of 2016 in April of 2016. When comparing the mean of student’s results from the STAR test, the mean for Fall and Spring, reported a small increase in the student’s score. Variable 1 (Fall scores) reported a mean of 790.74 and
Variable 2 (Spring scores) showed a mean of 820.22 for the student’s reading scores, thus in an increase in reading scores for students. Studies suggest that students with reading disabilities can learn how to compensate for their disabilities (Raskind, 2000). Because of this, it is suggested that there is a need for further investigation into the student’s reading scores, looking to see if there is continuous reading improvement and how technology might enhance achievement.

Research question #2: “What educational technology do teachers use in the classroom?”

According to 30 participating teachers, the most used technology teachers reported using was Quizlet, Google Docs, You Tube, Khan Academy, Wordle, Ted Ed, Google Education, QR Codes, and Prezi. Teachers reported some use of, Social learning (EdModo, Pinterest, Twitter, Etc.) Dropbox, iPads, and SlideShare. The least used technology tools that teachers reported 0% for Fun Brain, Animoto, Diigo, Popplet and Evernote.

Nearly thirty-seven percent of the teachers reported strong agreement that technology has improved the effectiveness of their classroom, 46.7% agreed, 16.7% were neutral and 0% disagreed. When teachers were asked how do students benefit from technology in their classroom? Teachers reported that technology allows students to practice the material in different ways and is helpful for students who learn best by “doing” things rather than just hearing or seeing. Students are able to work at their own pace when utilizing technology vs. having to wait for those that might work at a slower pace.

These results are similar to what was found in the literature. According to Glatthorn et al. (2012), technology can not only improve student achievement, but it can also create an enriched technological society that the student needs in order to impact students learning. The research showed that the use of technology can increase student’s writing
skills (Gulek and Hakan, 2005). Research finds that effective teachers are the primary success of student’s achievement (Goe, 2007).

Theme 2: Purpose of Technology.
Research question #3: “What educational technology support do students have at home to help overcome their reading disabilities?” One hundred per cent of surveyed parents strongly agree that “technology has been a great tool for my student’s learning needs.” From the parent’s survey, 60% parents strongly agree that their students are encouraged to use technology at school for school projects, while, 40% agree, and 0% disagree, strongly disagree, and not applicable. Question 17 surveyed the parents, “My child frequently uses technology for homework.” One hundred percent of the parents agree. Forty percent of parents ranked technology a high need for their student’s education today.

Parents reported that technology does support their student’s learning needs, that the world is ever-changing, technology creates student engagement in the classroom, and technology supports their child’s learning needs for research, writing, and spelling. Technology helps with resources such as research skills. Ways to engage students through technology based practices, use of computer or video-based multimedia program or technology-based assessments (Gagnon, Hughes, Maccini, 2002). Parents reported through the survey that the world is changing, and technology in education provides students with endless opportunities for technical literacy, information literacy, the capacity for lifelong learning and prepares students for 21st century skills (Gagnon, Hughes, Maccini, 2002). It is evident to the parents that technology is a support tool for their child’s learning needs. The literature shows that technology is a supportive tool and enhances student achievement (Gulek and Hakan, 2005). According to classroom
observation, when implemented correctly, technology in the classroom can be a support system for students with reading disabilities. Technology provides new resources for means of obtaining unlimited information, for example Internet use, enables sharing and collaboration among teachers and peers (Peterson-Karlan, 2011). Incorporating more assistive technology tools or software can improve or support students reading disabilities, such as using audiobooks, voice thread, and speech synthesizers/screen readers (Stanberry, 2015).

Discussion

This mixed methods research study revealed that technology is a support tool to students with reading disabilities to all learning needs and their future. After examining a middle school’s technology and surveying the teachers, parents, and students, it was concluded that technology provides a large support of the student’s learning needs. Student’s learning needs can range based on the type of learner they are, such as, visual, auditory, verbal or physical. With this variety of learning styles, technology can address learning needs that individual teachers cannot. Students can interact with technology at their own pace, review lessons and material at their own time to enhance understanding and memory. Computer-based tools can assist students to develop visual, kinesthetic, aural and oral skills. Physically disabled students can benefit from assistive technology and be able to participate with their peers (Whittenberger, 2013). This district and middle school that was researched became a 1-to-1 laptop environment and selected Chromebooks because of their ability to meet the educational needs of their students and the integration with Google Apps for Education. With the use of Chromebooks, students have the increased experience to access a wide range of educational resources and have the opportunities to collaborate with their teachers and peers. Through using Chromebooks, students solve problems and develop problem-
solving skills. By becoming a 1-to-1 program, this technology opens doors to enhance student learning by helping students become active thinkers and engaged in their learning as well as using this tool as a resource for their learning needs.

The findings from this study supported that technology can support students with reading disabilities. The district, teachers, and parents have made a strong commitment to technology use as a tool for their student’s needs.

With the high demands of technology in the classroom, there can be one negative impact on students and technology. Not every student or household may have the access to technology. Some school districts and parents can fall into this issue. The “digital divide” is the gap between those who have ready access to technology products and services and those who do not have access to these items. Digital divide is an interaction between human and computers. The ability to access computers and the Internet has become completely important to our society. Parents and students need to have access to the Internet to check grades and homework assignments. However, not everyone has access to such luxury. This idea of Digital Divide refers to the underprivileged society, rural, elderly and handicapped population. While the wealthy, middle-class and young Americans living in areas, such as urban and suburban areas all have access to these tools. According to new figures released by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), little more than 4 in 10 individuals around the world have Internet access in 2015. Currently, research shows the higher the household income more technology access and products a home may have. Lower income homes are not providing Internet access or technology products in the home. According to the Census 2013, majority of the households who have access to Internet and technology, these homes have very well educated individuals who hold college degrees. And finally, the Census 2013 reported that Hispanic, black and Native American households
adopted the Internet more than white households. It’s very clear that a more educated society would have access to such items as technology. But how can we help with the digital divide in the 21st-Century society? There are various ways to help with Digital Divide, communities, and public sectors can take a large part in helping with Digital Divide. Internet Service Providers can help with the lower cost to low-income families or lower basic phone services that provide Internet access through mobile devices. More community access throughout the public community, possibly government-funded programs to all free public Wi-Fi. The Obama administration realized how important it is to help stop Digital Divide. The administration has started the ConnectHome program to help Americans find ways to have access to help create better opportunities for Americans.

Conclusions
The purpose of this study was to analyze data that was collected through surveys and observation of what technology is being utilized in the classroom as a tool for a resource for students with reading disabilities. Demonstrated in the literature, education has shifted from a traditional instruction approach to a more modern approach with the use of technology (Schenk, 2010). Technology has enhanced the lives of students in many ways, such as how they communicate and learn. Technology in education provides students with the opportunities in such ways as information, resources and collaboration, all while it is preparing students for the future. The findings in this study suggest that the use of technology we can enhance a student’s academic achievement. The intent of this study is to find the support that is needed to encourage the use of technology as an important tool to enhance student learning. The researcher believes through this study, the role of technology can support diverse student learning needs and will provide a basis for continued future studies.
Recommendations
It is recommended that further research on parent involvement with the use of technology in the classroom be undertaken. Further an enlarged parent input by having more parents take the survey would deepen the understanding. The district could offer more support or parent workshops for the parents on ways to use technology at home. It is recommended that research be conducted in additional middle schools in the same district to broaden the scope of perspectives. The study could have a higher parent participation rate if the surveys were given out to more middle schools within the district. Furthermore, it is recommended to do a comparative study with other nearby districts to see if the observed results can be more broadly interpreted.

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Fostering Positive School and Classroom Climates: Valuing Diversity, Modeling Empathy, and Preventing Bullying

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Sara Lamb Kistler

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Abstract
This presentation will focus on the critical influence of positive school and classroom climates on children’s ability to learn and thrive in school. The classroom needs to be a
safe place where kindness and understanding of differences triumph over wrongful acts and bullying. Research has pointed to early intervention in the form of recognizing emotions, and teaching and modeling empathy and perspective taking, to mitigate children's unacceptable behaviors. We will explore such questions as: Why is bullying an important concern for teachers? and What can teachers do to alleviate and prevent bullying and its consequences? We will discuss face-to-face bullying and cyberbullying. We will present survey data we gleaned from student teachers on their perceived background knowledge and self-efficacy concerning bullying prevention. Participants will come to a better understanding of the problem of bullying and ways to ensure positive school and classroom climates, where diversity is valued and empathy modeled to safeguard all students. Participants will be engaged through the use of a handout that will signal several pauses in the presentation to encourage sharing of experiences and offering comments or recommendations regarding the research.
The Impact of a Study Abroad Experience on Bilingual /TESL Students: Challenging Their "Sense of Self"

Terrence McCain
Central Washington University

Terrence McCain, Ph.D. is a professor of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) and Bilingual Education at Central Washington University in Ellensburg, Washington. He is a former Peace Corp volunteer who served in Honduras. His research focuses on language issues, international education, and globalization. He has led a study abroad program for Bilingual/TESL students in Honduras for the past six years.

Abstract

The Impact of a Study Abroad Experience on Bilingual /TESL Students: Challenging Their “Sense of Self”

For various reasons many universities here in the U.S., and internationally, encourage their students to study abroad. As a result, our BIL/TESL program at Central Washington University has offered undergraduate BIL/TESL minors the opportunity to complete a three-week BIL/TESL practicum at local schools in Honduras since 2011. The purpose of this presentation is to analyze the impact such an experience has on their self-identity (sense of self).
Through my observations, interviews, and their reflective journals, it is clear that the BIL/TESL minors who participated in the Honduras practicum developed profound empathy toward disadvantaged children who come from developing countries. Although they developed this sense of empathy, they tend to hold on to a sense of entitlement particularly with local living conditions, available food, and cultural practices. This may partly be due to the amount of attention they received in the local schools and the community where they stayed. The children in the schools and the local people were exceedingly attentive to their needs, which enhanced their sense of self-importance. Because the students came from a university in the U.S., the Honduran teachers viewed them as superior educators. Their methods and approach to teaching were not questioned by their Honduran counterparts.

The goals of our BIL/TESL practicum abroad are to improve instructional skills, assist in the classroom, and partake in the local culture. This can be a daunting task for students who feel a sense of superiority or entitlement upon arriving in a developing nation. When encountering the inherent economic inequality and social instability of a developing nation, students may end up being preoccupied with protecting their sense of who they are (sense of self). The juxtaposition of feelings of insecurity and entitlement force students to reflect on who they are as educators and people.

I will conclude with suggestions and ways that students can keep an appropriate perspective and focus on what it means to be an educator in a developing nation.
Implementing the edTPA: A Willie Wonka Experience

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Brooke A. Burks, Ph.D. is an associate professor of Secondary Education at Auburn University at Montgomery. She serves as edTPA Coordinator and Secondary Education Program Chair. Dr. Burks has published and presented research related to education, writing, and technology, which are her key research interests. She specifically focuses on pre-service educators and their preparation.

Dr. Haley received her Ph.D. in Elementary Education from Mississippi State University and currently serves as an Associate Professor and Interim Department Chair of Elementary and Secondary Education at Tuskegee University. She supervises student teachers, teaches pre-service elementary majors, and serves as a student advisor. She is the University’s edTPA Coordinator and serves as co-advisor for the Golden Key International Honour Society.

Abstract
In 2015, the state of Alabama began piloting the Education Teacher Performance Assessment, better known as edTPA. In Fall 2018, the performance assessment becomes consequential, meaning teacher candidates must receive a passing score to be certified in the state. Since 2015, education preparation providers (EPPs) have been working
diligently to learn about the new assessment and to incorporate its tasks into coursework. Furthermore, each EPP has sent representation to numerous conferences and has brought in experts to assist with preparing faculty for the nuances of the assessment.

The presenters will engage the audience in a discussion of our processes in becoming edTPA experts at our two institutions. The experience, much like Willie Wonka’s chocolate factory, has been filled with delicious segways, trying underpasses, and doubtful moments. Yet, in the end, some does survive to tell the story.
Impostership: A Search for the Cause to get to the Cure

Patricia Coberly-Holt
Armstrong State University

Dr. Holt earned a doctorate in Adult Education in 1994 from the University of Arkansas. A full professor at Armstrong State University since 1996, her researched interest has focused on adult learner success. This interest began in the form of discovering issues that impede learning in adulthood, moved into overcoming negative emotions associated with the classroom, and is now in search of the initial causes of these emotions in an effort to obstruct these emotions and their negative effects before they take hold.

Abstract
Dirkx observed in 2008, that in one form or another, emotional issues never seem very far from the surface in adult learning contexts (as cited in Taylor and Marienau, 2016, p. 52). Although emotions can be positive, negative emotions often arise that can inhibit effectiveness in the classroom. Impostership, one of these negative emotional conditions, is ubiquitous throughout the field of adult education. In an effort to stem the flow and assist learners in overcoming the negative effects, this session examines possible causes as described by current adult learners.
Is There Space for Co-Mingling Mexican Parents’ Learned Mathematical Knowledge With Their Children’s School Learned Ways of Thinking and Doing Mathematics?

Gilbert Duenas  
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Dr. Gilbert Duenas became a faculty member in the College of Education in August 2011. In this capacity, he teaches undergraduate and graduate courses focused on early childhood and elementary education. He supervises pre-service teacher candidates’ during field experiences, practicum and internship within K - 6 classrooms. He is published within international, national and state, peer-reviewed journals as well as delivered numerous conference presentations both in the United States and overseas. Prior to his current duties, Dr. Duenas was a third grade classroom teacher for 7.5 years. Last, Dr. Duenas completed a 30-year career in the United States Air Force.

**Abstract**

In the daily moments of the Mexican household, parents tap their accumulated cultural knowledge of mathematics as a framework for influencing their children’s use of mathematics for making sense of their immediate world. From 18 months of household visits and bi-monthly conversations in the Spanish language with three families, the researcher gained unique insights of the parents’ childhood either on a ranch, a marketplace, or the daily, one-hour trek to the schoolhouse. These parents’ cultural frame of reference—prior experiences with mathematics, life events, and native language—underlies their children’s out-of-school learning that at times conflicts with...
school-learned strategies. As a result of many heartfelt conversations, the researcher came to understand what these parents sought from their child’s school teacher—a trusting alliance as well as tacit acknowledgement of parental knowledge.

Introduction
Within the household, the parents of a Mexican household intuitively draw upon their own native language, prior life and [limited] school experiences to guide their children’s out-of-school learning with respect to knowing and doing mathematics. The parents’ efforts to teach their children about mathematics is not necessarily an academic endeavor; rather, the parents’ efforts can be described in terms of nurturing their children to successfully perform a household task while simultaneously embracing the role of mathematics. The breadth of the parents’ mathematics knowledge will closely resonate with their own childhood upbringing in Mexico—early morning chores to feed farm animals, mending wire fences to safeguard livestock, making morning breakfast for 10 – 15 family members, or completing construction/renovation projects.

Conflict between culturally learned and school learned mathematics practices
Having migrated from Mexico to the United States in order to secure a better standard of living and educational system for their children, the parents extol their children to respect the classroom teacher (Fuller & Coll, 2010) and learn as much as possible from their school experience. As children begin to develop English language competence and embrace both the concepts and strategies of school mathematics, the parents at times become conflicted or alienated during conversations with their children—due to not understanding the math vocabulary or the school’s teaching practices. Part of the parents’ consternation is how to communicate with the classroom teacher the desire to
have their household and cultural knowledge being viewed as legitimate resources for their child to rely upon in performing mathematics problem solving at school (Good, Masewicz, & Vogel, 2010). It is the hope of these Mexican parents to forge a collaborative relationship with the school teacher; more significantly, a trusting bond that includes a recognized parity for each other’s ways of nurturing children’s incremental acquisition of mathematical precepts (Auerbach, 2011). These parents realize the journey to connect with the classroom teacher will be inherently difficult because of their limited ability to speak the English language or difficulty with knowing the mathematical vocabulary due to their limited schooling opportunities in Mexico.

Civil, Diez-Palomar, Menendez-Gomez and Acosta-Iriqui (2008) reported that Latino parents’ prior learning experiences influences the manner in which they attempt to engage with their children’s mathematics education. In many instances, the parents attempt to impose their own learned ways of doing mathematics without emphasizing that their children explain or justify their solution process. Furthermore, in attempting to help their children with mathematics homework, Civil (2006) noted that parents rely upon their own prior learning experiences in Mexico grounded in their own distinct, cultural frame of reference; a system that involves memorization of facts, computation and sometimes problem solving. Parents recall the classroom teacher’s emphasis in the early school years to memorize their multiplication facts and to recite the facts in any order—a learning goal that the parents feel is not sufficiently emphasized as much in U. S. schools as evidenced in this comment, “Children in their current schools do not know them and refer to the back of their notebook to look at the multiplication tables” (p. 10). In efforts to assist in their children’s out of school learning, the parents and children’s mathematics perspective and ensuring discourse may lead to conflict between the
parents’ own experiences as children in Mexico and what they see their own children doing based on reform-based math curriculum (Civil, 2006; Civil & Quintos, 2006). In some instances however, the differences in perspective between the home and school learning practices may lead to an opportunity for parent and child to learn from one another (Civil, et al. 2008). In other instances, Planas and Civil (2009) noted that the parent-child discord in approaches to mathematics may prompt individuals to ultimately “use an argument to defend an answer that is wrong independent from the method used to get the result” (p. 13). The Hispanic parents’ prior experiences with school in general, i.e., the content of mathematics and algorithms for teaching and learning mathematics, and their children’s need to learn a second language are two other factors moderating the parents’ involvement with their children’s out of school learning. At the cognitive level, the parent recognizes but does not understand mathematical words and precepts that are presented in the English language. At the affective level, the parents develop feelings of low self-esteem as a result of being linguistically excluded from their child’s school learning (Civil, et al. 2008).

Building bridges between home and school toward mathematics’ understanding Capitalizing on what Latino students already know in their own culture versus an emphasis on student errors is clearly a prerequisite for building their level of self-confidence and self-efficacy in approaching mathematics. Minority students become empowered to more readily generate their own knowledge when the classroom teacher allows students to access their second language and acknowledges their cultural identity in mathematics dialogue (Cummins, 1986). With respect to using the student’s primary language especially while the student is developing proficiency in the English language, Secada, Fennema and Adajian (1995) asserted, “Without attention to making
bridges between meanings and terminologies developed in the two contexts, that is, home and school, mathematical discussions could be less than effective and may even be incomprehensible” (p. 282). Adding a corollary viewpoint, Civil (2008) asserted that minority, non-English speaking students do bring family knowledge and experience to school. However, traditional school practices that overlook a student’s cultural knowledge or native language tend to lessen that student’s opportunity for success at learning mathematics and literacy. Reforms in classroom mathematics discourse must shift away from whether English language learners understand the vocabulary or can distinguish amongst multiple word meanings. Instead, teachers should be receptive to the child’s use of multiple resources such as gestures, objects, and their native language to express mathematical ideas (Orellana, Reynolds, Dorner, & Meza, 2003; Moschkovich, 2002).

In their research of teachers using their children’s cultural knowledge within a Mexican-American community, Gutstein, Lipman, Hernandez, and De Los Reyes (1997) portrayed a classroom teacher’s actions to empower her students to become critical thinkers. The classroom teacher switched between English and Spanish and used Spanish cognates such as escala for scale while engaging students in informal mathematics as a platform for accessing their informal knowledge; or as Ladson-Billings (1994) noted, ‘pulling knowledge out of students’ and challenging students to construct their own interpretation. In more recent research, McDuffie, Wohlhuter, and Breyfogle (2011) reiterated that classroom teachers need to know their students’ experiences and background. One reason would be to determine the most relevant learning experiences for them and secondly to guide them toward high level reasoning tasks. Montelongo, Hernandez, Herter, and Cuello (2011) indicated that many Latino English learners
arrive at elementary schools “with many English-Spanish cognates in their listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabularies” (p. 429) for example coleccionar meaning gathered or collected. Understanding the experiential level of students, the classroom teacher knowingly makes the necessary accommodations to fill the void between what they presently know and where they need to be in terms of the lesson objective. An intentional practice to fill the void is classroom teachers using questioning techniques as a way to develop students’ mathematical thinking and reasoning skills and in particular peer-to-peer questions. “Language is a tool for thought, but mathematics can only become a universal language when everyone is empowered to understand it, use it to communicate mathematical meaning, and apply it in their everyday lives” (Sheet, as cited in Leonard, 2008, p. 150).

Valorization of Household Funds of Knowledge

Drawing upon a dissertation focus on four Latino young women’s participation in school mathematics, Jilk (2007) identified two characteristics particularly significant in empowering the students to view themselves as successful learners of mathematics. First, the students utilized their cultural identities (referred to as the Funds of Knowledge) to regularly translate the classroom teacher’s practices, curriculum expectations, and appropriate ways of interacting in order to make sense of their learning environment. Second, the students felt there were certain pedagogical practices in their classrooms that encouraged their engagement in mathematics; some of these practices were the valorization of collaborative groups and multiple ways of expressing mathematical thinking. In exploring the conflict that at times arises between the parents’ and the school’s way of learning mathematics, Quintos, Bratton and Civil (2005) explained, “The knowledge that working class and minoritized parents possess is
not given the same value as that which middle class parents possess” (p. 1184). Civil (2008) noted, “Parents do not always see the point in some of the school approaches to teaching mathematics” (p. 14).

In addressing the connection between successful mathematics experiences and migrant students, Reyes and Fletcher (2003) reported that state-mandated guidelines can lead to institutional practices that emphasize drill and practice versus mathematical reasoning. Under these mathematics practices, students become passive learners; ultimately come to depend on the teacher’s knowledge; and see no connection between mathematics and their everyday lives. The researchers stipulated there can be a fundamental revision in the school culture that values their students’ cultural lives as a basis for constructing teaching patterns. Arguing for a corollary paradigm shift in school practices, Leonard (2008) reported that classroom teachers must be willing to teach mathematics in a non-traditional way, even interesting way by cultivating the cultural identities that diverse students (e.g. Latino students) bring to the classroom and by “linking the content to issues of social justice and civil rights” (p. 141). In this manner, students will feel empowered to want to understand mathematics and apply it to their everyday lives.

Methods
The mode of inquiry was qualitative research intended to gain a retrospective perspective of the parents’ own lived experiences with mathematics as well as their children’s own learned strategies—be it from their household or via school learning. Over an 18-month period, various data collection methods: observations, field notes, informal interviews with parents and children in the homes of three Mexican families were used (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). It was the researcher’s intention to speak with the
parents and children in their own native, Spanish, language and forge a mutually respectful relationship in order to gain an insider’s viewpoint regarding the ways that mathematics was part of the daily household experience (Allen, 2008; Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995, Civil & Bernier, 2006). In line with the research, within the natural, daily context of their household, the researcher endeavored to “know and understand the relevance of their experiences and activities to them” (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 12).

In this paper, the researcher focused on three research questions:
1. What was the landscape of the Mexican parents’ learning and doing mathematics in Mexico?
2. What were some of the household practices that parents utilized to activate their children’s out-of-school mathematics knowledge?
3. What were the parents’ expectations in terms of their children’s classroom teacher?

The researcher understood that Mexican parents place much emphasis on imparting strong moral values in their children (Auerbach, 2011) and often defer to school teachers the responsibility of properly guiding their children’s learning of the academic content. Within the household, the parents intuitively turn to their prior experiences and family resources as the framework for guiding their child’s out of school mathematics experience—which at times may conflict with their child’s school teaching practices. Because Mexican parents (recently migrated to the United States) may not possess the requisite English language proficiency and are unclear about how to navigate within the formal school system, these parents remain unsure of how to communicate with the school teacher to learn about instructional practices for guiding
children’s school learning of mathematics. For these reasons, the researcher explored how the parents’ own life experiences in their native land, Mexico influence the children’s out-of-school education and how a dialogic space between parents and teachers about mathematics might be forged.

Results
Landscape of Mexican parents’ learning and doing mathematics in Mexico. In attending elementary school in the southern section of a mountainous region in central Mexico, a rural section of central western Mexico, or the rural section of northern Mexico, the participating parents in the study pointed out that their childhood upbringing in these communities shaped their ways of learning and doing mathematics. One of the participants, Mrs. Gutierrez reflects on how she initially began to think about mathematics while working at her parents’ local market in Mexico: Mrs. Gutierrez: My mother teach me that we add when we count what we collect…one time just before we close our family store, we have to count how many roses and carnations we still have at the flower stall. So, we collect all the roses and carnations into one bundle. At this point, my mother ask me, how many roses and carnations do you have in total? I have to count without any pencil or paper and just use my head, as mother often said.

Another participant, Mr. Ochoa recounts the many instances a few days before each New Year’s Eve in which he, nine siblings and parents sat around a work table in the back of their family bakery and talked about the amount of flour needed to make 300 tamales in order to place about 15 tamales in each basket for delivery to other families and friends in the neighborhood. In the following reflection, Mr. Ochoa recalls how his parents taught him to understand the concept of subtraction:
Mr. Ochoa: My father and mother taught us that we subtract when we want to know what is missing or not there. Because many times we needed to calculate the amount of flour needed to make our tamales, my mother would pose a problem, your uncle, Mario, has six pounds of flour but he needs a total of 15 pounds of flour to make 300 tamales for the New Years’ Eve party. How many pounds of flour does your uncle still need?

A third participant, Mrs. Robles, who grew up with her parents and siblings on a ranch and helped raise livestock such as cows, goats, burros, and chickens, talks about how she learned to practice addition and multiplication while helping her father construct or secure the fence in order to secure the animals so they would not stray on the open field in the rural section of northern Mexico:

Mrs. Robles: With my father’s help, I fixed a fence with seven stakes, and I used five nails with each stake. At this point, my father asked me, daughter, so, how many nails did you use in total? So, I walk back to the first stake and I say, dad, I used 5 nails on this stake, and I used 5 stakes on the second stake, and I used 5 stakes on the third stake, and 5 nails on the fourth stake, and 5 nails on the fifth stake, and 5 nails on the sixth stake, and 5 nails on the seventh stake. Next, my father ask, daughter, so, how many times did you put 5 nails on a stake? At this point, I say to my father, well, I do that 7 times because I put 5 nails on each stake. Here, my dad began to teach me about multiplication to help me work faster with numbers, so he say, 5 times 7 is? And, after a few moments, I say to my father, well, the answer is 35 nails.

Household practices to activate out-of-school mathematics knowledge. Through informal conversations and firsthand observations, the researcher discovered how each
family helped their children come to acquire a practical knowledge of mathematics which the parents typically referred to as el aprendizaje de los numeros (which means the learning of numbers). Using the extent of their own learning and comfort with using mathematics, the participants shared unique household ways to scaffold their children’s acquisition of mathematics:

Mrs. Robles: With my daughter, I want her to learn how to sew clothes so that when a shirt, a blouse or pants is torn, she can repair the clothes so we do not need to buy a new one. In fact, during this visit, Mrs. Robles asked her 12-year old daughter to sit at her side and initially showed her daughter to draw straight lines with a 12-inch ruler on a section of fabric. Next, she modeled how to cut about one half-inch of fabric and then to use the needle and thread at least one dozen times at different corners to attach the fabric to the torn section of the garment. As Mrs. Robles showed her daughter how to perform these tasks, she talked about her own mother’s teachings in Mexico and how her own mother continually asked open ended questions to assess Mrs. Robles’ understandings of the sewing tasks that entailed mathematics.

Mrs. Gutierrez: While growing up in Mexico, there was not much time to go to school because we have to clean the house and help with the little children; but, my mother liked to sing a lot with words about numbers that help us to think about addition and multiplication. When my own children are helping me to wash the dishes or cleaning the kitchen, I sing one of my favorite childhood songs, Las Tablitas (which means The Tables). It is a song that all of my children now know and even sing by themselves.

Cancion de las tablitas: Brinca la tablita (Song of The Tables: Jump the table)
Brinca la tablita  Jump over the board
Yo ya la brinqué  I already jumped over it
Bríncala de vuelta  Jump over it again
Yo ya me cansé.  I’m tired now
Dos y dos son cuatro  Two and two are four
Cuatro y dos son seis  Four and two are six
Seis y dos son ocho  Six and two are eight
Y ocho, diecisésis  And eight, sixteen

Parental hopes that classroom teacher will value their own mathematics knowledge as legitimate. The participating parents expressed a heartfelt hope that their child’s school teacher would one day allow them to be part of the classroom conversation that informed their children’s mathematics learning. All of the parents indicated that because they knew very little English they were unsure how to communicate with the school teacher about what they knew about mathematics and how they were shaping their children’s daily usage of mathematics at home. One parent, Mr. Ochoa expressed the following sentiment that succinctly reflected all of the participants’ thinking about an open dialogue with the school teacher:

Even though we only went to school a few years, we have learned the value of working with others—family, neighbors and friends, so that we can find the best answer to a problem. This is an idea that we want to say to the teacher; allow us to be part of what is said in the classroom so that we can help with how our children learn to
apply mathematics. We have known our children since they were born so we know how they best learn; we want to work with the school teacher so our child does well at school. We hope the teacher will listen to us.

It is the participants’ hopes one day the classroom teacher will place value on the ways that the parents have learned do mathematics in Mexico. Perhaps, our ways of thinking about mathematics will be an advantage for our children when they are looking for choices to show how they solved a problem or what they were thinking about in their head to get the answer. And, while speaking with Mr. and Mrs. Gutierrez about the idea of an ongoing dialogue with their child’s school teacher, they both contributed to the following poignant perspective:

I think that teachers need to learn the cultural and intellectual values of the family; to know how families raise their children to show respect and other positive behaviors at school. It is a problem in the education process for new teachers that they may not learn about the family’s motives and fundamental values used to teach their children in the house. Spanish-speaking parents may not know how to speak or write in Spanish, or do not have the school knowledge or familiarity with the American schools. It represents a double effort for the parents because they do not know the English language or are not familiar with how the schools work. Mexican parents may be reluctant to speak in the English language for fear of being criticized in their use of words.
Discussion

Civil (2008) explained that Latino parents viewed their children’s mathematics through a cultural lens, nurtured from their own experiences that valued repetition and rote memorization as mathematics learners, while attending school in Mexico. Furthermore, the manner in which the parent interacted with their child’s mathematics learning in the United States was influenced for example by whether the parent understood the mathematics while in school or whether they viewed themselves as practitioners of mathematics. Consequently, the parents involved in the study reported that they viewed mathematics learning in Mexico as being different in terms of school approaches from the mathematics learning their children were experiencing in the United States (Civil, Diez-Palomar, Menendez-Gomez, & Acosta-Iriqui, 2008).

Minority students become empowered to more readily generate their own knowledge when the classroom teacher allows students to access their second language and acknowledges their cultural identity in mathematics dialogue (Cummins, 1986). Allowing a child to use their familiar [primary] language, culture, talents, and skills empowers a child to generate their own knowledge (Montelongo, Hernandez, Herter, & Cuello, 2011). Leonard (2008) noted that to have meaningful conversations about mathematics within the context of the classroom, there should be the opportunity for discourse that not only requires the student to explain how but also why a particular strategy was used to solve a mathematical problem (p. 41). To have students view themselves as successful learners of mathematics, allow them to use their household funds of knowledge i.e. accumulated skills and abilities that derive from the communities from which they come from (Gonzalez, Moll & Amanti, 2005).
Hernandez (1999) posited that an integral factor contributing to the marked difference between the achievement of Latinos and the majority group is a school’s decision not to allow the child’s familiar language, Spanish, as well as their culture, talents, and skills as a resource for articulating the meaning attributed to the math concept. In addressing the connection between successful mathematics experiences and migrant students, Reyes and Fletcher (2003) indicated that state-mandated guidelines can lead to institutional practices that emphasize drill and practice versus mathematical reasoning. Under these classroom mathematics practices, students become passive learners; ultimately come to depend on the teacher’s knowledge; and see no connection between mathematics and their everyday lives. All too often, students from poor communities have been relegated to lower-track classes (Secada, Fennema, Adajian, & De La Cruz, 1999). Offering an affirmative viewpoint, Silver and Stein (1996) purported that poor and minority students have been disproportionately represented in more complicated mathematics courses requiring thinking and reasoning skills. These students have generally scored lower in comparison to affluent and White students on standardized tests.

Implications and Limitations
The parents in this study repeatedly articulated the notion of parents and teachers building on each other’s strengths, life experiences, and learned ways of knowing and applying mathematics. Bridges of communication and mutual trust between the household and school can promote an awareness of classroom instructional practices and the cultural knowledge that children bring to the doorsteps of the school. With the help of bilingual parents or local university educators, the school principal and a cadre of classroom teachers can be trained to make a neighborhood walk through a series of
household visits. In this setting, the principal and classroom teachers can make firsthand observations as a framework for adjusting the pedagogical practices during mathematics instruction and serve as a resource for the families on questions about school practices and mathematics ideas. This study highlighted the parents’ persistent need for knowing how to communicate within the school’s network of communication. Recently arrived non-English speaking parents, with little knowledge of the school’s rules and procedures, will greatly benefit from a program oriented toward the needs and concerns of each family. A collaborative initiative cannot be a once-a-year event; this push for change, in what counts for mathematics instruction and how students are given equitable access, needs to be talked about regularly in the school library, home of a concerned parent, at parent-teacher meetings, or at other appropriate venues. For lasting change, everyone will need each other to create a school experience that intentionally incorporates culturally relevant mathematics.

With the aim of self-disclosure, this investigation has several gaps. For example, this study only involved three Mexican families over a short period of time—approximately 18 months. These families were intentionally selected because the researcher already had some familiarity with these families while attending a neighborhood Catholic Church service in the Spanish language. Additionally, the field notes were recorded in the Spanish language—based on the researcher’s own proficiency in the Spanish language so it’s quite possible that some Spanish – English translations were based on the researcher’s own cultural knowledge on ways of portraying specific words and phrases. Furthermore, the researcher made intentional decisions about what articles to include; mainly research pieces that spoke directly to the mathematics education of Mexican households. Based on this research study, the researcher has initiated two other research studies that entail household visits with Mexican families: one study
focused on approaches utilized to scaffold Mexican parents’ literacy in the English language in order to better understand their children’s school learned mathematics. Another area that needs additional research is how older siblings with a greater degree of English language proficiency serve as language brokers to support younger siblings out-of-school mathematics learning.

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A Mixed Methods Evaluation of the Influence of Academic Advising on Retention and Student Success

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psychoeducational examiner for 17 area public schools, and as an adjunct psychology instructor for SAU. Research interests include studying children’s issues including disproportional placement of African Americans in special education, relationship violence, and mental health issues of public school students. In 2015, Dr. Wilson was awarded recognition as SAU’s Honor Professor.

Abstract
Public colleges and universities have long relied on federal and state dollars to help fund operations budgets. Enrollment was a primary factor in determining the amount of funding institutions received. In 2017, with the passage of Arkansas Act 148 of 2017, future state funding will be awarded on various measures of student success including retention and graduation. With changes in funding, institutions are examining ways to better meet the criteria for receiving state dollars under Act 148. Each year state funding is being reduced for public universities making retention and student success ever more important. Several studies (Doubelday, 2013; Low, 2000, Light, 2001) purport that academic advising is critically important to student satisfaction, student success, and student retention. The rational for the proposed study is to explore Southern Arkansas University (SAU) students’ perceptions of the academic advisors’ roles in their academic success and progress towards degree completion. An overarching theme of the study is to examine the extent to which students are satisfied with their SAU advising experience and its role in retention.
A New Twist in Doctoral Education

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Dr. Sommervold is the Director of the Doctorate of Education program of Doane University. Sommervold completed her doctoral research at the University of St. Thomas while studying the decision making process of educational leaders. In 2012, Sommervold co-authored a book about increasing creativity, critical thinking and communication in students. Dr. Sommervold’s recent research interests include creativity, moral imagination, decision making, the impact of nature in learning, and effectively assessing post-secondary and doctoral learning.

Abstract

This session will present information regarding the development and initial assessment of a new doctoral program. This approved program is utilizing data driven methods of retaining adult students to support candidates in the hopes of producing high quality dissertations and research. The Doane Doctorate of Education program initiated its first cohort in 2015; these first students have now completed their initial coursework and preliminary evaluations have been conducted. At present the system for matching candidates with chairs and scaffolding coursework has been well received and students are meeting benchmarks for dissertation completion.
The Opioid Epidemic and the Impact on Special Education in the American Schools

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Kathryn Welby is a Professor of Practice in Education at Merrimack College. Kathryn is in the midst of completing her Ed.D. in Educational Leadership through Southern New Hampshire University (exp. 2019). She has earned a CAGS in Educational Leadership at Salem State University, and her M.Ed. in Special Education – Moderate Disabilities from Endicott College. Kathy has multiple Massachusetts teaching and administrator certifications and previously taught in elementary schools for over a decade. Kathryn's current research focuses on the opioid epidemic and the impact it has on special education. Her other research interests include special education teacher development and educational leadership.

Abstract
This research will investigate the history of the opioid epidemic, current trends in opioid abuse, and the developmental and educational needs of children directly born into this epidemic. The combined research analysis indicates that children impacted by the opioid epidemic will have special education needs in classrooms across the country. Based on the evidence and the analysis of trends, South Eastern United States and New England will have the largest number of children in their schools directly born into this epidemic. The analysis of existing research establishes that there is a direct correlation between infants born with neonatal abstinence syndrome and the need for special education services once these children are in school. Evidence also suggests that
children in families fighting opioid addiction will have special education needs that the school will be responsible for addressing. With the increasing trends of children born into this growing epidemic, there is an increased need for awareness and instruction on the special education requirements these children will need to be successful in classrooms across the country. The opioid epidemic will impact schools and education everywhere. There needs to be accountability to promote the best educational practices available to prepare for the children born directly in the epidemic today for the most appropriate educational support in the future.

On October 26, 2017, President Donald Trump declared the opioid epidemic a public health emergency stating that “We are currently dealing with the worst drug crisis in American history,” adding, “it’s just been so long in the making. Addressing it will require all of our effort” (President Donald Trump, 2017). The efforts do not stop with health care providers, law enforcement agencies, families, advocates, and treatment centers; the efforts need to be extended to school districts across the country. Districts are suffering and will continue to get worse if this country does not take proactive measures to address the implications of the epidemic within the American educational system. Schools all over the country will face challenges because of this epidemic. Teachers, staff, and all others in the inclusion classrooms will need to be educated on the socioemotional accommodations, successful academic practices, and proactive measures to guarantee drug-exposed children will be provided appropriate accommodations to help contribute to their chances of success. Educators will need to focus on the development of these children and discover the best practices to ensure their triumphs through their educational experiences. It is essential that school personnel be prepared, educated, and ready to accommodate these high-risk children. It
is imperative to give every child a chance for the best life and school experience possible.

The United States is in the center of an opioid epidemic. The addiction and abuse of opioids is a global problem that negatively affects everyone. There are pockets of the country that will see more of an impact than others but this crisis will be everywhere, and school districts need to be proactive. Furthermore, all demographics are involved in this widespread societal emergency. These infants are individuals that are often overlooked in this epidemic. The infants born today in the center of this epidemic will be in the schools within the next few years with a broad range of educational and psychological needs. There was an unfortunate series of events, from the healthcare industry to an increase of Neonatal Abstinence Syndrome (NAS), which will result in educational implications in classrooms across the United States.

The Pharmaceutical Companies and Health Care Professionals

The first series of unfortunate events that will directly impact classrooms across the United States is the opioid prescribing habits of the healthcare system. This may seem a little farfetched but as the series of events unfold there will be an understanding of the how and why opioid prescribing habits will affect the schools.

The drastic increases in the number of prescribed opioids have contributed to the severity of the current opioid epidemic involving heroin use across the country. One may argue that the increases in prescriptions written and marketed by pharmaceutical companies have all contributed to the current opioid epidemic and abuse problem. The following statistics show the severity of prescription misuse (Muhuri et al., 2013; Cicero et al. 2014; Carlson et al., 2016).

- About 29 percent of patients prescribed opioids for chronic pain misuse them
• Between 8-12 percent develop an opioid use disorder
• An estimated 80% of people who used heroin first abused prescription opioids.

One of the reasons the United States is in the center of this epidemic because the US is the most significant opioid consumer globally. The number of prescriptions for opioids prescribed by health care providers has increased from 76 million in 1991 to nearly 217 million in 2012. The United States is responsible for almost 100 percent of the world total for hydrocodone consumption such as Vicodin and 81 percent for oxycodone such as Percocet (CDC, 2014).

Consequently, in an attempt to resolve the problem, health care providers have been ordered to limit their prescription written for opiates through state legislation. By 2018, more than 30 states considered 130 bills related to opioid prescribing habits. According to NCSL (2018), 24 states had enacted legislation with some limit related to opioid prescribing by December 2017. The temporary problem with this legislation, some might argue, is that limiting opioid prescriptions may result in increased heroin use. Opiate addicts need pain reliever medication, but the prescriptions are harder to obtain than heroin. The efforts to limit opioid prescribing have resulted in restricted prescription opioid access. Limited access to opioid prescriptions has fueled heroin use. (Precursors and Chemicals, 2011). The availability and low cost of heroin in the United States are identified as a significant contributor to rising rates of heroin use (DEA, 2014). It is reported that individuals switch to heroin because it is cheaper and easier to obtain than prescription opioids. This evolving problem has led to a global crisis in the transition from opioid pills to heroin (Precursors and Chemicals, 2011). Heroin users start by using prescription opioid pain medications 80 percent of the time (Pollini, Banta-Green, Cuevas-Mota, Metzner, Teshale, & Garfein, 2011). Heroin use and abuse
have increased across the United States among regardless of sex, age group, and income levels (CDC, 2014).

Addiction to Opioids, Women, and Neonatal Abstinence Syndrome (NAS)

The series of events continues to unravel as we move from the healthcare industry to the addiction of opioids. Specifically, many women of childbearing age are dependent on opioids, and many addicted women become pregnant. There has been an astronomical increase in neonatal abstinence syndrome (NAS) births in hospitals across the country. Infants are born addicted to opioid or are born into families addicted to opioids.

Women of childbearing age are prescribed opioid pain relievers by healthcare providers more frequently. The upsurge of opioids prescribed to women is leading to an outrageous number of women suffering from addiction and abuse of opioids (Hedegaard, Chen, Warner, 2015). Across the United States, women addicted to opiates are becoming pregnant. In return, infants are born with the consequences of becoming dependent on opioids in utero. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (2013) reported that women are more likely to have chronic pain than men. Therefore, women are more probable to be prescribed prescription pain relievers, such as opioids and use them for more extended time periods than men. Prescription opioid overdose deaths among women have increased more than 400 percent from 1999 to 2010, compared to 237 percent among men. Heroin overdose deaths amongst women have tripled in the last few years (Hedegaard, Chen, Warner, 2015).

Neonatal abstinence syndrome (NAS) is the result when heroin or other opioids pass through the placenta to the fetus during pregnancy. Exposure to heroin and other
opiates during pregnancy may lead to the unborn baby to become dependent along with the mother. Some of the various short-term symptoms of NAS include excessive crying, seizures, fever, irritability, tremors, slow weight gain, diarrhea, vomiting, and possibly death. Long-term effects are cognitive, developmental, and behavioral disorders. NAS involves hospitalization and treatment with medication (often morphine) to relieve symptoms. Medication is slowly tapered off until the baby adjusts to being opioid-free. Many infants exposed to methadone during pregnancy typically require treatment for NAS as well (O'Donnell, Nassar, Leonard, Hagan, Mathews, Patterson, 2009).

Consequently, one-third of the heroin users are women, and two-thirds of those users are women of child-bearing age. There are a disturbing number of women who become pregnant that are addicted to heroin and other opioids. The frequency of neonatal abstinence syndrome in the United States has nearly doubled from 2009-2012 and has grown fivefold since 2000. NAS births have increased nationally over 400% since 2000 (Ko et al., 2017). The swift rise in NAS parallels the upsurge in opioid use in the United States, especially among women of childbearing age. NAS is a rapidly growing public health problem that continues to grow (Jones, 2013).

Special Education Needs of Children born with NAS

The series of events continue to unfold as a direct link is uncovered between the healthcare prescribing habits leading to opioid addiction, specifically of women of childbearing age, to an increase of NAS births. Again, how do these series of events directly relate to the classroom? An increase in women abusing opioids has resulted in an astounding number of infants born addicted to opiates. Specifically, the ramifications of the increase of NAS births will have a direct effect on the American classroom. These
children experience developmental, emotional, and cognitive problems that will need to be addressed through infancy and beyond. Prenatal opioid exposure is associated with weaknesses in language, deficiencies in cognition, and attention/hyperactivity disorder. These disabilities would benefit from interventions throughout the child’s primary years and beyond.

A variety of studies and research indicate a link between neonatal abstinence syndrome and cognitive and behavioral difficulties through infancy and beyond. There is much discussion on whether school-age children have academic and behavior struggles because they were born with NAS or are the academic and behavior struggles a result of environmental exposure to addiction. Either way, NAS or environmental exposure, will affect the classroom. These children will need support to succeed.

A combination of researchers have found that the following are consequences of infants born with Neonatal Abstinence Syndrome (Ross, Graham, Money, Stanwood, 2015):

- Preterm birthweight and obstetric complications,
- Respiratory insufficiency,
- Heart defects,
- Reduced growth,
- Deficits in cognitive and motor ability,
- Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder,
- Lower IQ,
- Behavioral problems,
- Inattention,
- Hyperactivity and speech, language, and communication disorders.

The combination of various studies provides adequate evidence that opioid exposure during pregnancy does result in developmental and cognitive deficiencies. These shortcomings would qualify the children for special education services once the infant reaches school age (Beckwith & Burke, 2015; McGlone & Mactier, 2015; Nygaard, Moe, Slinning & Walhoyd, 2015; Ornoy et al., 2010; Yaun et al., 2014).

Studies indicate that opioid exposure affects the regions that control neurocognitive processes such as attention, memory, motor speed, and visual-spatial processing (Yaun et al. 2015). Also, infants who developed significant NAS are at higher risk to have
developmental difficulties and delayed visual development. This was concluded through a similar study by McGlone & Mactier, (2015). This research investigated the neurodevelopment of 81 infants born with NAS at six months old. These babies were born from methadone-prescribed opioid-dependent mothers. The outcomes of the study concluded that, at six months of age, infants born to methadone-maintained opioid-dependent mothers had lower developmental scores in all areas (locomotor, personal-social, language-hearing, eye-hand, and performance) than the infants that were not born exposed to opioids. These results also concluded that infants who developed significant NAS are at higher risk to have developmental difficulties and delayed visual development (McGlone & Mactier, 2015).

Furthermore, other research study results indicate that children exposed to at least one risk factor such as exposure to drugs, low social, economic status, or adoption performed worse on individually administered intelligence tests than the children who were not exposed to any of these risk factors. Research conducted by Ornoy et al. (2010) focused on the neurodevelopmental and psychological assessment of adolescents born to drug-addicted mothers. This study investigates whether prenatal exposure to heroin may have long-term consequences for development during early and middle childhood. The results indicate that children exposed to at least one risk factor such as exposure to drugs, low social, economic status, or adoption performed worse than the children who were not exposed to any of these risk factors. Exposed low social, economic status children living with their parents performed at the same relatively low level as non-exposed low social, economic status controls. Exposure to drugs was associated with adult ADHD-related problems (Ornoy et al., 2010).

Other research investigates whether lower cognitive performances and behavior issues are a result of neonatal abstinence syndrome or environmental factors. A study
conducted by Nygaard et al. (2015) explores the outcome of foster children born with NAS. The research focuses on foster and adoptive children to determine if the children that are placed in a low-risk environment catch up cognitively. The research designates that children exposed to opioids in utero do not catch up to peers over time. This is a consistent result even when the child is placed in a stable family at a very early age. There seems to be an adverse effect of factors related to prenatal drug exposure to opioids over time (Nygaard, Moe, Slinning and Walhoyd, 2015).

Most recently, Dr. Margaret Fill and the CDC (2017), conducted a longitudinal study in Tennessee and concluded that infants born with NAS are behind other children in school. Dr. Fill and colleagues followed infants born with NAS from birth to school age. The results of her study concluded that the children born with NAS were 44% more likely to be referred for an evaluation for developmental delays. 36% of the children born with NAS qualified in Tennessee for interventions and met the criteria for an educational disability.

The combination of these studies focused the effects of prenatal opioid exposure on primary infancy and childhood. Results have shown that children prenatally exposed to opioids show a lower cognitive performance than non-exposed infants. Prenatal heroin and opioid exposure are associated with weaknesses in language, deficiencies in cognition, and attention/hyperactivity disorder. A variety of evidence also suggests that exposure to maternal opioids decreases brain volumes in newborn infants. This exposure contributes to the high occurrence of neurodevelopmental and behavioral problems seen in opioid-exposed children in later life (Beckwith & Burke, 2015; Fill, 2017; McGlone & Mactier, 2015; Nygaard, Moe, Slinning & Walhoyd, 2015; Ornoy et al., 2010; Yaun et al., 2014).
The combined analyses of the research indicate that there is a definite need for public schools to be aware and address the special education needs of in utero opioid-exposed children. The combination of the research suggests that children exposed to drugs in utero are vulnerable to low achievement in school. These children are most often identified to receive special education services. The research demonstrates that most children frequently exhibit developmental delays, behavior problems, attention issues, emotional disabilities, and speech and language disorders. It can be concluded from the combination of these studies that early intervention and subsequent intervention are critical in promoting readiness and success in school for children that were born with NAS.

Special Education Needs of Children living in Opioid Abusing Families

The series of events continue to point to the critical impact this epidemic will have on the United States classrooms. The increased numbers of NAS birth will result in a drastic increase in the number of special education referrals or accommodations in the classroom for this emotionally vulnerable population. There is evidence that children born with neonatal abstinence syndrome will have developmental and cognitive disorders throughout infancy, their childhood, and most likely beyond. Special education services are essential for these children to be successful in school. The series of events do not stop here. Furthermore, the need for special education services because of the opioid epidemic does not only apply to children born with neonatal abstinence syndrome but also children born into a family that is battling addiction. Many children involved with a family dealing with the addiction of opioids will need special education interventions as well. The children of opioid abusing parents are at risk for a wide variety of adverse outcomes, including emotional, social, and behavioral problems as
well as challenges in cognitive and academic functioning. The risk for poor emotional and behavioral issues among children living with a parent who has a substance abuse history is reported. The children of opioid abusing parents are more than twice as likely to have a drug use problem themselves by young adulthood as compared to their peers. Literature suggests there are developmental problems in children and adolescent living with heroin-addicted mothers even if the children were not born exposed to opioids in utero (Herranz, Vilchez, Ledo & Sierra, 2014; Nunes et al., 2000). The research proposes that children born to heroin-addicted parents may be at risk of having social problems, psychiatric problems and will most likely be involved in substance abuse in their lifetime. Herranz, Vilchez, Ledo, and Sierra (2014) researched that focused on children with heroin-addicted mothers. The focus of this research is on social development, psychiatric disorders, substance abuse disorders, and the need for psychological interventions throughout childhood. The results of those concluded that these participants were of high or middle social, economic status and experienced a significant percentage of parental abandonment. The results showed that 56.2 percent of the participants lost one or both parents, 44.4 percent of the participants lived in extended care/foster homes, and 23.3 percent who were adopted or lived in shelter centers. The results also showed that these participants had a high rate of emotional or physical abuse in childhood. The interview results showed that 26 percent of the participants were abused during childhood. Social problems such as arrests and insubordination were frequent. The interview results show that one-third of the participants had been diagnosed with a psychiatric disorder in children and 66.7 percent of all the participants had attention deficit disorder and hyperactivity. Major depression and documented personality disorders were also noted during the
interviews. Drug consumption was very high across all the participants. Results indicate that 70 percent were involved with alcohol abuse and drug use. The results of this research suggest that children born to heroin-addicted parents may be at risk of having social problems, psychiatric problems and will most likely be involved in substance abuse. In conclusion, this study proves that children born to heroin-addicted mothers could benefit from close monitoring after birth. These children may need extra support throughout their childhood. Supports would be beneficial throughout the school to minimize the likelihood of social problems, psychiatric disorders, and substance abuse (Herranz, Vílchez, Ledo & Sierra, 2014).

The additional research concludes that children who were born into a family with a substance abuse problem were found to have substantial lifetime issues that would benefit from early intervention, special education services, and outpatient psychological treatment. This research conducted by Nunes et al. (2000) examined, through interviews, the frequency of psychiatric disorders and impairments in 283 children of opioid-dependent mothers and fathers. The results of the interviews demonstrated that the children who were born into a family with a substance abuse problem were found to have substantial lifetime issues that would benefit from early intervention, special education services, and outpatient psychological treatment. Mood disorders were prevalent in 21 percent of participants. Anxiety was documented in 24 percent of the participants, and disruptive disorders were recorded in 30 percent of the participants. School problems were predominant in 37 percent of participants. Suicide attempts and global impairment was evident in 25 percent of participants (Nunes et al., 2000).

The analysis of the studies combined indicates that parental opioid addiction has placed many students equally at risk for school failure and academic struggles as it does for children born prenatally exposed to opiates. These students who are exposed to
parental drug addiction will also need school-based support services to be successful in school. It is essential that schools be prepared to address not only academic needs of these children but also the mental health issues found in children with drug-abusing parents.

Geographical Distribution of NAS

As the series of events unfold, there is a critical need to look at the geographic distribution of the problem. The importance of understanding the distribution of the opioid prescriptions and NAS births will help prepare the areas of the country that the schools and classroom will be impacted the greatest. Unfortunately, there is a direct correlation between healthcare prescribing habits and NAS births. The area of the country with high prescribing practices, result in a high number of NAS births. Therefore, it is a safe prediction that the area of the countries with a significant amount of NAS births will have a significant amount of children in the schools with either documented or undocumented emotional disturbances or special education needs as a result of this epidemic.

Increase heroin and opioid abuse from 2000-2012 resulted in a fivefold increase in infants born suffering from symptoms of opiate withdrawal. In New England alone, Center for Disease Control (2012), reported that 2-3 babies are born addicted to opioids per every 100 newborns. Statistics show that every 25 minutes a newborn baby is born from opiate withdrawal. There is a link between each state opioid prescribing habits and the increased number of infants born with neonatal abstinence syndrome. The combined analysis of the distribution of opioid prescriptions and the rate of occurrence of children born with NAS is startling. The distribution results of opioid prescription,
leading to the presence of NAS, will eventually be linked to increased educational needs per state of children born with NAS.

There is a direct link between the number of opioid prescriptions per state and the occurrence of neonatal abstinence syndrome per state. Patrick, Davis, Lehman, and Cooper, (2015) and Paulozzi, Mack, and Hockenberry (2014) conducted research that connects with the other. Patrick, Davis, Lehman, and Cooper (2015) analyzed United States data on healthcare prescribing in 2012. The information examined came from the National Prescription Audit (NPA). NPA provides approximations of the numbers of prescriptions distributed in each state based on a sample 57,000 pharmacies, which allocate nearly 80% of the prescriptions in the United States. All opioid prescriptions were accounted for per state depending on the type of opioid and the amount each prescription was distributed. Through data analysis, it is concluded that the Southeastern states had the highest rate of prescribing opiates and benzodiazepines. New England had the highest percentage of high-dose opioids. It was found that health care professionals overly prescribe opioids in the southeastern United States and New England. Also and comparatively, Paulozzi, Mack, and Hockenberry (2014) evaluated and analyzed data from the Kids’ Inpatient Database (KID) for 2009 and 2012. This information was derived from Nationwide Inpatient Sample (NIS) for 2010 and 2011. The KID is a publicly available database for hospitalized children in the United States. The KID contains about 3 million pediatric inpatient records per year. These records come from 2500 to 4100 hospitals in the United States. This sampling strategy gives the KID analytical ability to evaluate pediatric conditions. The results demonstrate that from 2009 to 2012, NAS incidence increased nationally. The results also verified that NAS varied by geographic location. The highest incidence rate of NAS Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama followed by the New England states of
Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, Maine, Rhode Island and Connecticut. The lowest growth of NAS was in Oklahoma, Texas, Arkansas, and Louisiana.

The distribution of the increased incidence of NAS correlates with the increase in prescription opioid drug use by state. The map below demonstrates the amount of neonatal abstinence syndrome births per state (Vanderbilt, 2012).


Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama have the highest incidence of NAS followed by the New England States- Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, Vermont, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. This correlates with the number of opioids being prescribed by healthcare providers within the same time frame. The next image below demonstrates the number of opioids prescribed per 100 people by state and drug type during 2012. The southern states of Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama had the highest rate of prescription opioids prescribed. The New England States of Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, and Connecticut are second in the highest rate of opioids prescribed (Paulozzi, Mack, & Hockenberry, 2014).

This information analyzed indicates that the southeastern states of the United States and New England will have the most substantial number of children in schools born addicted to opioids with cognitive and developmental disorders. This prediction is made based on the evidence presented that these areas of the country have the highest rates of prescribed opioids and infants born with neonatal abstinence syndrome. The schools in the southeast and New England will most likely have the most significant educational challenges that will need to be addressed. These areas will need to be proactive, aware, and educated on various problems the schools and communities will face. These areas of the country will also need to be educated on the best interventions to ensure these children have the tools and opportunities available to succeed.

Opioid Epidemic and the American Schools – What is happening?

In conclusion, the series of events that will impact the American classroom is a critical issue that cannot be ignored. The opioid epidemic already has had ramifications in the American schools. However, the empirical literature on the direct educational impact is scarce. Proactive literature with the focus on combating the future of the crisis in the classroom and the educational impact is relatively nonexistent. However, there is reactive news article and reports on what needs to get done today in the schools to avoid fatal overdoses and drug use prevention. The literature focuses on an increase in drug education programs starting at a younger age throughout the country. There is also literature on the benefits of supplying Narcan in the nurse’s office to prevent fatal overdoses in schools. Both topics are significant in the attempt to attack this crisis reactively, yet the national focus is currently only reactive.

The opioid crisis effects have paralyzed this nation, and the American schools are no exception. According to The National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA, 2018), in 2015, nearly 1 in 23 high school seniors reported misusing the opioid pain reliever...
Vicodin. Additionally, reported in a 2013 survey from the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (2014), 467,000 teens between the ages of 12-17 used illegally using prescription pain medications. The report also highlights that in 2014 about 28,000 12-17-year-old children used heroin. In conjunction with already discussed US prescribing habits, the increase in opioid prescription rates for 12-17 year old’s has nearly doubled from 1994-2007. Furthermore, according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, in 2015, opioids killed 7,163 people between the ages of 15 and 29, more than 20 percent of total deaths. These numbers are concerning, and schools have reacted to the growing concerns.

Schools are reacting to the growing concerns of youth drug use, especially opioids, by providing Narcan in the nurse's office. Narcan is a medication used to block the effects of opioids, especially in overdose. For example, in 2015 The Boston Globe reported, that The Massachusetts Department of Public Health conducted a survey and found that at least 133 Massachusetts school districts have Narcan available (Roberts, 2015). According to news sources, New Hampshire also has Narcan available as a precaution. (Feely, 2016) This is a nationwide district trend, and the availability of Narcan in schools will continue to increase in response to this horrific epidemic.

School districts are also doing their diligence in education the youth on drug prevention with a focus on opioids. For example, in New Hampshire in there was a newly enacted law that would require all public schools to have substance abuse prevention instruction every year starting in 2016. The focus would be on age-appropriate drug and alcohol education for students in kindergarten through grade 12 (Rayno, 2015). In Massachusetts, an act relative to substance use, treatment, education, and prevention was signed into law on March 14, 2016. The Law requires community, parent/guardians, teacher, and student involvement in the implementation of an
evidence-based substance use and prevention curriculum for grades 5 to 12 and prohibitions against substance use as well as discipline, enforcement provisions, and treatment opportunities (Chapter 52- Massachusetts Acts of 2016). Other states have also instituted policies and laws on drug prevention education as a direct result of the opioid epidemic. Policies and Laws are needed to ensure that the schools are doing their part in educating the students on the tragic consequences of opioid abuse. Most districts understand the need and are active in the development of much-needed drug prevention programs.

In summary, many districts are reacting to the opioid epidemic and continue to reflect and adjust to combat this epidemic. The focus thus far is a reactive approach to minimize fatal overdoses in schools and educate students on the consequences of drug use by highlighting prevention. Education and medical accommodations are a much needed first step to combatting this epidemic in the schools. The next steps are to ensure that school personnel is prepared, educated, and ready to accommodate these high-risk children.

Conclusion and Summary

There was an unfortunate series of events, from the healthcare industry to an increase of Neonatal Abstinence Syndrome (NAS), which will result in educational implications in classrooms across the United States. Drastic increases in the number of prescribed opioids have contributed to the severity of the current opioid epidemic including heroin use across the country. One-third of the heroin users are women, and two-thirds are women of child-bearing age. The increase of women abusing opioids has increased to children born with neonatal abstinence syndrome.
Combined evidence from the literature suggests that exposure to maternal opioids resulting in neonatal abstinence syndrome contributes to the high occurrence of neurodevelopmental, cognitive, and behavioral problems seen in opioid-exposed children later in life. The research proves that children born with neonatal abstinence syndrome frequently exhibit developmental delays, behavior problems, attention issues, and speech and language disorders. Additionally, evidence in the literature also indicates that parental opioid addiction has placed many students equally at risk for school failure and academic struggles as it does for children born prenatally exposed to opiates. Children who are exposed to parental drug addiction will also need school-based support services to be successful in school. The combination of these many research articles provides adequate evidence that opioid exposure during pregnancy does result in developmental and cognitive deficiencies that would qualify for special education services once the infant reaches school age. The combination of studies also indicates a need for support services and special education services for those children born into an addicted family. Schools all over the country will face challenges because of this epidemic. Teachers, staff, and all other personnel in the inclusion classrooms across the country will need to be educated on the socioemotional accommodations, successful academic practices, and proactive measures to ensure drug-exposed children will be providing appropriate accommodations. Educators should focus on the development of these children and discover the best practices to ensure their success. It is essential that school personnel be prepared, educated, and ready to accommodate these high-risk children.

In the next few years’ children born with NAS or born into a family devastated by addiction will be prominent in the public schools. This epidemic will hit New England and the Southeast the hardest because of the most opioid prescribed and infants born
with neonatal abstinence syndrome. With the trends doubling every three years of children born prenatally exposed to opioids we could see the numbers of births skyrocket. For example, from 2009-2012 infants born with NAS reached 2.5 births out of every 100 birth in New England (CDC, 2012). If trends continue to double, as they are predicted to, in 2019 New England could have ten infants born with NAS out of every 100 births. That is at least three students that could be in a classroom of 30 with challenges that need to be addressed because of this horrible epidemic. These number and trends are increasing and could continue to grow if the root of the epidemic shows no improvement and continues to get worse. Awareness, resources, and preparation are necessary to promote success in school for these children directly affected by the opioid epidemic.

References


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Patterns of Engagement in Online Learning

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Terry is an Associate Professor at the University of Tennessee at Martin. She teaches graduate and undergraduate courses in growth & development and adult education. She serves the state of Tennessee as a Lions Quest Trainer and Service-Learning Training for K-12 and community partners. She has utilized service-learning as an instructional strategy for since 2005 and currently includes S-L in her online courses. She has created an online service-learning course which trains future teachers how to use S-L in their own classroom. Her current research interests are service-learning in the online learning environment and best practices. She also has been trained to serve as a COMP trainer for K-12 teachers.

Abstract

Research into study habits of online learners have been far and few in between. A renewed commitment to researching the learning environment in online courses prompted a study into the attitudes and study habits of graduate students in order to ensure high quality teaching and learning. In this study, the Revised Two Factor Study Process Questionnaire: R-SPQ-2F was utilized at the beginning and the end of the semester in order to ensure that assessment and authentic activities in the teaching and learning are constructively aligned to promote deep approaches to learning. The R-SPQ-2F reveal sub-scales of motive and strategy ranging from surface, deep and achieving. High scores in any of three sub-scales promoted alerts for the Instructor to constructively align assessment and proactive teaching methods. Results impacted quiz
scores and post R-SPQ-2F positively within the populations studied. This paper includes a short review of the literature, the problem, the methods used, and the major results and conclusions.
Preparing a Rigorous Generation of Online Graduate Reading Students

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Dr. Ryan R. Kelly is an Associate Professor of Reading at Arkansas State University’s School of Teacher Education and Leadership. Working primarily with the School’s Graduate Reading Programs in the Teacher Education Department, he teaches undergraduate and graduate coursework in Reading, as well as a variety of pedagogical courses. His research interests and publications include: Literacy Coaching, New Literacies, Critical Literacy, Critical Pedagogy, and Qualitative Methodology.

Abstract

This presentation explores efforts on multiple fronts to maintain a high degree of rigor and engagement in an online graduate reading program. Working from a literature-derived framework that identifies successful qualities of an online program, this presentation will share multiple versions of program rubrics that were modified in response to program need, as well as multiple forms of program assessment data suggesting the positive results of various growth and change to courses. Identifying effective online programs requires examining examples of successful ones. Nye (2015) conducted a longitudinal study of online BSE students in Australia. Nye found a program that offered spaces where students could “access the university in ways that almost mirrored the experiences of internal students” (p. 125). Nye called it difficult, but something that should always be a goal. It’s chosen portal of access had a “temporal feel,” creating fluidity—yet sustainability was somewhat uncertain, as not all
students used it (p. 125). Additionally, Nye felt that it was “open-endedness that should always be at the heart of our pedagogical considerations for the future” (p. 126). Lai (2015) by comparison conducted case study examination of online doctoral coursework in New Zealand. Teaching strategies, design of learning tasks, quantity of direct instruction, and discussion flow “facilitated so as to promote synergistic discussion,” were all factors impacting “the extent and quality of knowledge constructed” (p. 575). Lai’s findings highlighted a need for “a clear understanding of the role of the discussants and what and how feedback should be provided and used” (p. 575). It was this social construction of knowledge that “was also an identity building process” (p. 576). Derived from these sources, stated more succinctly, this inquiry utilizes the following framework of six criteria for an effective online program: 1) encouraging university access, 2) a temporal feeling, 3) open-endedness, 4) promoting synergistic discussion, 5) the role of feedback, and 6) constructivism as an identity building process. Originally born of a natural desire to grow and improve program quality and results, this inquiry has expanded more specifically into a desire to: further model scholarly rigor, to reach out to interested candidates, to respond to their own desire for rigor, to meld their interactions into the learning community, and to empower candidates to make greater impact in their field. Specifically, this inquiry asks the following questions: a) what forms of evidence exist under this framework of six effective qualities of an online program that suggest both an effective online program and the need for improvement; b) to what extent can this framework guide program analysis of candidate results; c) what evidence of program quality might this framework help identify? This presentation will share a variety of qualitative and quantitative evidence for each of the six items in the framework. Further, it will share multiple qualitative examples of how students have maintained university access, despite the
distance; it will share various rubric examples that guide the temporal feeling of online discussion. This presentation will share several course content themes that support open-endedness; it will provide further rubric examples and online access data identifying how coursework promoted synergistic discussion. And finally, this presentation will share the story of steps taken to ensure that the role of feedback remained strong and formative; it will share multiple rubric examples promoting dispositional growth, as well as internal survey data that shows how constructivism is indeed an identity-building process. This presentation will conclude with what successes are becoming consistent—where the data suggest a stronger impact is indeed occurring with program candidates—and what further strides lie ahead. The implications for the successful achievement of rigor in this online program, and utilizing this framework of six effective qualities of an online program to promote the growth of rigor, can ultimately mean victories such as: closing the gap between traditional and online education, increased student satisfaction, quality assessment results, a high number of program completers, and making an even greater difference in the field of literacy.
Professional Dispositions: The Path to Beginning Teachers’ Self-Efficacy

Julie Hentges
University of Central Missouri

Dr. Julie Hentges is an Associate Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Central Missouri and a consultant with the UCM Charter School Office.

Abstract
This presentation examines the novice teacher’s resolve to thrive in the teaching profession. Although many teachers may leave the profession in the first few years of their teaching profession (Graziano, 2009, Schacter & Thum, 2005), it is important to note; beginning teachers may be inspired to remain in the profession if they are a part of a learning community. As part of a learning community, novice teachers may be encouraged to develop professional dispositions which enhance not only their students’ achievement but their instructional practice, as well. A community of learners must provide opportunities for the novice teacher to determine professional dispositions that promote self-efficacy. Although beginning teachers are confronted with daily challenges, they can emerge from their first years of teaching inspired to face challenges head-on with the confidence they will not only prevail, but flourish in the field of education.
Storytelling Through Documentaries: An Innovative, Culturally Diverse Practice in Preparing Pre-service Teachers

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University of South Dakota

Dr. Gary Cheeseman Associate Professor of Education, University of South Dakota. Research agenda is Critical Pedagogy and Storytelling. Developer and Curator of The American Indian Storytelling and Critical Pedagogy Resource Center. Interest in alternative (culturally inclusive) forms of scholarship and research. Teaches a wide variety of Education courses including Indian education, foundations, and diverse pedagogies.

Abstract

Teacher preparation programs have been scrutinized for not adequately preparing pre-service teachers especially in an increasingly diverse population. Cultural competence is now included in state and national teaching standards with expectations that teachers modify instructional methods to address diversity. This study looked at a teacher preparation assignment designed to enhance cross-cultural awareness, technological competence, and classroom knowledge by having Pre-service teachers produce a mini-documentary. Findings revealed that teachers are “talented hardworking professionals who have responded to a calling.” Participants revealed that their career choice was a moral choice. Nearly all of the participants said that being a teacher is a purposeful function of love, empathy and efficacy and not of monetary compensation.
Student Assessment in Our Multi Cultural Classrooms

Susan Epstein
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Susan Epstein is a Clinical Professor in the LeBow College of Business at Drexel University. She earned her MBA in Organizational Behavior from Drexel, and her areas of primary interest and expertise are Person-Organization Fit, Evaluation and Assessment, and Critical Thinking. She has been recognized as a Distinguished Fellow in the Drexel Center for Academic Excellence, serves as a mentor for tenure seeking faculty in the creation of Academic Portfolios, and is the current Chair of the Curriculum Committee for undergraduate studies in the department of General Business.

Abstract

Traditional methods for identifying and rewarding student performance based on specific cultural norms are both unrealistic and unfair to our increasingly diverse student population. In an effort to recognize multiple “norms” for student success, I did research in the area of student feedback within diverse work teams. It was my goal to recognize unique skills and qualities that have not historically been benchmarks for performance.

Over the course of three terms, Junior and Senior level students in one section of an Organizational Behavior class were asked to assess peer performance in three specific areas: Character, Interpersonal Skills, and Motivation/Leadership. Specific skills within these areas such as listening, patience, and conflict resolution were given as prompts.
The control groups consisted of sections of the same class, taught in the same term, by the same instructor. These students were given the traditional peer evaluation forms, addressing areas such as meeting attendance and communication.

The results went far beyond my hopes and expectations. Students in the test groups consistently indicated that they had experienced the best work team environment of their academic career and reported that contributions by all members were both valued and necessary for success. They overwhelmingly indicated that they would like to work with these peers again in the future. The same was not true for the control groups.

This study allows us to see growth in students’ performance through their awareness of the value of diversity.
Supplementing with Book Clubs: What's the Impact on Student Achievement?

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Dr. Gina Bittner, Associate Professor, Peru State College earned a Bachelor of Science in Elementary and Special Education K-8 from Nebraska Wesleyan University and a Masters of Science in Special Education: Moderate Needs from the University of Northern Colorado (UNC), followed by a Ph.D. in Leadership in Educational Administration. Gina was a K-3 special education teacher and a 2nd and 3rd grade teacher in Weld County Re-3(j), Colorado school district for nine years, and has been teaching elementary reading and math methods courses for the last 12 years at Peru State College in Southeast Nebraska. Dr. Bittner remains rooted in K-12 academia through her roles as a mom, foster mom, classroom and children’s church volunteer, higher education partnerships with public schools, and as a scoring leader for national teacher education assessments. She is passionate about making learning real and meaningful and developing innovative coursework that engages teacher candidates with not only content but with public schools.

Dr. Kelly Kingsley is an educator, writer, and speaker who truly loves assisting in the learning of others. She received her Ed.D. at the University of Nebraska Lincoln as part of the Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate with an emphasis in
Teaching, Learning, and Teacher Education. Kelly was an elementary teacher in Bellevue, Nebraska with a primary focus on third grade for 26 years, and has been an assistant professor in the School of Education at Peru State College for the last 4 years working in teacher education and preparation. Her research interests are using mindfulness in the classroom, book clubs and their impact on literacy learning, implementing common core standards in the physical education classroom, and the retention of college freshman through learning communities. Kelly believes teaching is a lifelong learning process and effective practice is nurtured by collaboration and teamwork.

Kelly lives in a small lake community outside of Bellevue, Nebraska with her handsome husband and Ragdoll cat. Kelly also has two daughters, both who are teachers in Nebraska. Dr. Robert Ingram is an assistant professor in the college of Education at Peru State College in Nebraska. He is the chair of The Open Door Program at the college. Robert earned his doctoral degree from the University of Nebraska at Omaha, obtaining the UNO Distinguished Alumni Award in 2001. His academic areas of research include literacy, first-year college success, and at-risk learners. Robert is an experienced educator with 13 years of classroom teaching and serving 22 years as a building administrator. He currently supports his community by serving as treasurer of The Area Health Education Center in Omaha and as chairman of the Education Advisory Council in his church. He has taught higher education for 3 years. Robert is dedicated to developing and supporting college/school partnerships.

Abstract In our research study, we are addressing the impact of weekly book clubs on student achievement in literacy. Three groups are addressed: a control group, receiving only classroom instruction, a girls’ book club, receiving regular classroom instruction plus a 45 minute weekly book club intervention, and a boys’ book club, receiving
regular classroom instruction plus a 45 minute weekly book club intervention. The experiment offers insight in the relationship between student engagement during book clubs where students select the books being read and the effects on reading scores. The purpose of this study is to determine if participation in book clubs where books are selected by students results in improved reading comprehension scores as measured on the Measure of Academic Progress and the district reading benchmark assessments. This presentation will identify the levels of success as well as practical application of strategies aiding in success of the clubs.

Introduction
Literacy achievement is an expectation that schools, parents, teachers, and students have for all students. Literacy skills are measured, analyzed, used for planning and instruction, and measured again. However, what instructional strategies are being used? It is known that students who read for fun are more likely to achieve higher test scores (National Education Association, 2017). It is also known that in 43 different countries, girls are outperforming boys in reading through the age of 15. Research suggests some common themes with regard to literacy achievement and gender. Based on published research, and a gap in knowledge of the impact of book clubs on literacy achievement, with particular attention to literacy achievement of both boys and girls, it is hypothesized that adding in a weekly book club, led by adult educators, will have a positive long-term effect on the impact of achievement of the participants compared to the control group who receive no additional support.

Literature Review
Reading researchers recognize to have a positive impact on reading: students need time to read in school from self-selected materials that are of high interest, have a wide variety of topics available, and see role models reading and valuing reading. Based on
published research, and a gap in knowledge of the impact of book clubs on literacy achievement, with particular attention to literacy achievement of both boys and girls, it is hypothesized that adding in a weekly book club led by adult educators will have a positive impact on the achievement of the participants compared to the control group who receive no additional support. When students and adults share literature in a participatory environment, it relates the reading to real life. The adults are reading role models who teach students about the benefits of being a lifelong reader. The participatory nature of a book club provides an outlet for students to converse, interact, reflect, and connect what they read in a risk free environment with peers and adults. Reading, discussing books, and engaging in activities during book club meetings transforms the group of readers into a reading community. Shared reading experiences help students connect with one another in positive ways (Capalongo-Bernadowski, 2007, p. 32). Upper elementary students seek social interactions, and a book club can provide that environment in a safe and engaging way. Discussion that reflects the openness experienced in real life helps to develop students’ social skills (Hall, 2007, p. 5). At the elementary level, access to books was found to be a factor that positively affects reading motivation (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006, p.419; Marinak, Malloy, & Gambrell 2010, p. 503). Availability of books in the home was found to be a factor in students’ motivation to read, as exposure promotes early literacy (McKool, 2007, p. 111). In the study by Edmunds and Bauserman, students indicated that access to books in terms of availability, quantity, and frequency are of equal importance (McKool, 2007, p.419). Reading level was not found to be significant if students were enjoying and interested in the text (Sclafani & Wickes, 2017). Gender was a determining factor in school enjoyment, academic practice and self-assumption. Females see themselves in a more positive light in the literary world. Reading engagement and reading achievement
interact in a spiral. Higher achievers read more, and the more engaged these students become, the higher they achieve. Engaged readers want to learn, and they are confident in their abilities. They persist in the face of difficulty and keep at it until they have achieved their goals (Guthrie, 2012; Dweck, 2008). Nippold, Duthie, and Larsen (2005) found that offering books with different themes—such as nature, machines, or suspense—is a way to get students excited about book club participation (p. 100). Providing books in various categories or formats, such as non-fiction selections or graphic novels, expands the target membership for the book club. Drawing upon students’ interests is a method of book selection that may attract reluctant members. Hall suggests brainstorming activities and relevant resources to accompany books once selections are made (4). Discussion activities that make students think, promote conversation, and connect text to self and the world are generally successful (James, 2003, p. 30). Polleck (2010) found that participants in a book club “share, negotiate, and transform their understanding of the texts, themselves, and the world” (p. 52). Therefore, book clubs have the potential to promote cognitive, social, and emotional growth. In order for book clubs to be successful, book club facilitators must be knowledgeable about children’s literature and able to lead a discussion (Hill & Bean, 2011, p. 9). The collaborative, interactive nature of the book club enables all students—including reluctant readers and English Language Learners—to find the support they need to fully engage with the books (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). Each club member gains access to more expansive, deeper comprehension as he or she participates in an intricate network of meaning-construction through shared talk about books (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). Book clubs “demand that kids talk to each other, jot down their thinking, and record information as they collaborate in the pursuit of answers to their questions” (Harvey & Daniels, 2009).
Conclusion

The Bobcat Book Club was started after one of our college professors approached fifth-grade teachers at the selected school to discuss gender based books clubs in their school during the lunch hour approximately once a week. The offer included having female students from the two fifth-grade classrooms gather with their lunch in one classroom, eat their lunch, and do reading activities with a female professor from the college. The same offer was offered for the boys utilizing a male professor from the college. A third professor was offered to assist with reading assessments at the beginning of the school year and to gather and interpret data as the year progressed. After meeting with the principal to discuss our collaborative plans, the approval was given to begin The Bobcat Book Club. Permission slips were sent to parents for consent. Students were recruited from the two fifth-grade classrooms with the understanding that the books used during our time together would come from lists they helped us to create. The boys could read titles they selected and the girls could do the same as long as they agreed to stay in the book club. Whole class sets of books were purchased using grant funds and donations. The books became a part of each student’s private home library collection. We allowed all students to be a part of the gender-based book club if they were in fifth-grade in our selected site. That meant that strategies would have to be used to accommodate a few learners with reading challenges. The relationship building that occurred as a result was positive for every student as classmates became peer-tutors or modeled strategies to help struggling learners. Our research question, Supplementing with Book Clubs: What’s the Impact on Student Achievement? Preliminary data shows trends indicating increased reading comprehension performance. When comparing fall, 2017 to winter, 2017 grade-five norm scores, and 79% of the students participating in the book clubs demonstrated
growth on the MAP Reading Assessment. 63% of the grade-five students participating in the book clubs demonstrated growth on MAP Reading according to normative grade-level expectations. Teachers report students have elected to read on their own more often as they get to choose the titles and genre they want to read. Students report they are reading more books in a series on their own as they are introduced to the first book in varied series through the book club. We are preparing to bring the teachers and two fifth-grade classes of students to the college for half a day to do literacy activities on campus with college students, and get a glimpse of campus life from a fifth-grade point of view.

References


Teacher Professional Development through a Science Curriculum Team in an urban School District

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I am presently an Associate Professor at Clark University in the education department. I graduated with a PhD in science education from Michigan State University. I have been at Clark for 15 years. My research interests are teacher professional development and teacher change. For the past ten years I have worked with science teachers in the Worcester Public Schools, an urban school district in Massachusetts. We did many different types of professional development which were teacher driven. We have learned several lessons in this process.

Abstract

For more than ten years, a university in New England has been offering teachers in an urban school district in central Massachusetts professional development opportunities through the Science professional development (SPD) team. During the 2015-2016 school year the university sponsored a research study of the science professional development team with a focus on understanding the following: what role does an SPD team play for the ongoing process of learning to teach? What role does the SPD team play in the development of effective and successful urban science teachers? Drawing on qualitative research methods, data were collected and analyzed. Findings indicate that the SPD team was a valued support system for teachers from the same district to reflect on
science teaching K-12. Teachers stayed for many years in this team because this type of professional development was not pre-planned by someone for teachers, but teachers planned it collaboratively based on their practical classroom needs. The SPD team helped the teachers to collaboratively sharpen their expertise of teaching science in an urban environment. The SPD team fostered a dialogue that linked theory, practice and context which led to teacher growth and development as leaders in their prospective schools.
Teaching Educational Statistics Totally Online: What Students Want

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Dr. Bounds received his B.A. degree from Oklahoma Christian University and his M.S., Ed.S., and Ed.D. degrees from Arkansas State University. He served as a science and math teacher, high school principal, and school superintendent for 31 years before entering the college teaching ranks in 2007. He has published several articles and given numerous presentations regarding online education at state, regional, and national conferences. He teaches school finance, statistics, and research classes and his current research focus is determining what students perceive as the most effective means of presenting a totally online statistics class.

Abstract
Online learning is common within the higher education community. As more universities offer more graduate programs totally online for the convenience of the older student who often has a family and full-time job it is imperative that instructors give attention to what students believe constitutes an effective online class. This paper surveyed 36 graduate students anonymously to determine what they considered important in an online course. Students want a professor who uses multimedia effectively, who establishes social interaction among students, who has a well-designed online format, who has an online presence, and who is available to students.
Teaching Patterning to Kindergartners

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Katrina Gagliano is graduating from George Mason University in May 2018 with an M. A. in developmental psychology. She has been involved in research and instruction of young children, and was instrumental in conducting the research described here.

**Abstract**

The goal of this research was to determine whether instructing kindergartners on patterning would improve their performance on standardized mathematics and early literacy tests. Accordingly, a 40 item patterning test was constructed. This test contained patterns of letters, numbers, clock faces, which increased in steps of one or two (i.e., CEGI or CFIL or 1,3,5,7 or 1,4,7,10, or similar spacing of hours on clock faces, and objects which rotated in steps of 90 or 135 degrees. It also had symmetric or growing patterns of letters, numbers, clocks, or shapes. Typical examples are B,C,D,E,E,D,C, B, 3, 4,5,6,6,5,4,3 and 1,2,3,4,4,3,2,1 o’clock as depicted on clock faces.
Likewise, eight growing patterns were made, one vertical and one horizontal, from shapes, letters, numbers, and clock faces Square Disc Square Disc Disc Square Disc Disc, ABABBABBB, 454554555, and 2,3,2,3,2,3,3,3 o’clock. After 15 minutes of instruction on similar patterns. After pretesting on these patterns, children were randomly assigned to conditions. They received daily 15 minute instruction sessions in patterning or literacy, or mathematics in counterbalanced sessions until May. At that time they were retested on patterning, and administered the DIBELS and TOWRE literacy scales and the KEYmath (pre)Algebra scale.

The children instructed on patterning scored best on the patterning posttest, significantly better statistically in comparisons with both the math and literacy groups. No other differences were statistically significant. Children’s scores on the patterning posttest were significantly correlated with the TOWRE Sight Words Efficiency scores. Correlation with the DIBELS Nonsense Word Scale approached statistical significance. Scores on the DIBELS, KEYmath, and TOWRE scales were all intercorrelated, presumably because they all reflect aspects of cognitive development and educational achievement.

In sum, although the patterning instruction was extensive and effective, there is no indication that it affected early math or literacy scores. There is, however, some evidence that patterning and literacy are related, which has been suggested by other researchers.
Through a Glass Darkly: Changing Global Higher

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There are two major debates concerning the changing culture of global higher education. First, there is a normative discussion regarding the pros and cons of the value of higher education; return on investment. The second is a focus on moving to a more equitable distribution of cost: move cost to the recipient of the education. Government is ultimately responsible for the development of higher education in every state and country. The trends are obvious: those states with the most vibrant higher education systems are those that are most productive. Both the social and economic future of states depends heavily on the educational attainment of their population and the quality of their higher education institutions. Economic and cultural globalization have ushered in a new era in higher education. For the first time in history, every research university is part of a single worldwide network and the world leaders in the field have an unprecedented global visibility and power. Research is more internationalized than before and the mobility of faculty has increased. Higher education institutions are being asked to focus on objective measures of performance without consideration for the social values of a degree. In this paper the authors focus on five major cultural shifts in American higher education:

1. Supply; financing; move from state supported to state-assisted
2. Demand; students; by 2020 minority students will be the majority
3. Delivery, competition; faculty, f2f, online, etc.
4. Structure; new structures in different locations, internationalization, no longer brick and mortar
5. Productivity; management by objectives and result.

Global higher education leaders face the most explosive political environment in the history of higher education. This political pressure is being brought to bear on educational leaders due to decreased allocations from the government and the increasingly common perception of waste, theft, and misuse of taxpayer money on college and university campuses coupled with questions of whether the investment in higher education is cost effective. Part of the increasing scrutiny is in response to private sector companies that have gone through restructuring activities and are learning to do more with less. This politically charged environment bodes ill for educational leaders in post-secondary institutions. At no time has higher education been under such inspection. As dollars become scarcer, calls for accountability continually increase and the global higher education leader must be prepared for a variety of demands, opportunities and challenges.
Undergraduate Educational Psychology Students: Lessons Learned from Face-to-Face and Online Sections of the Same Class - Through the Use of Online and Innovative Teaching Modalities

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Abstract

Engaging students in undergraduate Educational Psychology can be difficult when students are either in face-to-face or online classes. When an institution is located in a frontier area, offering undergraduate Educational Psychology classes with an online companion site increases the challenge to connect and engage students. Due to the remoteness of the institution, the problems of engagement becomes even more daunting!

Chadron State College, in western Nebraska, is the only 4-year institution in Nebraska that serves “Frontier and Remote (FAR) Communities.” According to the National Center for Frontier Communities, “Frontier areas are the most remote and geographically isolated areas in the United States. These areas are usually sparsely populated and face extreme distances and travel time to services of any kind.” (CSC, Higher Learning Commission, Assurance Argument 1, Oct. 24, 2016). Despite the remote location of this institution, Chadron State College continues to grow and serve its undergraduate and graduate students through innovative teaching methods. Since 2003, this department chair and the dedicated Chadron State College Psychological
Sciences faculty have transformed the undergraduate Psychology program at CSC from a face-to-face and interactive television (ITV) undergraduate program to a predominately face-to-face and online program(s). Concurrent sections of the Educational Psychology courses function with equivalent Online Learning Management Systems (Sakai).

More work must be done to engage and encourage face-to-face and online undergraduate Educational Psychology students in frontier areas. For the last two years, I have used screencast videos in undergraduate Psychology courses to deepen the understanding of students as they engaged in three focus areas. They were: (1) complete the necessary paperwork, as required by the State of Nebraska, Department of Education (NDE), for teacher observation (Background Check; Oath Statement and Notary; Plan I or Plan II Field Placement Preference; and Cooperating Teacher’s Field Log), (2) Undergraduate student’s 15-hours of required NDE Educational Psychology Observation, and (3) Completion of the Educational Psychology Observation Report.

For the purpose of this research, students in the Educational Psychology online-only class and students in the face-to-face-only course where provided with the same screen cast videos that discussed the three focus areas. Both sections of the Educational Psychology course had comparable learning management sites. The screen cast videos were posted in both classes and were also sent to students’ e-mail accounts. Students evaluate the instructor’s screencast videos for content, clarity, and understanding; student’s feedback provided the instructor with subsequent topics to address in the undergraduate Educational Psychology class. Student feedback of the screen cast videos indicated increased student learning and engagement after viewing the videos in
conjunction with online viewing of assignment instructions and other grading rubrics. Student response to the instructor on the screen cast evaluation were also compared by online versus face-to-face sections.

After the use of screen cast videos, I found the videos increased student’s understanding of the assignment and grading rubric, decreased the number of confusing questions and requests for assistance, dramatically increased by the quality, value and superiority of student submissions by students and for the instructor.
Understanding How Student Engagement Links to Learning Outcomes at an HBCU: Implications for University Leaders

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Ted Kaniuka holds a Doctorate in Educational Leadership and prior to his tenure at Fayetteville State University was a district superintendent, associate superintendent, and school principal. He is currently president-elect for the North Carolina Association of Research in Education, editor to several journals, and is proficient in the use of SPSS, STATA, HML, and other research tools. He current interests are in higher education leadership, educational policy, and school reform.

Abstract

Colleges and universities have long been concerned with improving educational outcomes for students namely persistence and graduation. It has been shown that student engagement has been linked to these outcomes and schools measure the degree to which their campuses reflect aspects of engagement. The National Study of Student Engagement (NSSE) is used by over 1600 schools to assess the perceptions of students on how well see themselves and the behaviors of faculty to support positive engagement. When using large samples to validate the link between engagement indicators and various student outcomes limited relationships have been found between indicators and such outcomes. This study uses 10 years of data at a medium sized HBCU to examine if the findings form these larger studies can be replicated. The findings show that for both the older and newer versions of NSSE that 1) the
engagement indicators are poor predictors of student GPA, persistence, and graduation 2) when the indicators were significant were such that it is doubtful that they present any utility for campus administrators.
Unsung Heroes: Teachers Speak Out About Teaching, Learning, and Job Satisfaction

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Gina G. Berridge is an Associate Professor in elementary education at the University of Southern Indiana. Her research interests include pre-service teachers beliefs and dispositions, elementary education programs, and assessment in the classroom. She has 12 articles published in peer reviewed journals and is currently a reviewer for a publication company of higher education textbooks. Dr. Berridge was also a teacher, principal and superintendent of schools in Indiana and was awarded the Lorin A. Burt award for her service to public education.

Clarissa A. Willis is an associate professor of Special Education at the University of Southern Indiana. Formerly she was the Senior Vice President of Education for Kaplan Early Learning Company. Dr. Willis is the senior author of Learn Every Day: The Program for Infants, Toddlers and Twos and Learn Every Day: The Preschool Curriculum, two new comprehensive curriculum projects. She is the author of thirteen teacher resource books including Teaching Young Children with Autism Spectrum Disorder (Gryphon House), Inclusive Literacy Lessons (Gryphon House), Teaching Infants Toddlers and Twos with Special Needs (Gryphon House), The Early Childhood Classroom (Frog Street Press); My Child has Autism (Gryphon House), and Creating
Inclusive Learning Environments for Young Children: What to do on Monday morning! (Corwin Press).

Abstract
Teaching is a challenging profession in itself, but coupled with high stakes testing and scrutiny by politicians and the media, it has become a discouraging and insecure profession. This research study sought to identify beliefs of teachers about teaching and learning in today’s culture of accountability. Eighty-one of the participants (88%) taking the survey were currently employed. Of those participants currently employed, sixty-four of the participants (70%) taught in a K-12 public school district, eight (9%) taught in K-12 private non-parochial school districts, and thirteen (14%) taught in a parochial school setting. Fifty-five participants (60%) were relative beginners to teaching, having taught 1-6 years. Sixteen participants (18%) had taught 7-10 years, eleven participants (12%) had been in the teaching profession 11-20 years and two participants (2%) had taught more than twenty years. Even though most of the teachers in this study felt valued in their community, they felt their profession, namely teaching, was not highly respected. This would seem to indicate that the individuals who responded felt personally valued, although they saw their profession overall as one that lacked respect.
Urban Elementary School Students' Conceptions of Learning: A Phenomenographic Mapping of Variation

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Sherril English, an elementary school principal for over 10 years, is a PhD Candidate in Curriculum and Instruction at the University of North Texas and a clinical assistant professor in the Simmons School of Education at SMU. She teaches graduate students, supervises beginning teachers in Dallas schools, and provides collaborative support on school culture to non-profits and schools in the West Dallas area. English’s current dissertation research focuses on using qualitative methods to explore elementary 5th grade students’ conceptions of learning inside and outside of school. Additionally, her research interests include student voice, school culture, and urban education.

Abstract
Urban elementary school students encounter a variety of teaching and learning experiences, and yet they still face many academic challenges that often lead to poor classroom performance. The central aim of this research explored variation in the qualitatively different ways that fifth grade urban elementary school students use their voices to express their conceptions of learning inside and outside of school. To gain insights, the interpretive research approach of phenomenography was used. Semi-structured interviews, the most commonly used method of data collection in
phenomenography, were conducted with 20 students from a large, diverse urban school district located in a metropolitan area of north central Texas. Results suggest that important associations exist between students’ conceptions of learning and their approaches to studying. This paper argues that teachers must be willing to work at “creating space” for students’ voices to share their conceptions of learning. By listening to students, teachers will be better prepared to clearly identify what hinders and what supports students’ classroom learning.
Utilizing Inquiry and Discourse to Engage Diverse Stakeholders and Promote Cultural Competence in A Strategic Planning Process

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Sharon Dean, M.S., brings expertise from 45 years of public school teaching and administration, working at the site, district, and state level in data analysis and short- and long-term goal setting. She is currently an associate director for college and career readiness at the University of Oklahoma’s K20 Center for Educational and Community Renewal. At the Center she has served as a project director for both a rural and an urban USDE GEAR UP grant and currently provides professional development for school leaders and facilitates strategic planning with school districts across the state.
Abstract
This case study examines one school district and its efforts to utilize focused inquiry and discourse to engage and develop the cultural competence of its diverse stakeholders during a year long strategic planning process. The research questions are (1) How did the strategic planning process engage diverse stakeholders and develop their cultural competence?" The study is grounded in the theoretical frameworks of cultural competence, engagement competence, and collaborative strategic planning. Data were collected from multiple semi-structured participant interviews, planning artifacts, and field notes. Data were analyzed against the research question to identify specific modes of inquiry and discourse and any resulting changes in cultural and/or engagement competence. Findings reveal a correlation between focused inquiry and discourse and the level of cultural and engagement competence across diverse stakeholder groups. Implications for the study include an increase in understanding of leadership practices for more inclusive participation in school decision making.

Problem
Schools within a democracy should be seen as democratic entities in which the public is invited and expected to participate in the decisions, implementation, and evaluation processes. Democracy is composed of five basic principles of (1) representation: individuals are represented on issues affecting their lives; (2) participation: individuals are involved in the decision-making process; (3) rights: entitlements which are protected and common to all individuals; (4) equity: the fair and equal treatment of individuals and groups; and (5) informed choice: providing the necessary tools and information to make informed decisions (Davies, 2002). Yet, participation is hampered by unequal power relations, a lack of confidence and expertise caused by a lack of
training, and/or poor sharing of information (Mncube and Naicker, 2011). A decision-making process utilized by many schools for future implementation and evaluation is strategic planning. However, despite the possible transformative nature of strategic planning, its drawbacks lie in its lack of stakeholder involvement or involvement that rests in power relations between elites and non-elites. This imbalance of power is often due to the differences in language and knowledge systems (Fischer, 2001). Only when the balance of power is distributed across all stakeholders, will all individuals be able to engage effectively with competence.

As educators seek to reimagine ways to contribute to the development of what public education can and must be for today’s children and communities, researchers must stop and ask, “Who constitutes the public?” and “How are the voices and efforts of those in the community empowered to make informed decisions?” How do we build stakeholders’ engagement competence through the necessary knowledge and capacity? These questions need additional research.

This case study examines the structures and processes provided by a strategic planning organization’s communication design that resulted in an equitable generation of knowledge and individual efficacy, or engagement competence, for all diverse stakeholders.

The research question for the study is:

1. What communication structures and processes support the development of equitable cultural competence across diverse stakeholder groups?

Theoretical Framework

Democratic Schools

The goal of every public school in the United States is to ensure that students become contributing citizens of a democratic society (Glickman, 1998). In a democratic society,
all other goals become secondary to this main one. However, the term “democracy” is being redefined by the political left and right as each party struggles over the seemingly counter focus on the “common good” or the collective “we”, versus the individual’s “pursuit of happiness” or the “I”. People bring to any discussion or decision their own tightly held beliefs about democracy and democratic schooling, making it difficult for each to understand the varying positions that people take. Only by being more inclusive in our educational understanding and analyses can we promote what Apple (Hopkin, 2014) calls “thick” democracy in which all parties are able to express their own opinion while also remaining open to the perspective of others. 

Again Glickman (1998) writes that in order to live out these values, citizens must be able to identify, analyze, and solve problems that face not only themselves but the greater community. He adds that citizens must also be willing to take part and assume leadership roles in the process. As part of this process, citizens must be able to freely engage in an ongoing exchange of ideas, valuing diverse opinions and persons, while communicating their own ideas. This type of collegiality and support are part of what O’Hair and others (2009) term inquiry and discourse. Citizens within a democracy must be able to ask tough questions about an issue, learn from others, and come to decisions that will be good for all. While holding to a commitment to the greater good, individuals are also able to fulfill their needs and aspirations. Thus, each citizen is able to enjoy “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness” while also contributing to the success of others as a whole. Dewey (1916) writes that the purpose of a democratic society is to examine the desirable traits which actually exist and use them to identify and criticize undesirable traits leading to improvement of individuals and society. This purpose aligns with the process of strategic planning discussed in this study.

Collaborative Strategic Planning
Strategic planning refers to the facilitation of continuous learning among decision makers and implementers to boost resilience and respond to change more effectively (Bafarasat, 2014). Strategic planning provides direction for organizing expertise, systems, and resources to create a management system that promotes the stakeholders’ current and future expectations and performance requirements (Ewy, 2009). The contribution of community members to the discourse and activities of policymaking must therefore be addressed. Ewy, in his book, Stakeholder-Driven Strategic Planning in Education, states that stakeholder input ends with data collected through an initial community survey. In place of democratic participation, Ewy proposes that the decision-making be left to “those people within the school district who will have the greatest responsibility for deploying the plan” (p. 14). However, if participation lies at the core of democracy and justice (Torre and Fine, 2006), why should it stop with preliminary data collection? Community members have key interests in improving their schools and should have the opportunity to contribute beyond serving as data sources (Bafarasat, 2014). All members of a school community-professional educators, parents, local activists, and students- should have a say in school governance and policy making (Apple and Bean, 2007). During strategic planning, diverse stakeholders can and should work collaboratively with teachers and administrators to improve teaching and learning (Warren, 2011). In fact, groups of mixed perspectives have the potential to be more innovative and transforming than homogenous groups (Fischer, 2001). Schools that promote collaborative strategic planning foster and respond to the participation of community members, parents and students with school leaders in the decisions that frame what education is for, as well as about what and how students should learn (Shogren, et al., 2015).
To overcome the barriers of a more inclusive decision-making process during strategic planning, educational leaders can look to the abundance of research across multiple disciplines on the correlation between knowledge generation and confidence or efficacy (Srivastava, Bartol, and Locke, 2006; Abbit, 2011; Mehta, et al., 2016). The program of this study was able to show the same correlation as diverse participants gained knowledge and efficacy as part of their district’s strategic planning process. This anomaly in stakeholders, from outside of the educational arena, and their ability to provide meaningful input into a district’s five-year plan, begs the question, “What communication structures and processes were employed to overcome the aforementioned barriers?” This study provides an in-depth look at what public engagement as part of strategic planning can and should look like.

Engagement Competence

Since stakeholder involvement is a precondition for the sustainability of a district’s strategic plan (Ewy, 2009), it is crucial to involve diverse types of stakeholders throughout the planning process to address their specific needs. However, historically there are marginalized groups of stakeholders whose voices are seldom heard during the strategic planning process. Groups have varied abilities to articulate their concerns and therefore some may falter in comparison to other more competent groups. These groups include ethnic minorities, impaired people, young people, the elderly, people with low literacy, and apathetic groups (Bohler-Baedeker, 2014). Equitable participation reflects the overall integration of citizens and groups in the strategic planning processes as well as the resulting sharing of power (Bohler-Baedeker, 2014). This shift of roles in decision-making as part of school districts’ strategic planning requires new problems and opportunities of the varied stakeholders. These stakeholders have multiple, even competing stakes in the process as well come with
varied levels of knowledge, expertise, and confidence in public discourse (Aakhus and Bzdak, 2015). In order to work collaboratively as a democratic decision-making body, these varied individuals require professionals to develop their engagement competence. Engagement competence is defined as a communication practice where competence and expertise are found in the concepts, skills, and methods that were once difficult, impossible, or unimagined (Aakhus, 2012). To enhance engagement competence, leaders must incrementally and collaboratively build a shared understanding of the task at hand (Fischer, 2001). Communication processes that focus on inquiry and discourse provide the foundation upon which stakeholders come to understand and act upon shared tasks and opportunities. Inquiry is the cyclical process in which learning communities engage in translating data into actions that inform instruction (Mandinach, 2012) by leveraging relevant data sources (Carlson, Borman, and Robinson, 2011) and new knowledge in the form of research and external expertise (Anderson, Leithwood, and Strauss, 2010) to generate and implement an innovation (Hamilton et al., 2009) to improve learner achievement, engagement, and/or empowerment (Mandinach and Gummer, 2013). Discourse brings participants together in intentional conversations as part of a high-trust community to share and examine their practice in a continuous cycle of improvement for all learners. Therefore, members of heterogeneous groups must learn to communicate with and learn from others by interacting through a shared reference and skills that are meaningful to all individuals. Competence as part of strategic planning emphasizes cooperation and mutual creativity. Effective facilitators of strategic planning create learning and working environments in which social creativity can emerge through the interaction of diverse stakeholders. Communication activities that generate relevant knowledge, action, and commitments around the needs and expectations of the community for the school
district provide the foundation for engagement competence (Aakhus and Bzdak, 2015). This study seeks to reveal specific communication activities through inquiry and discourse that enabled diverse participants to collaborate successfully in the development of their district’s strategic plan.

Context

This study examines the work, perspectives and feedback from participants and facilitators involved in a year-long strategic planning process in multiple school districts. Each school partnered with the Continuous Strategic Improvement (CSI) model created by researchers at the K20 Center for Educational and Community Renewal at the University of Oklahoma in collaboration with the Oklahoma State School Boards Association. This model consists of four phases: Phase I (Engage); Phase II (Plan); Phase III (Action); Phase IV (Achieve). The school district begins the process by informing the community of the process and how they can be involved in the various phases. Promotional materials such as flyers, newspaper releases, and web page design are provided by the consulting firm.

Phase I, seeks community input through an online survey as well as through multiple face to face forums. At the forums a formal presentation provides stakeholders with the purposes and principles of the strategic planning process and leads them through a series of focus questions that assist stakeholders in providing learner expectations, core educational beliefs, and core values that will support the work of the district. The data from Phase I is analyzed and added to other school data to provide a basis for future decisions. During Phase II teams of heterogeneous teams of stakeholders including teachers, parents, administrators, community members, and students meet to discuss and analyze multiple data sources to identify goal areas and objectives. Phase III utilizes the same stakeholder teams to examine research that addresses the objectives in each of
the goal areas. From this research teams put forth initiatives, action steps and performance measures that will be used to determine the success of the plan. Additionally, the teams develop a five-year implementation timeline which provides a structure to minimize an overload of district human and financial resources. During Phase IV each school site develops a year one implementation plan in support of the district plan. Goal area chairs are elected from the teams to oversee the five-year implementation and to serve as the monthly spokesperson to the administration and/or the board of education.

Upon completion of each phase of the strategic planning process, participant feedback provides evidence that objectives are successfully met and that participants are actively and meaningfully engaged throughout as contributing members. By participating in the process, members report an increase in knowledge and efficacy. Questions on the surveys are aligned to the objectives of each day and ask both knowledge and efficacy based questions. For example in Phase I, participants are asked to respond to the statement, “I understand the purpose of strategic planning.” The response to this statement is indicative of the participants’ knowledge. Statements aligned to efficacy include, “I fulfilled an important role in the development of the district’s strategic plan.” All questions are on a Likert scale of “Strongly Agree”, “Agree”, “Disagree”, and “Strongly Disagree”. There is a positive correlation between knowledge learned and participants’ belief in their ability to provide meaningful input into their district’s strategic planning decisions. This feedback provides empirical evidence that stakeholders representative of parents, students and community members can effectively work collaboratively with school personnel in strategic planning which leads to this study to explain “how” this stakeholder competence is achieved.

Methodology
A case study is the chosen methodology. A distinguishing feature of case study is the belief that human systems develop a characteristic wholeness or integrity and not simply a loose collection of traits. Case study provides an in-depth investigation of the interdependencies of parts and of the patterns that emerge (Bassey, 2003). This study examines the diverse human systems found within and among stakeholder groups and how together, with the school districts and the facilitators they form an interdependency to create a strategic plan.

A case study is chosen as the appropriate methodology because the research comes from a study within a bound system of one strategic planning program across multiple school districts, within an two-year period (Hyett & Dickson-Swift, 2014). The researchers are the facilitators of the process and made efforts to bracket themselves from the data and analysis (Schwandt, 2014). Qualitative data were coded and themed around the research questions (Saldana, 2015).

Data Sources
Qualitative data were collected from comments on the feedback surveys following each day of development, interviews, artifacts, and field notes collected throughout the districts over a two-year period. Data was collected from 1,165 surveys, eighteen interviews, and multiple field notes and artifacts including the final strategic plans for each district.

Data Analysis
Qualitative Data
Qualitative data come from the feedback surveys, interviews, and field notes collected throughout the four phases. The feedback surveys include a section for open-ended comments. These comments, along with the interviews and field notes, were analyzed
for communication tools and/or processes as well as for knowledge gained and efficacy of empowerment. Based on the previous research on engagement competence, it is the intent of the researchers to uncover the interdependence of various communication structures and processes that generated knowledge and increased efficacy for stakeholders, while also being open to other contributing sources.

Results
The data analysis led to the discovery of specific communication structures, processes, and tools that were found to be beneficial to stakeholders in their acquisition of knowledge and efficacy. These include (1) scaffolding of phases and facilitation, (2) ensuring diverse participation, (3) using team protocols to develop trusting relationships, (4) providing data notebooks, (5) providing inquiry and discourse guides for data analysis, and (6) providing educational research.

From the beginning of the development stage, the CSI organization realized the importance of scaffolding the process into specific phases to allow time for acquisition and processing of new learning by all team members. This “step by step” process is acknowledged by several participants as crucial to their sense of efficacy. One participant emphasizes, “They (the facilitators) have always said, ‘respect the process.’ Step back and really just start slow, step by step.” Another shares how this process made the activities “easy to follow” because it is presented in a “step by step” process. A school board member adds how the process is the, “most organized and well laid out process” he has experienced. Another participant summarizes the effect of the step by step process on participants’ sense of efficacy by stating, “The way it was broken down, the way the steps were followed, it was easy for all of us to have a say. We had students that were very impressive who would stand up and speak for their table and be the lead!”
Breaking the learning and activities into specific steps is also aided by the length of time planned for the entire process. A community member participant shares that at first she was “a little bit bashful, not wanting to speak up.” However, because of how phases are scheduled over “a long period of time with two days scheduled in a row…I think that helped quite a bit.”

The importance of diversity is addressed with each school district from the beginning as together we plan the scheduling of the community forums. School districts are encouraged to offer at least two times and places for community forums, but most go beyond in an effort to reach as many school stakeholders as possible. One district administrator shares, “I believe it is important to reach out to your community, reach out to your student body or teachers and that way you can make a collective decision that benefits everybody.” This feeling is echoed by an administrator of another school district, “Our goal was to have a lot more of a varied representation of the groups of our students’ population, our city population. We went to all of those places…we went to the east side. We went to the Cheyenne Arapaho tribal complex. We went to the Catholic church.” Districts also go to great lengths to publicize their community forums. “We put it out in every medium we possible could. Put it out in multiple times. Did all-calls and advertisements and letters and newsletters and call blasts.”

During the community forums, participants provide their input digitally using PollEverywhere. This structure provides anonymity which many believe help to increase the comfort level for some. “I think the format was good because you could just type it in and nobody knew where it was coming from.” It became apparent that districts wanted and valued community input into important school decisions. However, districts also understood the reality of involving everyone. “It’s just hard to get people to come to those sort of things. Sometimes they may not feel comfortable
and that’s why we have tried to go and meet them where they are.” Another participant shares how her involvement as a planning team member allows her to be a voice for others in her community who “feel like their voice is not heard.” She shares how she is now committed to “go back and say to those people in the community that we (the school) do want your input and feedback.”

The diversity of planning teams organized and utilized during the planning process is also an important factor in the development of participant knowledge and efficacy. Each team is made up of one administrator, one teacher, one parent, one student, and one community member (one of the community members in the whole group can be a school board member). A school board member who had participated on other strategic planning programs, comments on the importance of a “good cross section of stakeholders to get valuable thoughts” during the process. He compares this team diversity as better than when only “preconceived ideas” come from the organizations leadership. With this diversity of backgrounds and knowledge levels, the CSI facilitators spend intentional time up front to build relationships and to establish communication protocols. Team protocols are placed on each table, referred to often, and include:

Be Respectful of Time:
• Attend meetings.
• Be on time.
• Honor the schedule.

Be Respectful of Each Other:
• Everyone has an equal voice.
• One person speaks at a time.
• Be open to learning from each other.
• Listen to and show respect for others opinion.
• Cell phone on silent and set aside.
• Hold side conversations during break.

Be Respectful of the Process
• Discuss ideas instead of people.
• Feel free to ask questions.
• Maintain confidentiality.
• Use consensus protocol.

With these guidelines understood and practiced, participants quickly gain new knowledge and grow in their confidence to contribute in meaningful ways. A parent and community member shares, “It’s been a real learning experience because everyone at your table is from a different area…so you learn to see things from a different angle and that’s good.” A district administrator confirms this. “They (community members) are learning as well, and that’s been one of the good things.” He later adds how the administration also learned from the community members, “It’s kind of surprising sometimes to see the things that they hold as extremely valuable.” A parent participant comments on the value of having representatives from a diverse stakeholder group. “You know, if you’re not in the know or you don’t have a close connection to one of those people (school people) then there’s really not any way for you to know those kinds of things.” Sharing “school” knowledge became a valued outcome for several community participants. One shares how involvement in the teams also lead to an increase in the level of participants’ efficacy to provide input.
The more you involve them (the community and students), the more comfortable they become with the process...just getting them used to our procedures and protocols and how things work here so that they feel that they can be beneficial and can provide input and be a value to our system.

It is important to note that the district superintendents are asked to not serve on any specific team. One superintendent summarizes the reason for this decision. “It’s time for me to step back and give other people some input into where we go next…I want it to be a plan of the people…I have stayed out of it because I want their input and I want them to feel comfortable in giving their input without you looking over their shoulders.” However, the superintendents are in attendance during all of the sessions to provide clarity to questions that arose. Participants acknowledge the importance of district leadership’s presence, “The superintendent and assistant superintendent were here to answer and to clarify any question that we had.” This sharing of knowledge greatly increases the diverse participants’ efficacy and empowerment.

Each team member is also provided with a data notebook compiled by district leadership. The data is organized into data types including student achievement data, demographic data, programs data, resources data, and perception data. Adequate time is spent during the first day of Phase II to familiarize participants with these five types of data and how they provide an overall picture of where the school district is currently and how the different data types are supportive of each other. The facilitators provide different activities for team members to become acquainted with the organization of the notebook, different types and sources and data, data analysis and the importance of intersecting data to gain the “big picture.” The data sets are divided across teams so that no one team is responsible for all data. All teams analyze a specific section of the
student achievement data. The remainder of the data sources are divided equally across teams for analysis. By “dividing and conquering”, the teams are able to examine and analyze all of the data in a timely fashion. However, to also maintain the big picture for all team members, time is taken to share individual team results with all participants. Participants are regularly reminded of their role as advocates for the entire plan. A school board member comments on the importance of having access to large amounts of data and using it to drive the decision-making process. “Our decisions were truly driven by data, as opposed to opinions. Data we can stand behind.” The same board member goes on to add how the data and the performance measures derived from them will provide “measurable marks” during implementation to decide “if we are making real progress...we will have real facts to work from.”

Few people outside of school systems, have the necessary expertise to analyze large data sets. The facilitators therefore developed Inquiry and Discourse Guides for Data Analysis. Each data set in the notebook has its own data analysis guide which provides step by step instruction on which data to examine, specific questions to be discussed by the group, and how to recognize and record areas of concern identified through the discussions. Several participants were pleasantly surprised by their ability to contribute to such in-depth analysis. A participant from one school remarked at the end of Phase III how the facilitators had made it easy for them to make sense of all of the data by providing the data analysis guides and dividing the data between teams so that it was manageable. The participant notes how she felt “empowered” by contributing to the process. A community member summarizes the success of the data analysis process by stating, “You guys did a wonderful job of introducing data analysis to many who had never experienced it! That's not easily done in two crash-course sessions - but you made it work very well!”
After the data are analyzed and goal areas are identified from the data, teams are charged with developing initiatives and actions steps to address those areas. Again, the levels of expertise on educational research-based practices is not common knowledge for the general public. New knowledge in the form of research and external expertise (Anderson, Leithwood, and Strauss, 2010) to generate and implement an innovation (Hamilton et al., 2009) to improve learner achievement, engagement, and/or empowerment (Mandinach and Gummer, 2013 & Copland, 2003) is provided through an annotated research document. Following another inquiry and discourse process of root cause analysis, teams are able to narrow their focus for research and then consult the research document for initiatives to implement in their goal area. This process is again supported by the diverse members placed on each team. During this time of focused inquiry and discourse around the research, questions and answers are addressed from the perspectives of teachers, parents, administration, and students. Participants from outside the school especially find the research helpful to gain an understanding of the “best practices” to consider for initiatives to put forwards as part of the plan. Parents and students made numerous comments about different articles they read and then shared with their team. At one school, it was two high school students who enthusiastically shared, “Listen to what this research says!” A superintendent noted, “They (community members) are learning as well, and that’s been one of the good things.” The research document provides a source of needed information so that the knowledge level of the team is more equitable which contributes to increased efficacy and empowerment of the team members. Discussion
The following graphic shows the relationship between the development of engagement competence, its supportive nature within collaborative strategic planning, and the overall support for democratic schools.

Through the use of specific, scaffolded structures and processes to enhance participants’ inquiry and discourse skills, stakeholders from diverse cultural backgrounds are able to engage with competence in the decision-making process of collaborative strategic planning. This inclusive participatory process yields what Apple declared as “thick” democracy in which all parties are able to express their own opinions while also remaining open to the perspective of others. Each level provides the necessary supports so that citizens are able to identify, analyze, and solve problems that face not only themselves, but the greater community.

The research question for the study is, “what communication structures and processes support the development of equitable cultural competence across diverse stakeholder groups?” The data analysis provides ample evidence that the structures and processes that are effective include (1) scaffolding of phases and facilitation, (2) ensuring diverse participation, (3) using team protocols to develop trusting relationships, (4) providing data notebooks, (5) providing inquiry and discourse guides for data analysis, and (6) providing educational research. Through these communication structures, important decisions for the growth of respective public school districts are made by the supporters and participants from across the public sector. Equitable participation within supportive conditions allow diverse citizens in the strategic planning processes to share the power (Bohler-Baedeker, 2014) with confidence in public discourse (Aakhus and Bzdak, 2015). In order to work collaboratively as a democratic decision-making body, these varied individuals require
professionals to develop concepts, skills, and methods that were once difficult, impossible, or unimagined (Aakhus, 2012). Facilitators are able to incrementally and collaboratively build a shared understanding of the task at hand (Fischer, 2001). Communication processes that focused on inquiry and discourse provide the foundation upon which stakeholders come to understand and act upon shared tasks and opportunities.

Implications and Significance
This study has implications for public school district level leadership as they consider and choose strategic planning processes. The study provides school leadership with the confidence to reach beyond the school walls to become more inclusive of citizen participation in the decision-making processes involved in strategic planning. The study also has implications and significance to higher education leadership programs as they develop future leaders for public education systems. Lastly, the study has implications and significance for other strategic planning organizations and facilitators to utilize similar structures and process of inquiry and discourse to develop the decision-making skills of diverse stakeholders.

References


Warnings, Warnings, Warning......how much is enough?

Eric Combs  
American Learning Academy

Tanya Moore  
American Learning Academy

A certified trainer in K-12 Education with a BA in Sociology from Arizona State University, Tanya Moore brings hope, laughter, and best of all, practical solutions to teachers challenged by the various students who enter classrooms. As a parent of school-age children, Tanya shares proven classroom management strategies designed to put the classroom teacher back into the driver’s seat. Tanya’s classroom management tools and techniques will give back 5-9 hours of teaching time to the teachers, allowing them to reconnect with their passion and reasons for becoming a teacher.

Abstract

Do you remember the time when you could not wait to transform children’s lives, when your dreams were about making a difference in the world through teaching? Whatever happened to those dreams? Right now, you may be feeling burnt out as a teacher. You are probably ready to quit because you can’t seem to take control of discipline in your classroom, and you are just “fed up” with this profession.

Please; don’t quit just yet! Let me share with you a research based, proven system that can cut out 50-70% of your discipline problems or behavior challenges. Give yourself the opportunity of accomplishing what you chose as a profession. I assure you that if
you choose to follow the easy steps I will teach you, you will regain your enthusiasm and love for teaching again.

Students need a system laid out for them in what is proven to be consistent and predictable every time an occurrence (misbehavior) happens. This will alleviate stress for both the student and the teacher when things are predictable, clear and consistent. Some teachers can get caught up in a narrative, where a student comes from (as far as if it’s in a negative environment) but sometimes forget that maybe the most important part of a student’s life, currently, is the time they are at school. By providing a stable, consistent and predictable environment to come to, this may also alleviate some of the outside challenges for the student.

Lastly, a child that knows you care, is less likely to challenge you, than a child that does not think you care. Learn how to like and include all the students in your class, even the most challenging ones, so that everyone feels included and no one is left out. Even the child that misbehaves often, might just be the “bad “child turned superstar in the end.

If you would like to increase your student’s academic grades by an average of 70% and decrease discipline issues and office referrals by an average of 50 to 70%, as well as create a very strong and positive school environment, please allow me to show you some practical strategies to get you back in the game and connected to your passion for teaching again. And eliminate all those warnings, for crying out loud!
White Privilege Misunderstood

Franklin Thompson
University of Nebraska-Omaha

Franklin Thompson is an associate professor in the College of Education at the University of Nebraska at Omaha. His academic areas of research include race relations, multicultural education, at-risk children, and counseling. He has taught in the public high schools for 16 years, and at the collegiate level for 25 years. Thompson is also the Director of Human Rights and Relations for the City of Omaha. Thompson is one of several founding fathers of the Omaha Table Talk Program that promotes racial reconciliation. In addition, he is a singer-songwriter and produces race and human relations music.

Abstract

The teaching of white privilege in multicultural courses causes much controversy. This study, which utilizes survey research, seeks to uncover from a student perspective whether or not the topic of white privilege should be included in teacher preparation curriculum. Respondents (N=777) entered a state mandated multicultural course with moderate acceptance of the concept. The introduction of an eclectic, critical pedagogy brand of multicultural instruction helped students make significant pretest-to-posttest gains in mean scores (t(771)=21.906, p<.0005). There was also increased pretest-to-posttest acceptance of two other variables: (a) “Many whites miss the bigger race relations picture (t(776)=12.005, p<.0005), and (b) “Discussions about racism are still relevant in Post-Obama America (t(777)=12.434, p<.0005). Effect sizes (d) were large (0.93), approaching medium (0.46), and medium (0.51) respectively. A smaller subgroup (N=229) of initial opponents of the white privilege concept made an even
greater pretest-to-posttest change in mean scores with a very large effect size: (t(228)=
25.980, p<.0005, d=1.94).

A balanced curriculum approach was utilized by highlighting many forms of majority-
group privileges above and beyond skin color. Future teachers must understand how
power and privilege plays itself out on different levels, and that, unfortunately, skin
color has become the most controversial and resisted form of those privileges. The end
purpose is not to focus on white skin per se, but on the sociology of how power is
wielded. This research demonstrates that students are not as fragile as we think they
are, and that when taught with a fair-and-balanced approach, critical multicultural
education is not only accepted – it can be a liberating experience for education majors.
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Tanya Yerigan, Southwest Minnesota State University
Dennis Lamb, Southwest Minnesota State University
Breaking the Fiberglass Ceiling: Women in the Recreation Marine Industry

Lisa Knowles
St. Thomas University

Lisa Knowles, Ph.D. is an Associate Professor of Management at St. Thomas University, Gus Machado School of Business, in Miami Gardens, Florida. Her research interests include the recreation marine industry, entrepreneurship, organization behavior and organizational culture. You may contact her at lknowles@stu.edu.

Abstract
The proposed research views recent statistical regional evidence for women in executive leadership. One of South Florida’s strongest economic impacts derives from the multi-billion dollar recreation marine industry. This traditionally male-dominated industry is one of the few where women are rarely seen at all levels. A close look at South Florida’s recreation marine industry explores how women enter this industry and what specific opportunities become available to them throughout their professional careers. Women’s recent participation in marine education programs appears to be an effective way to attain the highest levels of career options in this industry. Acting as mentors, role models, or in other leadership positions provides women the tangible evidence to navigate career direction in the marine industry.

Keywords: women and careers, recreation marine industry, nontraditional occupations, organizational culture, entrepreneurship
Introduction

The call of the sea led to one of the world’s oldest modes of transportation and trading. Moving goods from one settlement to another was only accomplished by land or by sea, with the waterways offering more diverse destinations. Eventually, military and shipping took their place as a dominant force on the waters, ruled by the wind and the waves. It wasn’t until the 20th century that the actual act of boating on waterways transformed from a merchant or military basis to a recreational framework. The NASA space program created many products, such as fiberglass, resins, and composites that proved equally effective for maritime purposes, adding to the durability of the boating product itself (Knowles, 2010).

The development of the recreation marine industry began when people sought new ways to enjoy waterways strictly for pleasure: fishing, skiing, snorkeling, diving, or any other leisure waterway activity involving power or sailing vessels. The development of recreational vessels began its surge in the 1960s after the advent of fiberglass structures (Knowles, 2010). The NASA program’s new technologies became the impetus for fiberglass boats as the demand for recreational boating continued to increase throughout the waterfront communities in the United States. South Florida sailed with the industry, becoming the “Yachting Capital of the World.”

This paper begins with a look at women in executive leadership in Florida. Specific attention to the recreation marine industry and its cluster-growth in South Florida is supported with research from recent industry economic impact studies. Women in marine-related jobs pose an addition to nontraditional careers. Industry research provides a glance at educational programs and women who are breaking the fiberglass ceiling. It is, therefore, desirable that research for academic purposes becomes a goal for future study.
Women in Executive Leadership

Statistical regional evidence for Florida’s top 100 public companies shows women in executive leadership slightly increasing from 7.4% in 2008, moving to 8.8% in 2010 and up to 11.8% in 2014 for female board directors and top-level executives (Women Executive Leadership, 2014). Research indicates that gender diversity at the board and executive levels outperform those without such diversity (Ibid, p.1). Furthermore, 32 of Florida’s leading firms have increased the number of females in their board of directors or on their boards, according to the WEL 2014 Census (Women Executive Leadership, 2017). Despite women being scarce at the executive level, indications reveal changes are occurring in some industries.

South Florida’s Recreation Marine Industry

One of South Florida’s strongest industries derives from the multi-billion dollar recreation marine industry. This traditionally male-dominated industry is one of the few where women are rarely seen. However, women are entering the marine industry on career paths and advancing to top levels in areas such as small business operators and entrepreneurs, directors in marine-related associations, participants in marine-related educational programs, and top-tiered career paths including captains on mega yachts and cruise ships.

Academic literature focused on the recreation marine industry, marine tourism and leisure is extremely limited, and at best has been sparsely entangled in scientific or environmental contexts with little direct research aimed at the industry itself, professional careers available, and the strong economic impact it generates in coastal areas, most notably, South Florida. Smith (2000) recognized this void in academic literature and attempted to fill the gap in his marine tourism published. Ditton’s (1972)
research defended increased leisure time as cause for the increase in marine environment recreation.

National statistics reveal that ocean and coastal economies, including the Great Lakes provide more than 50 million jobs and make up nearly 60 percent of the nation’s economy (Blumenthal, 2009, p. 7A). South Florida enjoys healthy economic impact derived from the $11 billion recreation marine industry (Murray, 2014). This means there are jobs, careers, and lifestyles that are appealing to a wide variety of individuals. Marine industry jobs are considered high-skilled and high wage.

Regional statistical data reveal a significant economic impact in South Florida rising from the recreation marine industry. Murray’s (2014) most recent economic impact study reveals the following:

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<th>2010</th>
<th>2014</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Broward County</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic impact</td>
<td>$7.4 billion</td>
<td>$8.8 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages and earnings</td>
<td>$2.6 million</td>
<td>$3.7 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jobs</td>
<td>92,000</td>
<td>110,500</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Dade County</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic impact</td>
<td>$541 million</td>
<td>$796 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages and earnings</td>
<td>$195.9 million</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jobs</td>
<td>5476</td>
<td>7776</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<th>2010</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Palm Beach County</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic impact</td>
<td>$.923 billion</td>
<td>$1.883 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages &amp; earnings</td>
<td>$334.4 million</td>
<td>$628.1 million</td>
</tr>
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<td>500</td>
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</table>
Tri-county area

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2017</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jobs</td>
<td>8921</td>
<td>18,220</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic impact</td>
<td>$8.9 billion</td>
<td>$11.5 billion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages and earnings</td>
<td>$3 billion</td>
<td>$4 billion</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jobs</td>
<td>107,000</td>
<td>136,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, recent U.S. government’s Bureau of Economic analysis (BEA) contends that the boating/fishing recreation is second in the outdoor creation industry driving $38.2 billion dollar gross output in 2016, surpassed only by motorized vehicles $59.4 billion output; and yet higher than the golf and tennis gross outputs of $3.2 billion (Cox & Reed, 2018). This is significant for the federal government to realize this unique industry as an economic driver with jobs and professional career paths, which has otherwise been buried with in other job sectors previously.

Leeworthy (2001) cited Florida as the number one U.S. destination for marine recreation activity (Swett, et al 2009). Additional elements pertaining to geographical location, infrastructure, business community and policy makers support the sustainability of this unique industry (Murray, 2014).

Another South Florida phenomenon for this industry is the rise of the mega yachts. Murray’s (2018) recent economic impact study regarding the trends of mega yachts (80’ feet in length and more) in South Florida reveals continued growth for their presence and related marine businesses, reflecting worldwide construction of new builds.

Mega Yacht Summary

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<th>1997</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2017</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tri-county area: total mega yachts</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, 13,000 new mega yachts have been built since 1997; more than 8500 since 2007 (Murray, 2018). The economic impact generated by each vessel contributes to related businesses, taxes, job opportunities, and the need for highly skilled labor.

**Marine Industry Cluster**


Wall Street hosts the largest group of true financiers, Hollywood encourages those in the fine arts and entertainment; Silicon Valley contains high technology industries, Napa Valley cultivates American wine country; and so too, the marine industries have come to define their own breed as a well-developed cluster in South Florida (Knowles, 2010).

The South Florida marine industry cluster spawned infrastructure development, retailers, industry professionals, educational and training facilities, and related trade-based repair companies in a small geographical area. Fort Lauderdale has earned the nickname, “Yachting Capital of the World” (MIASF, 2006) due to its waterways accommodating large numbers of yachts, marinas and boat yards, retailers, and numerous ancillary businesses catering to marine-related needs. Not only does Fort Lauderdale contain such a unique geographical setting itself; but its close proximity to the Bahamas and other Caribbean nations allows it to serve as the launching point for boaters aiming for those crystal clear warm waters.
Porter’s (1998) definition of an industry cluster is supported with the “diamond” defining competitive advantage: factor conditions; demand conditions; related and supporting industries; and firm strategy, structure, and rivalry. These factors are clearly evidenced in South Florida’s recreation marine industry. Murray (2018) likewise suggests South Florida’s marine industry represents the “significant clusters of professional services and talents necessary for the world’s growing mega yacht sector,” (p. 4).

**Traditional Male-Dominated Industry**

Women typically have not chosen boating careers. Historically, women were allowed on boats. Back in the eighteenth century, exceptions were made for the captain’s wife. A few women disguised themselves as boys and secured positions onboard ships of the day. And there were even a few female pirates (Sorum, 2007) back in the early 1700s, most notably Mary Reed and Anne Bonny. But these were all exceptions since women were considered to be bad luck. Superstitious beliefs, such as crew distractions or placing the ships in peril, were prevalent up to the last century. Women were mostly represented onboard either as a carved figurehead placed in the bow guiding the vessel to safe and calm seas or offering their namesake for the ship (Mariner’s Museum, 2001).

Out of necessity, during wartime, women were occasionally permitted to serve aboard ships. Among various tasks they held included sewing, helping out with journals and some even learned navigating skills. Those with nursing skills were likewise granted positions, starting as early as the War of 1812. Voids created during the World Wars (Zula, 2014) brought women closer to opportunities with various skilled trade positions using machinery, tooling, and other industry-related manufacturing process of the early twentieth century. However, these occupations
sprung up out of pure necessity as gaps in the workforce were created with so many men serving during the wars (Mariner’s Museum, 2001).

**Barriers women face in the nontraditional jobs**

The U.S. Department of Labor describes fields with fewer than 25% female employees as a nontraditional career for women (McKay, 2017). Most non-traditional careers offer higher skilled and higher wage positions. However, the stigma of “not woman’s work” creates a cultural barrier that has long outlived its stay.

Employers may have misconceptions as to whether women have the ability to perform in non-traditional job roles. An unseen barrier comes from women’s core identity along with their perspective and practice in leadership and exercising authority (Ibarra, et al, 2013). Stamarshi & Hing (2015) deem the sexism of decision-makers, including HR-related decisions influence gender-based biases starting with the hiring processes. Shrestha (2016) states that the “labelling of certain occupations as male or female act as a strong deterrent preventing women from entering a particular job role,” (p. 43). Therefore, women’s own perspective viewing a nontraditional role as something not for them creates a barrier.

Another significant barrier is the role of men’s attitude towards women in nontraditional jobs (Legault, 2003). This may be a deep-rooted cultural value where the male cannot accept the fact that a female is performing in a similar job role. And, again, this may actually be reinforced by women themselves, which only helps to perpetuate existing barrier preventing woman to risk pursuing a nontraditional career path. Only after a length of time is a woman truly accepted by her male counterparts (Legault, 2003). National Maritime Polytechnic (2000) addressed women’s concerns in the various sectors of the maritime industry with findings supporting the need to promote equality
in employment. Therefore, the traditional paradigm defining gender specific work may need to be altered.

**Breaking the fiberglass ceiling: women in the industry**

Exceptional women historically have found their way onboard boats, though their presence was not always recorded as the sea was always considered a male domain (Cordingly, 2007). As in most careers, women entering this industry work their way up as their skills set increases. However, women face more challenges and obstacles in this industry. Where traditionally pure brawn was in demand in order to perform many of the required tasks and activities in boating, today technological advances have eased this requirement. Women began to show up in marine-related family businesses, assist their spouses either on boats or in land-based related companies, and have gained acceptance in maritime programs. Opportunities have developed as careers in sales, management, yacht crew, design, manufacturing, technical and trades as well as entrepreneurial endeavors have brought more women into the industry than ever before. One such evidence of women moving rapidly into the marine industries is supported by Martek Marine with over 60 employees, of which up to 75% are women (MI News, 2017).

**Breaking the Fiberglass Ceiling: Women as role models and leaders**

With few role models and fewer leaders, moving into nontraditional careers are difficult for women (Ibarra, et al, 2031). There seems to be a slight break in the fiberglass ceiling as women become entrepreneurs running small and/or family owned businesses (Bareuther, 2017), captains running million-dollar megayachts (Beckett, 2017), and a cruise ship captain (Halpern, 2018).

Maritime careers have slowly become attractive to women, with many firsts attributed to some of the following fiberglass ceiling frontrunners. Captain Molly Cool
became the first female registered sea captain in North America in 1939. At age 21 she completed her Master Mariner’s certificate from the Merchant Marine school in New Brunswick, Canada. The Canada shipping act was amended to read “he or she” as a direct result of Molly Cool attaining her captain’s license (Associated Press, 2009).

Other women transcending the fiberglass ceiling include: Sue Dauser, who in 1944, became the first female captain in the United States Navy (Working Nurse, n.d.). Women were permitted enrollment into the maritime academies in 1974. Kathleen McGrath became the first woman to command a United States Navy warship in 2000 (Woo, 2002). In 2018, Captain Kate McCue became the first female to command a cruise line megaship (Halpern, 2018).

Beckett (2017) highlighted female yacht captains and their struggle to move from the deck up to the wheelhouse. Their stories combine their involvement in boating with the pursuit of educational attainment granting them both experience and credentials to become yacht captains (Beckett, 2017). “Women have turned their passion for being on the water into impressive careers and leadership roles that inspire us all,” (Michelman, 2009).

Other notable women surpassing the fiberglass ceiling include: Doris Colgate, CEO Doris Colgate’s Offshore Sailing School; Katrin Theodoli, owner of Magnum Marine; Kris Carroll, president Grady White Boats, (Beckett, 2009) and Kimberly Gonzales, CEO Shadow Marine (Sanford, 2008), and Heather Valdez, General Manager of Sailorman, (Bareuther, 2017) and Kristy Hebert, VP Ward’s Electric (MIASF, 2006). These women have rose above the tides into top positions running marine-related businesses or commanding yachts and ships. They have become established role models leaving in their wake opportunity for younger females to follow nontraditional career paths.

Organizational Culture Shift
Encouraging women to marine industry occupations is enhanced when an organizational culture shift is supported by the firm. Martek Marine supports the premise that gender must not be seen as an industry requirement; instead it must be “completely irrelevant, it is just about the best people for the job,” (MI News, 2017, para. 6).

Shifting the organizational culture begins with the institutions of higher education offering program, accessibility and presenting role models in marine professions. MI News (2017) reported that in 2014, the World Maritime University (WMU) publications included females portrayed in leadership roles as well as making visible women’s achievements in the maritime industry. In addition, the IMO launched a video “Making Waves: Women Leaders in the Maritime World” in 2015 spotlighting women’s growing prominence in the shipping maritime industry (MI News, 2017).

Ibarra, et al (2013) defend numerous studies whereby women who do achieve nontraditional positions may be viewed as able to perform their jobs but are less likeable than the men in similar roles. Here a paradigm shift is waiting to happen: for women to move beyond the desire to be well-liked instead of being capable, efficient, and professional in their job performance (Ibid, 2013).

Overcoming societal perspectives is imperative: “there’s no doubt the marine scene is a male dominated one” (Bareuther, 2017, para. 1). The cultural bias still exists as evidenced through sexist comments made toward women captains (Beckett, 2017). Overcome the barriers is when “women enjoy their leadership positions” and see it as “an ability to create their own culture in the workplace,” (Ibid, para 5). In addition, although many women feel they may need to work harder, when it comes to level of experience in the wheelhouse and certification, women are showing they can do it. As captains, it has been said they are more empathetic towards crew (Beckett, 2017).
Women have a reputation for being more detail-oriented. The perspective remains that women are not confident enough, won’t be taken seriously by their crew, or would cause temptations by flirting with the males (Sanford, 2008). Nevertheless, female captains continue to be pioneers in their industry. Women themselves need to change their mindset, besides the “good ol’ boys club” perspective which may keep many women from pursuing these nontraditional job opportunities (Sanford, 2008). Bareuther (2017) suggests that women in marine-related leadership roles enjoy the opportunity to “create their own culture in the workplace,” (para.6).

**Marine Educational Programs**

Educational opportunities and exposure to the industry by daring women has helped fiberglass ceiling mavericks to be seen as role models for other women who may now realize a career commanding boats, yachts, and ships. Maritime institutions provide opportunity for women to enter the field of boating. In addition, there are several programs in South Florida that have gained visibility for those desiring marine industry training, besides the captain career path. Riviera Beach Maritime public charter school has female admissions to their classes with 25% of their enrollment female as of the 2014/2015 academic year. Likewise, Broward College Associate of Science degree program in Marine Engineering has enrolled female students as has the South Broward High School Marine Magnet Program. The National Women’s Sailing Association boasts of Doris Colgate’s Offshore Sailing School.

Women’s recent participation in marine education programs is an effective way to attain high-level positions. Courting women to the industry must help them overcome the idea that these careers never occurred to girls or women. Young females need to see the variety of careers available.
Discussion

Women are slowly becoming exposed to and making career path choices in the recreation marine industry. It is vital that young females are exposed to these types of job opportunities. Research supports gender diversity enhancement and businesses profitability, effectiveness, and overall gains for women in our American society. This is important in that women see greater opportunities so as to generate greater diversity. Helping men accept women in new roles helps make the cross-over seemingly smooth. High paying jobs, entrepreneurial opportunities and opportunities to oversee a mega yacht or cruise ship permits women to operate in executive and top leadership roles. For women to break the fiberglass ceiling, there remain fewer totally male dominated industries to be accessed by women.

An important contribution for this research is to add to the evolving body of knowledge aimed at understanding how to integrate and retain women in nontraditional careers (Martin & Barnard, 2013, para.7). Furthermore, companies may take a second look at how they portray women in nontraditional careers in their practices, values, attitudes, and organization culture.

Future research will help women see career opportunities in the recreation marine industry. A suggested qualitative focus would provide rich knowledge as women move into these nontraditional job opportunities.

Conclusion

Women are slowly making headway into executive leadership positions. A rarely studied, yet highly significant recreation marine industry continues to make waves with a strong economic impact, especially in South Florida. This industry comes with the prospect of high-wage, high skilled jobs and professional careers. Therefore, attention to prospective opportunities for women in this nontraditional industry navigates entry for
new career paths as educational programs become more widely known. Barriers remain; however, more women are performing in unique positions providing leadership and role models for younger girls. We have come full circle since women were at one time not even permitted to be on a boat. Today, women are captains on multimillion dollar megayachts and cruise line mega ships. They are running successful marine businesses, taking risks as entrepreneurs, and finding prominence in a variety of marine industry related professions. These should continue to remain and grow as part of the future career trends for women.

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Bringing Mindfulness into the Classroom

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Abstract
Mindfulness is by no means a new phenomenon, yet there is a plethora of new resources on a topic that continues to grow and benefit people and organizations all over the world. Mindfulness practices originated thousands of years ago in eastern traditions, most notably Buddhism. While there are many definitions of mindfulness, most include the notion of “paying attention to the present moment deliberately and nonjudgmentally” (Michie, 2014, p.4).

Meditation is one of the most talked about practices associated with mindfulness; however, it is not the only means to a more mindful existence. “Mindfulness can be cultivated through many means from which experiences within attuned relationships, to approaches in education that emphasize reflection, to formal meditation” (Siegel, 2007, p. xv).

The need for mindfulness training and education is ever growing in the 21st century technology-driven world. On a daily basis, people find themselves in a multitasking turbulence of activity where we are always doing something, but rarely just being in the moment. While most see this ability to multitask as a strength, the truth is that it makes people less productive, less effective and more likely to experience burnout (Michie). In addition, our brains require human interaction to help shape neural connections. The increased use of technology is diminishing those human interactions (Siegel).

Brain research reveals many important benefits of mindfulness practices such as meditation. These include physiological benefits like lowering high blood pressure, helping treat heart disease, boosting immunity, slowing aging and promoting good
sleep. While each of these are so important to our physical wellness, other benefits to our mental and emotional wellbeing include improving working memory and academic performance, enhancing mental clarity, managing and preventing anxiety, and reducing stress. For many individuals, there is a high correlation between going to work/school and stressful experiences. “Research shows that when we meditate there’s reduced activities in part of the brain called the amygdala, which governs the feeling of being stressed. The body also produces less cortisol, a stress-related hormone” (Michie, p. 52).

The benefits of mindfulness practices at the organizational level include improved attendance rates, increased employee retention, enhanced performance and job satisfaction, better teamwork, enhanced interpersonal relations, greater creativity and innovation, better leadership and a greater sense of meaning and purpose. “While it is difficult to quantify, the repeatable and observable experience of organizations that have implemented mindfulness programs….the data on metrics…is evidence enough of the positive impact of mindfulness in the workplace” (Michie, p. 115).

From the top to the bottom of any organization, stress is imminent. Educational systems are no exception. The stress on students, teachers, and administrators are compounded by many factors such as mandates, accountability and the ever changing society for which we live. Some research goes so far as to suggest that the education system may be at least partially responsible for our mindlessness. With an outcome-based orientation, educators are often guilty of presenting facts unconditionally with no opportunity for questions or alternative ways of thinking (Langer, 1989). The various causes of mindlessness such as repetition, premature cognitive commitment, belief in limited resources and a powerful influence of context go against what is
developmentally appropriate for young children, and yet are all ever prevalent in the today’s educational arena.

In 2007, a passionate team of individuals created an organization entitled Mindful Schools and began a movement to bring mindfulness techniques and practices into the learning environments of the k-12 classrooms. This organization’s work will provide the groundwork for my research. The timeline and methodology this research would include the following:

2018-19 - A thorough review of the existing research

2019-20 – Completion of numerous mindfulness trainings including, but not limited to the following:

1) Mindful Fundamentals
2) Mindful Educator Essentials
3) Mindful Communication
4) Difficult Emotions
5) Mindful Teacher Certification Program

2020-21 – A yearlong sabbatical to travel to existing educational learning environments to college quantitative and qualitative data on the impact such programs have on student and teacher performance.

2020-21 – Develop an undergraduate course on mindfulness practices in education that can be used in a teacher preparation program.
Challenges Women Encounter in the Workplace and its Impact on Authentic Leadership

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Pepperdine University

Jane C. Felt, Ed.D is currently pursuing her Ph.D in Global Leadership and Change at Pepperdine University. She has over 30 years of leadership experience in large scale manufacturing in both shipbuilding and aerospace industries. She is an advocate for the advancement of women in leadership and as such hopes to leverage her experiences and knowledge to benefit aspiring women leaders. She received her Bachelor of Arts from St. Leo University, holds two Master of Science degrees in Management and Quality Systems Management and most recently completed her Doctorate of Education in Organizational Leadership. She is a certified Senior Professional in Human Resource (SPHR) for a Fortune 50 company.

Abstract

Women leaders face a wide array of challenges in the workplace, especially as they attempt to lead in a manner consistent with their gender role, personal style, values, and beliefs (Eagly & Karau, 2002). When female gender roles are inconsistent with workplace and leader expectations these challenges discourage the practice of authenticity (Eagly, 2005). Organizations can benefit from the life experiences and perspectives that women have acquired in their roles of a leader, wife, and mother. Their collective values and interpersonal skills contribute to a unique leadership style and can contribute to the development of a workplace culture that values relationship, empathy, and collaboration (Felt, 2017).
This presentation reviews the challenges that women face while attempting to lead with authenticity and the strategies they employ to overcome those challenges. Also, included are the recommendations that successful women leaders would offer to aspiring women leaders. The research provides a basis for the development of learning materials and workshops especially designed for and by women. Programs that will enable women leaders to honor their desire to demonstrate more authenticity by promoting self-awareness and relational transparency despite workplace circumstances. This presentation is a result of a recent study; Advancing the Practice of Authentic Leadership Among Professional Women: A Phenomenological Investigation (Felt, 2017).
Changing Our Professional Practice through Social Media

Lynne E. Anderson  
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Full-time faculty in Teacher Education at National University, San Diego, California, for twenty-six years, online teaching leadership has been the major focus in both licensing and advanced teacher education programs. Having served as Associate Dean and Department Chair for a number of years, the opportunity to lead program development and selection of faculty have culminated in both quality teacher education. Prior high School administrative and science-math teaching experience were in both California and Minnesota having held two graduate degrees from the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Research interests are in teaching and learning relationships to include the relationship with technology.

Abstract

What social media have done is to connect us, to allow us to choose our content, and to expedite interaction regardless of age, gender and authority. Social media companies have taken us to the virtual environment and manipulated those engaged to advertise any content from any source and to gain revenue from that process. Little regard for accuracy or ethics exist in the environments of social media, resulting in behaviors like the Wild West. How can social media be a forum for “truer truth” and for building new knowledge rather than a rehash of biases, perceived truths, “real time” events, “fake news,” that potentially fire emotional responses and politicize events resulting in dangerous opposition or shouting matches?
Investigating university teaching practice, having shifted to technology-enhanced environments or deliveries over the past few decades, ran into social media in professional and personal interfaces. My online shift to delivery of instruction has incorporated widely technology tools in an asynchronous virtual world of teaching and learning. As online teachers our courses are viewed repeatedly. Ideas reviewed repeatedly become permanent in our cognitive behavioral system, wherein what ideas were taught are verified. Ideas echo beliefs, and behavior expresses ideas accordingly. The system of beliefs and behavior form a reality. Reality, as perceived by the teachers, is presented to students who become advocates. That reality is biased and is broadcast using social media with which students and instructors engage. Social media became a canvas for the display of people’s agreeable perceptions and perspectives. Disagreement is absent from the room. But, it is in an adjacent room.

When in a polarized society, as currently exists in America, “truths” morph to extreme positions, rile emotional responses, and deepen societal division. Our academic lives are riddled with alienated people who want to speak loudly their “truths,” and occasionally speak “truth to power.” Higher education campuses have been and are increasingly becoming dueling grounds for differing “truths.” Powerful political factions are using party definitions of societal “truths” to become elected at any cost. What is the role of higher education in this milieu of polarization fueled by and played and replayed on social media? How do we face brandings of “liberal” or “conservative?” Have our own biases affected our academic freedom? How have our biases affected our students?

Vanishing from many learning settings is the formulation of real truth through Socratic inquiry as sources are investigated, developed collaboratively, shared and verified. Socratic Inquiry formed the process for a robust Liberal Arts education. Within a Liberal Arts education, positive and negative aspects develop a “truer truth” that, when
discussed and refined, form a platform for a study of societal implications and construct a sound basis for decision making. 

What is the role in higher education today for university teachers with respect to Social Media?
Comparison of Behavioral Changes in Non-Emergent ED Usage Among 18-22 Year Olds in Four States With or Without Medicaid Expansion

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Roe Ann Roberts has served as both the chair and the graduate coordinator of the Masters in Health Administration program. This program is currently located in the Criminal Justice and Health Administration Department. Her research is broadly focused on management, administration and behavioral issues in the areas of public health and health administration.

Attapol Kuanliang teaches a variety of courses in the criminal justice field but has a strong interest in the effects of violence on children as well as health related issues.

Abstract

(This is research we are currently conducting) The research question of this presentation is “Did the expansion of Statewide Medicaid programs effect the behavior of young adult (18-22 year olds) seeking non-emergent ED care, as compared to a state that didn’t expand Medicaid”. This study will analyze SED data from 2009 and 2014, from Arizona, Florida, Kentucky and Maryland. If the analysis confirms positive
changes in use patterns, it study will attempt to estimate any savings attributable to Medicaid expansion. If no, or few, changes are found, the authors will explore what issues may have negatively impacted on behavior change in this population. And, if it is found that changes did occur, it will explore the reasons for those changes.
Creating Active and Interdisciplinary Learning Opportunities: The Leapfrog Fellowship as an Example

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Angela Mattie, JD, MPH serves as chair and professor, Quinnipiac University, School of Business, department of healthcare management and organizational leadership and professor at the medical school. Prior to joining Quinnipiac, Professor Mattie had 20 years’ experience in leadership positions in acute and managed care. Angela was also selected for the competitive Robert Wood Johnson Health Policy Fellowship and served as a health policy fellow for the U.S. Senate Health, Education, Labor and Pensions Committee. Angela received her MPH degree from Yale, a Juris Doctorate (J.D.) at the UCONN’s School of Law, and an undergraduate degree, from Quinnipiac University. Her research interests include patient safety issues.
Christina McCulloch is a Registered Nurse of 14 years with a Bachelor of Science in Nursing. Ms. McCulloch is currently pursuing a Master of Business Administration in Health Care Management at Quinnipiac University. Christina has clinical nursing experience in Critical Care and Cardiology, as well as Nursing and Hospital Management. Ms. McCulloch is currently the Chief Quality Officer responsible for Quality, Safety, Risk Management, Compliance and Infection Control for Sharon Hospital in Sharon, Connecticut.

Abstract

This presentation will discuss how to create active and interdisciplinary learning opportunities for graduate students by integrating real world situations from the field. We will use the Leapfrog fellowship as an example.

Leapfrog, a nationally recognized patient safety organization, selected the Professor for 2017 Leapfrog Fellowship. We then engaged, with Leapfrog’s support, a team of interdisciplinary adult-learners to assist in delivering a project to the sponsoring organization. The team was selected via a competitive process and consisted of students from different disciplines (MD, MBA, MSOL).

Healthcare delivery is fraught with a silo mentality. Lack of communication, teamwork, and understanding of different disciplines involved in the healthcare industry has resulted in an extremely inefficient and unsafe system. By creating interdisciplinary and inter-professional student learning opportunities, we can create an understanding and appreciation among young professionals for each other’s discipline and potentially
leading to improvements in the healthcare system. Students can identify how different training leads to different, but a complimentary approach to an issue.

This project provided a “real world assignment” where students had the opportunity to meet and interview healthcare executives. Students benefited from networking opportunities and experience in doing qualitative research.

Our presentation concludes with lessons learned that lead to successful educational experiences for our students and a completed deliverable for the organization. Our methods may be transferred to other projects and programs.
Engagement – the special ingredient for increasing online student retention

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Wendy Cowan, Ph.D. serves as the department chair for the Professional Studies in Education Department. She currently teaches educational technology courses. Her background is in physical education and educational technology.

Bridgette Chandler, Ed.D. is the program coordinator for Technical Education, which includes options in (1) secondary instructor; (2) post-secondary instructor; (3) military instructor; (4) instructional design and; (5) early instructor. She currently teaches courses related to career and technical education. Her background and expertise is in family and consumer science, career and technical education, and educational administration and leadership.

Abstract

With the exponential growth in online courses, retention, which has been suggested as one of the greatest weaknesses of online education, is an area of great concern. Studies show that failed retention rates for online college and university graduates range from 20 to 50%, however the number of college students who are participating in online courses continues to increase dramatically despite this likelihood of non-completion.
Student persistence in online courses is related to many reasons, of these, research suggests that both time and relationships rate high on the list. While the instructor may not be able to combat a student’s “time” commitments, it is possible to create positive and trusting online relationships, which begins with student engagement. Attend this session to learn about the three essential components for building student engagement in online courses and thus, increasing student retention and success.
An Examination of Collegiate Internships in Entrepreneurial Leadership Settings: Requirements for Designing the Undergraduate Experiential Learning Course

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Berea College

A social entrepreneurship educator known to contribute to the infusion of an entrepreneurial mindset and skillset in students and entrepreneurs who may have little or no business or management education background. Known as an innovative teacher, he has been a pioneer in encouraging students and institutional involvement in new venture plan competitions (2017, IDEA STATE U 1st place; 2015, 3rd place), creating a faculty culture supportive of experiential learning outcomes through service learning and civic engagement (Best University Cross Campus Program in the Nation - Academy for Entrepreneurial Leadership, UIUC. Global Consortium of Entrepreneurship Centers (GCEC), Indiana University, August 2007), and strengthening community partnerships to foster community-based entrepreneurial leadership development in the Appalachian Region (City of Berea Trail Town Certification, 2015).

Abstract
Collegiate internships play a significant role in the professional development of undergraduate students. They provide students the opportunity to experience real world expectations embedded within actual vocational environments under the support of their collegiate faculty. Although there are a number of common reasons why
internships are utilized in each academic area, the requirements for the experiences are substantially different across disciplines and level of coursework. The environments for business and social entrepreneurship, service-oriented and servant leadership are distinct. The purpose of this paper is to explore some of the commonalities and differences that exit for internships across collegiate academic disciplines at the undergraduate level, introduce the concept of iterative reflective practices and identify their salience for programs from an interdisciplinary perspective.

Design/methodological approach
For this conceptual model, the author extended Kolb’s basic experiential education model and the contributions of design thinking to frame the process of building a satisfying, meaningful internship by approaching the challenge the way designer would regardless of student level, and what the student imagines they might do for a living. The same design thinking responsible for amazing technology, products, spaces and experiences can be used to design and build an internship experience that can uncover fulfillment, joy, productivity, and one that always holds the possibility of surprise for all stakeholders.

The author took an introspective qualitative approach to explore distinctive settings, and compared and contrasted them based student intended learning goals, academic disciplines, organizational settings, and student reflective practices. The approach reveals a set of questions that students need to in the “pre-exposure” stage and “advice interviews”, and while working in an internship setting, a list of readings, books, resources that could help students to better understand the context for the intended internship and how learning goals fit into a larger conversation about the connection of
the academic major and distinct internship settings. Multiple data sources include site supervisor interviews and mentor conversations, site visits/observations and site artifacts/documents. The elements of the internship curriculum setting that come together to ensure student experience are successful from an educational standpoint are identified.

Findings
The author found a great deal of both student similarity and dissimilarity across disciplinary expectations, and these findings were utilized as grounds for programmatic review, an iterative reflective model and assessment to better understand how stakeholders involvement and contributions are involved in the process. Reflective practices allow students the agency and change to take a step back from their activities and examine the ways in which stakeholders participate in and interact with the various components in their program assessing the need and “big picture” appropriate to the organizational context.

Quality/value
An inclusive awareness will consider the unique contributions of the students, university, employer, and other stakeholders including co-workers, and employers that currently do not offer internships. The iterative reflective model offers a critical and vital component to experiential learning. Given the rising cost of tuition and the wealth of competition in the market, the pressure is increasing for institutions of higher education to increase the value when it comes to designing and providing quality experiential learning opportunities. The next steps should focus on defining
experiences, and tailoring each internship program, and for that to be accomplished, the stakeholders must be “all in.”
Graduate Learning Communities: An Effective Model for Transformational Learning

John Engstrom
Southwest Minnesota State University

Dennis Lamb
Southwest Minnesota State University

Abstract
The Master of Science in Education Learning Community Program at a Midwestern university has been designed to meet the professional development needs of educators. Delivered in a non-traditional format in off-campus cohorts, or learning communities, the program promotes deep learning and growth, and transformation. The program draws heavily on constructivist theory. Educators build their understanding through inquiry into the teaching and learning process, transfer of their ideas and learning into the classroom, and take an active leadership role in promoting research-based change in education settings, schools, and the larger community. This session will focus on the structure and various components of successful learning communities, as well as data collected on the effectiveness of the model.
The Impact of Community Policing on Domestic Counter Terrorism Efforts and Community Trust

Kenneth Goldberg
National University

Dr. Goldberg is the Academic Program Director for the Master of Science program in Homeland Security and Emergency Management at National University. He has served in several faculty and administrative positions at the university and currently holds the rank of Professor. His research interests include decision-making in complex environments and countering terrorism. He earned a Doctor of Public Administration from the University of La Verne, La Verne, CA in 2000.

Abstract

Community oriented policing efforts have been questioned by immigrant community residents and law enforcement agencies as a counter terrorism strategy. The communities fear being targeted by law enforcement concerning immigration issues. Law enforcement agencies believe that the residents of the immigrant communities can provide critical information on counter terrorism activities but are hesitant to share information fearing it will be used against them during immigration proceedings. As a result, a lack of trust can develop between the two stakeholders that can hinder domestic counter terrorism efforts. This paper will review the associated literature on the issue and provide recommendations that can be adopted to increase the trust between the stakeholders.
Background

Since September 11, 2001 the United States and Europe have been at a heightened state of security awareness due to terrorist acts committed against their countries. While much of the counter terrorism efforts reside against enemies outside of the United States, some have argued that the more serious terrorist threat is from the enemies already living in our communities. The challenge facing the United States and its European counterparts is developing strategies whereby law enforcement can build trusting relationships with immigrant community stakeholders that support information sharing without the fear of being targeted as supporting terrorists or apprehended due to illegal immigration issues.

History of Community Oriented Policing

Community oriented policing (COP) has been at the forefront of law enforcement for the past 40 years. It is defined as policing that emphasizes community involvement, through partnerships, in crime prevention efforts. This is in contrast to the more traditional policing efforts that focus on law enforcement and order maintenance (Gill, Weisburd, Telep, Vitter & Bennett, 2014 and Pickering, McCulloch & Wright-Neville, 2010). COP grew out three eras of policing: The Political Era, Reform Era and Community Problem Solving Era (Jones & Supinski, 2010). The Political Era developed in the mid-1800s with the rise of the modern police force. The Reform Era refers to the time between the 1920s to the 1970s when policing agencies became more professional and focused on controlling crime (Jones & Supinski, 2010).

The third era, the Community Problem Solving Era, started in the early-1980s (Jones & Supinski, 2010) and focused on gaining the support and confidence of the community. COP was designed to build confidence and cooperation among community groups and
law enforcement agencies. Community oriented policing shifted the focus of policing from traditional law enforcement activities to a broader range of crime (Pickering, et al., 2010).

Community Oriented Policing after September 11, 2001

Literature suggests a shift in community oriented policing developed with the terrorist events of September 11, 2001. With these events community oriented policing took on a broader role supporting counter terrorism efforts. This new role changed from traditional local enforcement issues to domestic security issues, such as intelligence collection, covert investigations, information sharing and immigration support (Ortiz, Hendricks & Sugie, 2007). The authors suggest in their study of 16 law enforcement agencies that the counter terrorist related missions are being conducted using traditional law enforcement practices and working more closely than before with Joint Terrorism Task Forces. Ortiz, et. al. (2007) is not alone in this discussion. Addressing similar developments, Oliver (2004, 2006) contends that policing has entered a new, a fourth era of policing, called the Homeland Security Era. In this new era, Oliver also contends that law enforcement agencies direct their resources more on the counter terrorism aspects facing communities.

Trusting Relationships and Transparency between Communities and Law Enforcement

In her book Frontiers of Fear: Immigration and Insecurity in the United States and Europe, Ariane Chabel d’Appollonia (2012) discusses the securitization of immigration practices and the impact it has had on immigrant communities. D’Appollonia suggests that the securitization, the taking on of the counter terrorism practices by law
enforcement, may lead to mistrust between the agencies and immigrant communities, and prevent reporting counter terrorist activities. This sense of mistrust is also supported by Henderson, Ortiz, Sugie and Miller (2006) and DeGuzman (2002). According to Henderson, et. al. (2006) and DeGuzman (2002), the mistrust comes from concerns that law enforcement may use the information about immigration violations gained from their counter terrorist activities. The community’s concern is a lack of trust of law enforcement. Law enforcement’s concern is continued criminal activity in the community that goes unreported. In a related discussion, Husband and Alam (2012) question the ability of the Muslim community in the United Kingdom to feel part of the larger U.K. community while also being singled out for counter terrorism efforts.

Literature also discusses the role of trusting relationships in successful community policing efforts. Putman (2000) discusses how building relationships with stakeholders can build social capital and a sense of belonging. Pickering, et. al. (2010) suggest that police, through community engagement, can build trust and a sense of belonging when relationships are based on soft power strategies like building partnerships in community oriented policing. Smith (2015) argues the importance of building trusting relations among stakeholders who are community and culturally knowledgeable. And d’Appollonia (2012) suggests that without a foundation of trust, immigrant communities may fear they are being singled out for selective engagement practices such as profiling.

Research also suggests that the counter terrorism practices of law enforcement agencies raise concern in immigrant communities. Pickering, et. al. (2010) caution that counter terrorism efforts can erode police and community relations due to lack of transparency.
A similar argument about transparency was put forth by Thacher (2005) in his research on Dearborn police efforts to conduct counter terrorism efforts in that city. Henderson, Ortiz, Sugie and Miller (2006) came to a similar conclusion between Arab American communities and law enforcement agencies.

Community oriented policing has been a law enforcement strategy for the past 40 years. The literature discusses the complex role it has played during this time. However, community oriented policing changed after September 11, 2001 when local law enforcement started to take on domestic counter terrorism practices in support of national homeland security strategies.

Addressing COP and Community Trust Issues
There is a rich discussion on the role trust and transparency play on law enforcement and immigrant community relationships. Despite the research that supports community oriented policing, the literature also suggests there remain trust issues between law enforcement and the communities they serve. Also discussed in the literature are practices law enforcement agencies can implement for building trusting relationships with the communities they serve. Pickering, et. al. (2010) discuss social cohesion as a way to improve the relationship between local law enforcement and communities. According to the authors, social cohesion is based on the approach that building long term trusting relationships promotes legitimacy with immigrant communities (31). The concept of social cohesion is based on five core dimensions that include: belonging, inclusion, participation, recognition and legitimacy (Stone and Hughes, 2002). According to the authors, the social cohesion model helps breakdown the behaviors that prevent law enforcement agencies and community stakeholders from working
together. Similarly, Briggs (2010) suggests an even stronger reasoning for building trust. Briggs argues that trust is developed when the community feels they are “trusted, equal and respected” (976).

Khashu, Busch, Latif and Levy (2005) and Sant-Fort, Yasso and Shah (2012) argue that sustained community interaction and involvement are essential practices for successfully resolving issues and building trust. They suggest developing regular communication channels with a diverse group of community representatives to show respect for the diversity and political divisions within immigrant communities. According to Henderson, et. al. (2006) law enforcement needs cultural awareness and language training to understand potential barriers in communication. Similarly, Bryett (1995) calls for understanding communities from a holistic perspective appreciating their complexity and diversity.

**Recommendations**

Literature suggests there are practices for addressing the challenges in using community oriented policing for supporting counter terrorism efforts. One can suggest the challenge facing law enforcement agencies is implementation and operationalizing the discussion. This research suggests law enforcement agencies could consider the following recommendations for successfully implementing community oriented policing efforts:

The first recommendation is for law enforcement agencies to develop an understanding of the complexity of their immigrant communities. Law enforcement agencies need to be knowledgeable of the cultural and language aspects of their communities. This can
be accomplished in a variety of ways, such as with targeted training of personnel and the hiring of professional consultants to serve on community relations boards.

The second recommendation is assigning senior law enforcement officials to community service boards. Many community service boards consist of the senior leadership of a community. One could suggest it would be appropriate for similar leadership be represented from law enforcement. This would help establish the legitimacy of a partnership and hasten decision making actions.

The third recommendation is the long term assignment of officers serving in the immigrant communities to develop the relationships that are necessary to build trust between the stakeholders.

Finally, the fifth recommendation has to do with future research. Additional research should be conducted on the impact that “sanctuary communities” has had, and will have, on the counter terrorism practices. For example, how does the adoption of a “sanctuary” status impact the community oriented policing effort?

**Conclusion**

The role of community oriented policing is a significant one for counter terrorism efforts. The research suggests that to successfully practice community oriented policing, law enforcement agencies need to appreciate the cultural diversity of their communities and the relationships that need to be developed. The literature about community oriented policing suggests it can be a valuable tool in the fight against terrorism, but it also suggests it takes dedication and determination to make it work.
References


“Mary, you look fat in those pants!” - Chinese social structural impact on Chinese im/politeness behaviors

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With a BA in English language and literature from China and a MA/TESOL and a Ph.D. in Linguistics from the US, I have been teaching English and Chinese in university settings for years in both countries. My experiences in language teaching and linguistic study, combined with living in different cultures, like Chinese and North American, inspired me to do research on cross-cultural communication, Pragmatics, particularly on Chinese face and linguistic politeness.

Abstract

Westerners are often baffled by the disparate Chinese behaviors from being humble and polite to being disrespectful or rude, as shown in the title, a comment from a Chinese to her American friend. It shocks Westerners who believe in showing respect and not imposing one’s opinion on others. It also shatters the “deferent and polite Chinese” image. Research on Chinese politeness phenomenon in the past three decades has attempted to explain the unique Chinese politeness behavior from culture and language perspectives, yet it often runs into difficulty in explaining the inconsistent Chinese behavior. The author believes that understanding Chinese politeness lies in understanding the Chinese social structure with a meticulous ranking of social relationships and a distinctive division between insiders, a unique social phenomenon
in Chinese society. This paper argues that, different from the Western politeness, lǐmào (礼貌), Chinese politeness, stresses ritual propriety and formality. It is an outward performance for observance of social status and harmony with people of non-intimate relationships. It is not applied to strangers, nor with family members or friends, which is frowned upon as being kèqi (客气), standing on ceremony and trying to break the intimacy.

1 Introduction: polite or rude Chinese

It happened years ago when I was attending a NAFSA conference with Mary, one of my best American friends. As we walked out of our room to the conference site one morning, I noticed that she was wearing a pair of pants that looked rather tight on her. “Mary, you look fat in those pants,” I said as I normally do to my Chinese friends to show my concern about them. I was stunned to see Mary’s reaction - she turned her head and stared at me, her face was red with anger and shock. Obviously my comment shocked her, who believes in showing respect and not imposing to avoid confrontation, a basic Western politeness concept. It also shatters a common notion held in the west of “deferential and polite” Chinese, who are implicit or evasive in expressing opinions (Bond 1991, Gao & Ting-Toomey 1998, Gu, 1990; Kinnison 2000, Loi & Evans 2010; Scollon & Scollon, 1995). Westerners in frequent contact with Chinese are often baffled by their disparate behaviors from being friendly, respectful and polite to being indifferent, disrespectful, or even rude. One winter my husband who is American went to China with me to visit my family and friends for the first time. He was overwhelmed by their kindness, hospitality and generosity. So, he was dumbfounded when he saw an uncaring and unruly crowd at the Beijing train station pushing and yelling to each other as they forced their way to the security check.
“Why are these Chinese so rude?” he asked me. Years ago I met a very nice and friendly Chinese woman in a city where I worked. Her husband is American, too. She invited my husband and me several times to their house for dinner, and we always had a good time there. However my husband has a rather negative opinion about her because, he explains, she seem so “bossy” and “impolite” ordering her husband around without saying “please” in her requests or “thank-you” after getting helped.

Are Chinese polite or not? Why is there such discrepancy in their politeness behavior? There could be many explanations from different perspectives of culture or language. One of them, the author believes, lies in understanding of distinctive Chinese social structure and explicit division between insiders and outsiders. This is the key to understand the Chinese way of interacting and communicating with each other, including the politeness phenomenon. Different from being courteous and respectful to everyone, an ideal Western concept of politeness, lǐmào (礼貌), Chinese politeness, is based on Confucian ideology and lì, ritual priority, which stresses formality for keeping social harmony by observing hierarchical and differential relationships. Its application is determined by social status as well as relational distance between self and others. Therefore Chinese politeness, this paper argues, is differential, selective and situational because it is more of ritual formality, an outward performance or façade. It is applied to shúrén (熟人), acquaintances, but not to shēngrén (生人), strangers, or zìjǐrén (自己人), family and friends, which is frowned upon as being kèqi (客气), standing on ceremony and trying to break the intimacy.

In the following sections, research on Chinese politeness will first be briefly discussed. Then, Confucian lì (礼) - ritual propriety, ceremony, or formality, from which the Chinese politeness ((礼貌) is derived, and the division between insider and outsider
relationships will be examined. The final sections examine the differential and selective Chinese politeness behavior.

2 Research on Chinese politeness and the challenge
In the past three decades, following Brown and Levinson’s (1978, 1987) theory of universal linguistic politeness, a number of studies have attempted to analyze the Chinese politeness phenomenon in comparison with that of the West. Some researchers discussed the issue by examining address terms and pronouns (Gu, 1990; Hong, 1987; Kádár, 2007); other studies examined some speech acts, such as giving and receiving compliments (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1994; Gao, Ting-Toomey & Gudykunst, 1996; Spencer-Oatey & Ne, 2000), pre-dinner invitations and after-dinner offerings (Mao, 1994), greetings (Erbaugh, 2008), opening telephone conversations (Scollon & Scollon, 1995; Sun, 2004), or leave-taking after dinner (Kinnison, 2000). Some researchers looked at the impact of Chinese historical and political development on the politeness phenomenon (Erbaugh, 2008; Kádár, 2007; Pan & Kádár, 2011). A more comprehensive study on Chinese politeness by Pan (2000) analyzed the phenomenon at discourse levels and illustrated how different politeness strategies are utilized in different settings. Researchers on Chinese politeness claimed that Brown and Levinson’s “universal” theory with its FTC (face-threatening acts) avoiding strategies could not account for the Chinese politeness behavior. Different from the Western politeness of respecting individual rights and avoiding imposing or being imposed upon (negative politeness - Brown & Levinson’s term), Chinese concept of politeness is to show humbleness, modesty, and respect to other’s social status or well-being (Gu, 1990; Hu & Grove, 1991; Kinnison, 2000; Mao, 1994). That is because, they maintain, Chinese culture dominated by Confucianism emphasizes hierarchical social ranking and harmonious personal
relationships (positive politeness). These studies have definitely helped to understand the different politeness behavior between the East and West. However, many of them run into difficulty in explaining the rude and boorish Chinese behavior that is commonly observed among strangers in public places, or statements like “You look fat in those pants” among friends, which is not inappropriate or impolite in Chinese culture.

The author believes that discrepancy between the accepted notion of ‘polite’ Chinese and observed rude Chinese behavior comes from several factors. One factor is that the portrait of “deferent and polite” Chinese mainly came from Westerners who may not have established intimate personal relationships with Chinese, such as missionaries, diplomats, government officials, visiting scholars, researchers, exchange students, and journalists. In the past thirty years with China’s open-door policy, more close personal contacts have been built up between the Chinese and Westerners, including some close friendships and intimate relationships like interracial marriage, but there is still little research on those deportments deviating from the accepted notion about Chinese.

Another factor is that the general politeness research in the past has focused mostly on polite behaviors rather than on “impolite” or “rude” demeanors (Bousfield, 2008; Culpeper, 1996; Watts, 2003), so the rude and impolite side of Chinese behavior has not been given much attention.

One important factor for the inconsistency between research and reality, the author contends, is that the Chinese politeness research has focused more on language aspects like discourse analysis or speech acts, such as accepting compliments, giving and accepting invitations, leave-taking excuses, the highly conventionalized and prefabricated linguistic formulae. However, there is no study specifically examining the cultural impacts on Chinese communication styles, particularly the connection between
Chinese politeness phenomenon and the structure of Chinese society, which “consists of a meticulous ranking of people, who are classified according to distinct categories of social relationship” (Hamilton & Zheng, 1992, p.20). Understanding Chinese politeness requires an understanding of Chinese social structure and relationships based on Confucian li, rituals and propriety, which regulate Chinese daily conduct and social behaviors. That will be the focus of next section.

3 Confucian li (礼, rituals) and Chinese social relationship

Confucianism is a philosophy that focuses on maintaining a harmonious state in a differential and hierarchical society. As a philosophy of humanism, Confucianism has a strong impact on interpersonal relationships and on communication patterns in Chinese culture. One of its principle ideologies is that an ordered and stable society comes from each individual understanding his position and role and then conducts his life accordingly. In doing this, each one needs to learn to regulate his/her “proper relations with others” by practicing the rules of rituals (li) (Chang & Holt, 1994, p.104).

3.1 Li - 礼, ritual property

Li (礼) derives from Li Ji (礼记, Books of Rites), one of the main Confucian classics, which was believed to be compiled by Confucius himself (551BC – 479 BC) and later edited by his followers in the Han Dynasty (202 BC-220 CE). The book has various topics ranging from “governing special occasions, such as mourning, sacrifices, marriage, and communal festivities to the more ordinary occasions relating to conduct towards ruler, parents, elders, teachers and guests” (Cua, 1983, p.1). This book has had a profound influence on Chinese culture and society in the past two thousand years, and li formed the basis for the traditional Chinese moral life and thought as a means for
the realization of the Confucian ideal of society and “distinguishes human beings from animals” (Qù Lǐ, cited by Cua).

Lǐ can be translated as "religious rites, ceremony, deportment, decorum, propriety, formality, politeness, courtesy, etiquette, good form, good behavior, or good manners” depending on the context (Cua, 1983, p.1). “As a cultural concept, Lǐ is the style of life of a people. In terms of its individual import, Lǐ is the style of performance” with “a comprehensive notion embracing all social habits and customs that have been acknowledged and accepted as a set of action-guiding rules” (Cua, 1983, p.2). The core concept of Lǐ, though implicitly stated in Li Ji, is “an idea of rule-governed conduct” with “a set of action-guiding prescriptions that stresses formal procedures for proper behavior,” such as law, morality, religion, and other social institutions which “require compliance with formal procedures” (Cua, 1983, p.2). In this sense, “Lǐ as ritual propriety, or as expressive of a concern with the formal modality of actions, pertains essentially to its aesthetic dimension” (Cua, 1983, p.1, italicized added). This ritual propriety is “a set of agreed-upon behavioral patterns” and “a codification of what is considered ‘proper’ behavior for all social contexts in which one finds oneself” (Chaibong, 2001, p.317). Therefore Lǐ provides guidance for Chinese to regulate their conduct in regard to their relationships with others. This guidance is the groundwork for lǐmào (礼貌), the Chinese politeness.

3.2 Social relationships in Chinese society: insiders vs outsiders

Chinese society is “built from networks created from relational ties linking the self with discrete categories of other individuals” (Hamilton & Zheng, 1992, p.24). One significant feature of Chinese culture “is its emphasis on a harmonious society and the appropriate arrangement of interpersonal relationships” (Abbott, 1970, cited by Hwang,
which is based on Confucian Wulun (五伦), the five fundamental relationships: ruler-subject, father-son, husband-wife, old brother-younger brother and friend-friend. Each person is placed in a certain category according to his/her position in a family or social status, such as “the noble and the base, the intimate and the unconnected, the remote and the close, those above and those below” (Fei, 1948, p.66).

For Confucius, a society is possible “only when these five basic relationships are appropriately maintained” (Chang & Holt, 1994, p.103). These five primary social relationships with a principle of nèiwài yǒubì (内外有别), insiders being different from outsiders, are the basis of traditional Chinese social structure and essential for the ordering of a society and government. Fei Xiaotong (1947), a well-known Chinese sociologist, calls this social structure “a differential mode of association” (差序格局 chāxù géjú), in which “general standards have no utility” because all the standards of value “were incapable of transcending the differential personal relationships” (pp.71-78). When socializing with others, the first thing for a person to do in such a society, Fei (1947) claims, is “to understand the specific context: who is the important figure, and what kind of relationship is appropriate with that figure. Only then can one decide the ethical standards to be applied in that context” (p.78). The meticulous ranking and insider and outsider dichotomy prescribe Chinese behavior and their interaction with each other, which has been the focus of many researchers on Chinese communication styles and social behaviors (Bond, 1993; Cheng, 1986; Fei, 1948; Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1994; Hwang, 1987; Scollon & Scollon, 1995; Yang, 1994; Yang, 1994).

Insiders and outsiders are categorized by their relational distance to the self. Social relationships in China, Fei (1947) states, “possess a self-centered quality. Like the ripples formed from a stone thrown into a lake, each circle spreading out from the center
becomes more distant and at the same time more insignificant” (p.65). In these “non-equivalent, ranked categories of social relationships”, each person in Chinese society is at the center of his/her own network (Hamilton & Zheng 1992, p. 19). Since “there is always a self at the center of each web”, this “notion of the self almost amounts to egocentrism” because “[everything] worthwhile rests on an ideology in which the self is central” (Fei, 1992, p. 67).

Those who are close to the self are called zìjīrén (自己人= self-person), insiders, such as family members, close relatives and friends. They are the significant others who are tied in an intimate relationship to zìjī (自己), the self. In Chinese culture, the self would be incomplete if it was separate from their insiders and its completeness can only be attained through integration with them (Gao, Ting-Toomey & Gudykunst, 1996, p.282). In other words, zìjī (self) is so embedded in zìjīrén (self-person) that the self and the insiders are an inseparable entity in this close bond. This intimate relationship is “relatively permanent and stable” and “can render an individual’s feelings of affection, warmth, safety, and attachment” towards his/her significant others (Hwang, 1987, p.949). Each relationship defines a distinctive role to a person with specific duties and obligations (Bockover, 1997; Chu, 1985; Tu, 1985). A man, for example, is obligated to carry out his various duties as a son, brother, father, husband, or a friend, designated by each relationship. In this intimate group, putting other’s wellbeing before oneself and carrying out one’s duty and responsibility are above everything else.

People outside this intimate circle are labeled wàirén (外人=outside person), outsiders. Depending on the relational distance from the self, this group can be further divided into two: distant- and close-outsiders. Distant-outsiders are those who are on the outskirts of a relationship. They are called shēngrén (生人=non-familiar person), strangers, such as taxi drivers, fellow passengers, sales staff, fellow spectators, tourists,
waiters, and so on, “with whom they have a transient association which is unlikely to be repeated (Bond, 1991, p.56). These distant-outsiders are connected to the self only with “instrumental relationships” as a means or instrument to attain one’s needs or goals (Hwang 1987, pp. 950-951). They are not mentioned in any of the Five Cardinal Relationships and therefore “have no place in Chinese social logic” (Bond, 1991, p.57).

Without any relational ties, these shēngrén, particularly lùrén (路人=street person, passerby), total strangers, are generally not given much consideration and left out of courtesy. Relying on preexisting and specific relationships, Fei (1947) announces, China is “a society without strangers” (p.41).

In a modern society people “rely crucially on others to be able to realize their life goals and aspirations, and as social beings they will naturally orient themselves towards others in pursuing these goals” (Locker & Watts, 2005, p.10). Thus an individual must establish other relationships with other people outside his/her zìjǐrén group. These people are the other part of wàirén (outsiders) group, who are called shúrén (熟人=familiar people) – acquaintances, close-outsiders. This is a mixed-tie relationship in Hwang’s (1987) term, as it consists of both expressive and instrumental elements, but more of the latter because “[w]hen one attempts to establish an instrumental tie, the relationship serves only as a means or an instrument to attain other goals” (p.951).

Lacking more distinctive boundaries and more stable relationships, these mixed-ties have more complex and impermanent connections for at least two reasons, Hwang (1987) states. First, the relationships in this group “are seldom based on a consanguineous background” and “not necessarily exit forever”; second, each individual in this relationship is simultaneously involved in several different groups’ with others who ‘also have their own reticulum of social relations” (p.952).
The instable and impermanent shūrén relations “causes the Chinese to be particularly sensitive to changes in human relationships” (Fei, 1948, p.64) because maintaining these instrumental relationships cannot depend on carrying out one’s duties and responsibilities ordained by insider relationships. These social networks result in an extremely complex network of social relations in Chinese society, “a society based totally on the familiar” (Fei, 1947, p.41), which is often called shūrén shèhuì 熟人社会 = familiar person society), a society of familiarity. These complicated interpersonal networks with the overlapping and intersecting reticula, Hwang (1987) states, “have a far-reaching influence on Chinese social behavior” (p.952), which can be seen in the asymmetrical Chinese politeness.

4 Differential and selective lǐmào (礼貌), Chinese politeness

Being polite is universal, however, what politeness means and how it is applied is culturally different. In this section, I will examine (a) the meaning of lǐmào (礼貌), the Chinese lexeme for polite or politeness in English, (b) the politeness phenomenon in contemporary Chinese society, as well as (c) how it is differentially and selectively practiced among insiders and outsiders.

4.1 Definition of lǐmào (礼貌)

Polite is defined in the Webster New World Dictionary (2004) as “having or showing good manners, esp., courteous, considerate, tactful, etc.” Though lǐmào is an accepted Chinese equivalent to polite or politeness in English1, the translation is far from being accurate. Just as Watts (2003) points out, terms associated with these two English

1 礼貌, lǐmào can be an adjective or a noun because there is no distinction between polite, an adjective and politeness in Chinese.
lexemes in other languages, “if indeed they exist at all – may vary in the meanings and connotations associated with them from one group of speakers (even from one individual speaker) to the next” (p.14).

Lǐmào (礼貌) is composed of two lexemes, lǐ (礼) and mào (貌). Lǐ, ritual propriety, is derived etymologically from Lì Ji (Books of Rites), and Mào means “appearance, looks, and attires”. According to Ci Hai (辞海), a comprehensive Chinese dictionary, Lǐmào first appeared in Mencius around 300BC and originally meant “appearance of reverence and kindness”. Based on Modern Chinese Dictionary (现代汉语词典 xiàndài hàn yǔ cídìǎn) (1983), Lǐmào is “the manifestation of one’s modesty and deference from one’s speech and behavior”. I found a more comprehensive definition of Chinese politeness on a sinology website, which clearly indicates that the root of lǐmào is from Confucian lì, a ritual propriety stressing proper and formal conduct:

Lǐmào are codes of conduct for people to express deference and friendliness with each other when socializing. It embodies the trend and moral standards of a time and reflects the level of an individual’s education and cultivation. Basically, it requests a person to be sincere, modest, gentle, and appropriate when interacting with others, and to show his/her inner sincerity. [Thus] lǐmào is a person’s outward performance, demonstrating his/her modesty and respect to others through speech and action (Yiyuanyi.org, 2009)

4.2 Politeness in contemporary China

Although the word lǐmào emerged over two thousand years ago, its meaning of polite or politeness is relatively new and modern (Gu, 2011; Yang, 2010), which was believed to have been influenced by the western civilization since the 1800s when China began to
have more contact with the West. However, this “westernized” conception of politeness did not receive much attention in China until the early 1980s when a nationwide campaign of ‘civilization and politeness’ (文明礼貌 wénmíng lǐmào) (Hong, 1985, p. 204) was launched. Having gone through a decade of political turmoil and social chaos, the Chinese government felt the need to revise the traditional li in China, and at the same time, to reestablish an image (face) of lǐyǐ zhībāng (礼仪之邦 state of civility) to the world (Hong, 1984, p.205).

In addition to revitalizing the hierarchical social orders, such as respecting and obeying elders and superiors, this campaign also advocated using wénmíng lǐmào yòngyǔ (文明礼貌语 expressions of civilization and politeness), such as qǐng (请 please), duìbùqǐ (对不起, I’m sorry, excuse me) and xièxiè (谢谢 thank-you) in people’s daily interaction with each other. The rationale for utilizing these expressions is that “they will have a surprising effect on lubricating and harmonizing an interpersonal relationship” if used appropriately (baidu.baike.com, 2011).

Nevertheless, politeness in Chinese culture “is related to the perceived power relation” and politeness expressions “are used by ‘powerless’ or are reserved for very formal occasions” (Pan and Kádár, 2011, p.1536). Even though the Chinese language does not lack such courteous lexemes, particularly in classical Chinese (Gu, 1990; Kádár, 2007; Pan & Kádár, 2011), these expressions ubiquitously used in English are not an indispensable part in Chinese daily parlance. Since language is a product of a culture, these politeness expressions in Chinese imply quite different meanings than their English counterparts, and using them in Chinese culture is expected to follow the tradition of “respecting superior and humbling inferior” (上尊下卑 shàngzūn xiàbēi).

Take please as an example. In English-speaking countries this marker of politeness is required in making a request or a command. But it is not the case with qǐng (please) in
Chinese, which is often used hierarchically by an inferior to a superior, except for some set-phrases in modern Chinese, such as qǐngwèn (请问 May I ask …), qǐngzuò (请坐 sit down please), qǐngjīn (请进 come in please), and so on. Using qǐng in a conversation, an online Chinese encyclopedia claims, will make the user sound tactful and polite, which is “a natural and sincere way to lower his/her status and elevate the other” (Baidubaike).

It is the same with the apologetic duìbùqǐ (I'm sorry, excuse me). Saying “I’m sorry” is a must in many Western cultures if one offends or causes inconvenience to others. In Chinese culture however, fear of disrupting “still-valued aspects of status hierarchies,” this rule does not apply to superiors (Erbaugh, 2008, p.622).

Showing respect is another case in point. A Chinese child or student is often praised for his/her respectful manners (Yang, 2010, p.186), but it would sound absurd to Chinese if a parent or a teacher is applauded for being respectful to their children or students.

Many Chinese websites provide advice on how to bring up a lǐmào (polite) child with good manners, or what a daughter-in-law should do to be considered respectful when meeting her mother-in-law for the first time. Yet there is hardly anything on how to be a lǐmào parent or a respectful mother-in-law. Showing respect to others is part of traditional Chinese politeness, but it is always done in a hierarchical order: from low to high, either in age, position or social status. Pan and Kádár (2011) named this asymmetrical politeness “a one-way street” because it is never the other way around (p.1536).

The growing political and economic contact between China and the world is obviously an impetus behind this government-initiated politeness campaign. That is because the Chinese government has striven to be recognized internationally not only as an economic and political power, but also as “the world’s leading civilization” (Erbaugh, 2008). Unfortunately this effort has not reached its goal yet. Those polite expressions
recommended are perceived as “foreignisms” (Hong, 1985, p.205) and rejected by Chinese (Li, 2010; Pan, 2000). The Chinese who tried to use them were ridiculed as xīhuà (西化), “westernized” (Ye, 2007). Polite language, just as Watts (2003) maintains, “has to be acquired because it “is not something we are born with, but something we have to learn and be socialized into” (p.9).

Guided by the Confucian ideology and lǐ, Chinese culture does not have any social or moral values transcending differential relationships. From an early age Chinese children are taught about nèiwài yǒubìé, distinguishing insiders from outsiders and have learned “the proper way of conducting oneself in social relationships, treating each according to the behavior that their specific status and relationship to oneself dictate” (Yang, 1994, p.67). Thus, in Chinese society with “a differential mode of association”, lǐmào is selective, differential and situational: sincerity without formality with insiders (自己人zìjǐrén), courtesy and formality with acquaintances (熟人shúrén), close outsiders, and indifference to strangers (生人shēngrén or 路人liùrén), distant outsiders. This will be discussed in the following sections.

4.3 Sincerity with insiders (自己人zìjǐrén): duty and responsibility overrides formality

In Chinese culture, as discussed in 3.2, concerning the well-being of zìjǐrén (insider) and carrying out one’s duty and responsibility is above everything else. Since zìjǐ (self) is part of zìjǐrén (self-person), concern for being formal or “polite” to a “self-person” is out of the question. That may explain why Chinese seem very stingy in using xièxiè (谢谢, thank-you) to their family or friends to express gratitude or appreciation. Since doing things for significant others is simply to perform one’s duty and responsibility, why should thanks be need?
Of course it does not mean that Chinese people are ungrateful, or do not know how to express appreciation or gratitude to those in an intimate relationship. The proper way to show one’s gratitude in Chinese culture, however, is to bàodá (报答), return or repay any kindness, favor, or help received by following the norm of lǐshàng wǎnglái (礼尚往来) reciprocity with action – doing favor or help in return but not with xièxiè. To Chinese, saying xièxiè as an appreciation sounds distant, insincere, or even hypocritical because words are considered xū (虚) - hollow or empty. A true and sincere thankfulness should be done in deeds, which are shí (实) – solid, true and real.

Especially among an intimate relationship, saying xièxiè to zìjǐrén is not only unnecessary but totally wrong, and will be frowned upon and criticized for being kèqi (客气, guest air/manner), standing on ceremony, acting insincere, or jiànwài (见外) – treating insiders as outsiders. Being kèqi may imply that one has an intention to keep some relational or emotional distance, or there is a breach in intimacy, which will risk breaking up a close relationship. Here are some examples to illustrate the negative consequences of using xièxiè to an insider in Chinese culture:

My aunt in China had gone out of her way to help me collect data for my research.

When I said xièxiè to her over the phone, she got very upset and scolded me for “acting so distant like an outsider” (怎么那么见外zěnme nàme jiànwài)!

A Chinese professor of English whom I met in the USA once solemnly warned me that we could never become good friends simply because I said ‘thank-you’ to her too many times.

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2 A formulaic response to xièxiè (thank-you) in Chinese is bú/bié kèqi (不/ 别客气), which may equate to ‘You are welcome’ or ‘Don’t mention it’ in English. However the literate translation is “don’t be polite” because kèqi is another Chinese translation for English polite or politeness in like limào, but with some negative connotation: being insincere or unnecessarily or inappropriately polite.
A college student of mine in China once told me that she had broken up with her boyfriend because she was tired of hearing him saying “thank you” to her. Though it might be more than that, the fact that she used it as a ‘legitimate’ excuse to break up a relationship explains the ‘gravity’ of this ‘faux pas’.

Another characteristic of Chinese communication style among insiders is its candidness or even bluntness in expressing opinions or giving suggestions or advice, which is reflected in, my comment: “Mary, you look fat in those pants”. To a Westerner like my friend Mary, this is totally inappropriate and completely rude. However in Chinese culture, to be sincere and honest in showing consideration to a family member or a good friend is far more important than being tactful or indirect as long as it is for their benefit. A Chinese saying explicates the importance of this “candid” forthrightness: 

liángyào kǔkǒu liyú bìng, zhōngyán nièr liyú xíng

(良药苦口利于病，忠言逆耳利于行): “sincere advice/suggestion may sound harsh but is beneficial for one’s conduct; that is just like effective medicine which tastes bitter but will cure disease.”

O’Driscoll (2007) points out, in an intimate relationship, the “virulence” of some ‘bald criticism’ or even ‘bald insults’ can function “as a solidarity marker” because it is more “face-enhancing” or “face-boosting” rather than face-threatening (p.247). When I told Mary that she looked fat in those pants, I was “performing my duty” to her as a good friend by showing my concern and kindness about her well-being, her appearance in this case. Such a blunt directness is very common among friends and family members in China. The only problem in this situation, unfortunately, is that my American friend did not understand this Chinese way of “friendly directness” and “face-enhancing” intention, and felt greatly insulted.
4.4 Formality with acquaintances (熟人shúrén): façade and outward performance

In modern society, one’s social life is intertwined with shúrén, familiar people or acquaintances who are “mutually interdependent in many aspects of their lives” (Fei, 1948, p.124). People in a shúrén group, Hwang (1987) states, “know each other and keep a certain expressive component in their relationship, but it is never so strong that all participants in this tie could express their authentic behavior as freely as” with their significant others (p.952, italicized added). As discussed in 3.2, each member has his/her reticulum of social relations in this mixed network. Due to the complexity of overlapping relationships, people in this close-outsider group pay particular attention to “shape and instill in the minds of others a particular favorable image” in order to maintain and strengthen their impermanent and instable yet interdependent relationships. That is where limao, Chinese politeness is called for.

Unlike the intimate relationships among insiders who are bound by duty and responsibility and can display their “authentic behaviors“ with candid sincerity, members of this shuren circle have to demonstrate their modest and deferent manner from their speech and conduct to conform with the traditional li, ritual propriety. When addressing others or referring to oneself, they need to be qiānbēi (谦卑), humble and modest - denigrating self and elevating others. Not doing so is deemed inappropriate or rude (Gu, 1990). When sharing one’s opinion or view, they will try to be hánxū (含蓄), implicit, indirect or even evasive, avoiding being seen as disagreeable or confrontational, which may threaten other’s face and damage the relationship. Showing respect and being polite to these close-outsiders is very important, which will leave a good impression or pleasant image on others to help strengthen an existing relationship or to establish a new tie. Candidness and sincerity give way to being formal, showing
deference and keeping harmony, which “helps establish or maintain social bonds, strengthen solidarity, and control social distance” (Gu, 1990, p.249).

Not showing one’s ‘real’ or ‘authentic’ self to shùrén, acquaintances and familiar people, is an important characteristic of Chinese politeness, or ‘facework’ in Goffman’s (1967) terms, which is the behavior of impression management (Hwang, 1989, p.961). In short, not to disturb hierarchical social status and keep harmonious relationships by elevating others and denigrating self among shùrén is the goal of Chinese lǐmào. This is where the notion of “polite” Chinese comes from: humble, deferent, submissive, tactful and respectful. It is ritual priority and formality, an outward performance. Hwang (1987) calls it “the Chinese national character of social orientation, which has been defined as a complex behavior syndrome consisting of social conformity, inoffensive strategy, and submission to social expectations and authority” (p, 957).

4.5 Indifference with strangers (生人shēngrén): no relationship, no duty, no courtesy

Unlike being sincere and caring with zìjírén (self-person) bounded intimate relationships with duty and responsibility, or being formal and polite with shùrén (familiar person) tied with instrumental relationships with concern about instilling a good image and keeping harmony, many Chinese display an indifferent or even callous attitude towards shēngrén, distant outsiders, especially to lùrén, 路人 passers-by who are so far away from any significant connection to the self. Without any relational tie, there is an absence of consideration, courtesy or respect, not even formality towards strangers in Chinese society, which is built upon social relationships. People in this distant-outsider group are given no place in sharing general standards of values. In other words, if there is no relational tie, either of expressive or instrumental, then there is no need to be concerned about politeness.
“The Chinese are not bad-mannered towards their friends and acquaintances,” Lin Yutang, a famous Chinese writer (1936) claims, “but beyond that limit the Chinese as a social being is positively hostile towards his neighbor, be he a fellow-passenger in a street car or a neighbor at the theatre-ticket office” because they are “social beings in the absence of a social mind” (Lin, p. 175, 167). Peter Hessler (2001), an American writer and journalist, described this hostility towards strangers in his book River Town as he depicted the ticket lines at a Chinese train station,, which “weren’t lines so much as piles, great pushing mobs in which every person fought forward with no concern for anybody else”, and the people there ‘appear to feel little identification with people outside of his well-known groups”, (p. 87). Bond (1991) also describes such callousness in Chinese demeanors towards non-related others:

There is no affective response towards such people, for they are outside one’s established groups. The law of jungle tends to prevail, with people seeking their own personal advantage, totally indifferent to the needs and ‘rights’ of others. A careless pushiness, released by the absence of authority, is the order of the day. What Westerners would call rudeness and callousness are endemic to such encounters and result in some testy exchanges across cultural lines (pp. 56-57).

Prior to the private enterprises that emerged in the late 1980s, China was known for its hostile and unresponsive public service (Kong, 2010; Pan, 2000). Things have noticeably improved as many private businesses have been set up. For example, a customer entering a restaurant is often greeted by waiters or waitress with huānying guāng lin (欢迎光临) – welcome, a classical deferential expression (its literate translation is “welcome to bring your light/honor here). However, to be polite seems to be going on
one direction: people providing service are attempting to answer the politeness campaign’s call, obviously for their business, but people receiving service, such as dining in a restaurant, do not seem to follow the trend. Many of my American students, after a semester or a year studying Chinese in China, commented on the rude Chinese they met in restaurants – they yelled and shouted to get the attention of a waiter or waitress, but very seldom said xièxiè after being served. One explanation to these unmannerly Chinese customers besides the indifferent and cold attitudes towards strangers is that it is generally unnecessary to say xièxiè for “expected or required service” (理所当然的服务 lǐsuǒdāngróngde fúwù) (Unknown, 2009).

In the past few years, a large number of Chinese tourists travelled to other countries, which makes China “the single largest source of international tourism spending” (Kaphle, 2013). Although “destination countries welcome the tourism dollars the Chinese spend, they loathe their uncivilized, sometimes galling behavior” (Li, 2013). It is not difficult to understand why the Chinese tourists are seen as “pushy, loud, impolite and unruly” crowds (Li, 2013) in foreign countries: if they pay no attention to shēngrén (strangers) in China, why should they behave differently with strangers in a foreign country?

5 Conclusion: Chinese politeness: a hierarchical and selective ritual performance

The foregoing discussion illustrates that, different from western politeness of being respectful and courteous to every one regardless of social status or relationships (ideally), lǐmào, Chinese politeness, is hierarchical, differential and selective, which is largely impacted by a meticulous ranking of social relationships and a distinctive division between insiders, a unique social phenomenon in Chinese society. Lǐmào is not practiced among zìjīrén, family or friends, because it is frowned upon as being kèqi -
standing on ceremony and trying to break the intimacy. Nor is it applicable to shēngrén or lùrén, strangers, because it is not necessary. It is only performed to shùrén, acquaintances, with a stress on formality to observe social status and maintain harmonious relationships. Thus, Chinese politeness is ritual formality, a façade and outward performance.

Dear reader, if you find that your Chinese friend stops saying thank-you to you, or tell you that “you look fat in those pants”, be happy but not get upset because you have become their zìjīrén, one of them.

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Perceptions of Formal & Informal Learning in Late Adulthood: A Comparison of Assisted Living Residents and Their Non-Resident Counterparts

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Jamie D Stockton is an Associate Professor & the Chair of Education Studies at DePauw University where she has taught since 1996. She completed her Ph.D. in Curriculum & Instruction (curriculum studies, science education, & educational psychology) from Indiana University in 2002. Her current research interests include: (1) learning, teaching, & identity in late adulthood. (2) formal versus informal educators, learners, & learning environments, and (3) multi-generational families of educators’ perspectives on teaching & learning.

Abstract

Learning in late adulthood as an area of research has emerged more strongly over the past twenty years or so. This study analyzed the “Paths of Learning” diagrams and writings of twenty participants, half residing in an assisted living facility and half their non-resident counterparts. Follow-up interview questions were asked related to the quality of learning experiences. Six broad comparative findings emerged from the first activity: (1) without prompting, fewer residents identified detailed learning beyond formal learning experiences, (2) fewer residents identified future learning activities, (3) more residents identified what they could no longer do, (4) more residents digressed into stories related to their younger self, (5) fewer residents viewed all learning as
essential to their current identity, and (6) fewer residents viewed learning as a life-long process. Five additional qualitative themes emerged from the interview questions supporting the idea that as the life-span continues to increase for individuals living in the U.S., implications arise for those involved in the journey of life-long learning.
Teaching Students with Disabilities at the College Level

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Rebekah Dyer has a bachelors of arts degree in elementary and special education, masters in educational leadership and is due to complete a doctoral degree in organizational leadership with an emphasis in special education in 2018. Rebekah Dyer has been in the field of special education for 16 years. She taught middle school self-contained, inclusion classroom, and K-12 resource.
Rebekah’s research interests include special education, inclusion of individuals with disabilities, and disability ministry.
Rebekah’s strengths in teaching include building relationships with students, communication, and classroom engagement.

Abstract

Students with disabilities are provided with support through The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) through the age of 21. For students with disabilities who want to go on to post-secondary education the supports are less. There are some accommodations that can be provided through the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), however, they are not as extensive. How can colleges and universities support these students in being successful? Can professors meet the needs of students with disabilities in the classroom?

While the law may not provide comprehensive components for post-secondary education, universities and professors can be proactive in creating an environment that
will allow students with disabilities to successfully complete a degree. This can include policies and procedures, training for professors and additional resources such as tutoring. In addition, students with disabilities need to advocate for their needs by communicating with the university and their professors. Together, with the university, professors and student working together, students with disabilities can be successful in colleges and universities.
TEAM2: Teaching them to Read - Educational Issues in Court-involved Youth and Possible Solutions: Preliminary Findings from a Researcher-Practitioner Project Funded by the National Institute of Justice

Ruth E. Jefferson
Ball State University

Dr. Jefferson has spent her life working with individuals with and without disabilities, both in public education and academia. She holds a doctoral degree in reading and learning disabilities from Ball State University. Dr. Jefferson has offered several immersive learning courses, including an equestrian camp for children with disabilities and her current project which involves going into a residential treatment facility and working with at-risk youth in the area of reading. This work is being funded by the National Institute of Justice. Her research focuses on reading, learning disabilities, and at-risk youth.

Abstract
This presentation will focus on a project in a residential treatment facility. This project focuses on improving reading achievement in residents who are court-placed in the facility. University students provide two research-based reading interventions to residents. Research focuses on the difference in reading achievement and growth between residents who participate in the interventions and residents who do not. Longitudinal data are also being collected once the resident is released from the facility.
Initial results suggest that a significant difference exists between the intervention and control groups in reading, in favor of the intervention group. This 3-year project is being funded by the National Institute of Justice.
Utilizing Student-Generated materials in the Classroom

Chip Baumgardner
Pennsylvania College of Technology

Chip Baumgardner brings over 30 years of experience as an educator and entrepreneur. His areas of emphasis include innovation, economics, and education. He has published 15 articles, two books, and numerous presentations, including areas such as secondary ticket prices, collaborative learning, and innovation. Additionally, he serves on numerous committees with various professional bodies.

Abstract
With the heightened use of technology in most industries, disruptors serve to create extensive and (sometimes) permanent change to current models of operation. The textbook industry is no exception where factors such as digital technology, consolidation, open sourcing, and economics have resulted in, among other things, student-generated classroom materials. Discussing the strategies for implementing student-generated materials into the class will be an essential part of looking at how to harness new material in a fast-paced digital age.
The Value of Good Credit - A Risk-Based Pricing Approach to Consumer Credit Scores

R. McKay White
MacEwan University

Dr. White has a PhD in economics and a bachelor of laws. He currently teaches law in the MacEwan School of Business. He has experience practicing law and in providing expert opinions on quantification of economic damages in commercial litigation. His research is a hybrid of economics and law, with a focus on resolving issues in damage quantification and the comparison and evaluation of social and economic effects of banking regulations.

Abstract
This paper proposes a method of valuing damages commonly seen in the breakdown of domestic relationships but heretofore unquantified. Domestic partners frequently purchase significant assets, such as a home, where one partner is legally liable but the other is responsible for making payments. When the relationship breaks down, the partner responsible for making payments stops doing so. This results in default, for which the other partner is legally liable. The consequence is significant damage to the other partner's credit rating, affecting the partner's ability to get favourable terms for borrowing in the future.

A credit rating’s value lies in its ability to qualify for debt and to obtain low interest rates. Using risk-based pricing of consumer loans across the United States, I estimate interest rate differentials as consumer credit ratings change. This can be used to value
consumer credit ratings based on actual and expected debt loads. The cost of damage to a consumer’s credit rating can thus be estimated.
VSTEM: Visualizing Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics

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Dr. Mary Baker is a Professor in the Department of Teaching and Learning at the University of North Dakota. Her areas of research include Mathematics Education, STEM Education, and Technology Education. She teaches undergraduate and master’s level coursework in mathematics education and doctoral level coursework in teacher education.

**Abstract**

Motivating students to learn and be excited about mathematics and science is a complex problem teachers confront on a day-to-day basis. Why is it a problem? If students are not motivated by these subjects and do not do well in them, then they may be limiting their qualifications for many of the exciting and economically important careers that are out there, waiting to be filled by a well-educated workforce. STEM careers are an area of the workforce where we are particularly challenged to educate enough people to fill society’s needs. Studies have shown, however, that if we don’t engage students early enough, by the time they get to college their educational opportunities are already severely limited because of their learning deficits in these two subjects. In this paper, we share how university faculty interacted with middle school mathematics and science teachers and students to create interesting and informative STEM lessons designed to motivate students to engage in and enjoy more mathematics and science. From building solar ovens and houses to a solar city, students interacted with scientists and
mathematicians from university as they explored how energy generation and consumption could be addressed using solar energy. Interaction with university faculty also exposed students to STEM-related career opportunities. Additionally, we are proposing to follow up on the results of the initial study by taking VSTEM into the primary grades. We believe that even at that young age we can help students “Visualize STEM.” After all, seeing is believing!

Background

The Space Race and the Advent of STEM Education

On October 4, 1957, the Soviet Union (USSR) launched Sputnik I, becoming the first country to successfully launch a satellite into orbit over the Earth. The US government and the US’s fledgling space program was caught off guard by this event, as its own program of satellites, Project Vanguard, was smaller in size and not yet ready for launch. With satellites in orbit it was feared that the USSR could launch ballistic missiles which could carry nuclear weapons from Europe to the US. Before the US could react with a launch of its own, the USSR successfully launched Sputnik II on November 3, 1957, which showed even greater scientific capabilities as it carried Laika, the dog. The US rushed to catch up in the “space race”, with Vanguard TV-3, which unfortunately exploded on the launch pad on December 6. On January 31, 1958, the US launched Explorer 1, and the first American satellite was sent into orbit. (Launius, n.d.) For the next few years, the US and the USSR continued their launch efforts with satellites; some succeeded and others blew up at launch or failed in orbit. On April 12, 1961, however, the USSR once again significantly surged ahead of the US in the race, when Cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin became the first human being in space. A month later, US Astronaut Alan Shepard became the first American in space. This neck and neck
race was unacceptable to the American people, especially as it seemed that the US tended to lag one step behind the USSR (e.g. first object to impact the moon (1959), first woman in space (1963), first spacewalk (1965), first object to impact Venus (1965), first spacecraft to soft-land on the moon (1966), first satellite to orbit the moon (1966)). (The Space Race, n.d.)

But what could the US do about this? Why was this happening? Then-president Dwight D. Eisenhower equated the problem to a faulty educational system and its impact on the scientific community: “The Soviet Union now has – in the combined category of scientists and engineers – a greater number than the United States. And it is producing graduates in these fields at a much faster rate.” “We need scientists.” (Eisenhower, 1957) The American people and the school systems accepted the challenge, and the results were a massive revision to the way we taught science and mathematics in our schools, shifting focus from rote memorization of basic facts and terms to a greater emphasis on problem solving, scientific methods, and inquiry-based learning.

Yet after more than 50 years of increased emphasis on mathematics and science and with frequent educational reform movements, the US continues to struggle to achieve and maintain an edge over other countries. We ask ourselves why this is occurring. And the answer is complex and yet simple: Isolation. American schools tend to teach the subjects in isolation to one another; we do not typically teach students that it is the integration of these subjects that leads to discoveries and new technological innovations. Science by itself will not solve the problems of today, let alone those of tomorrow. Science relies on mathematics to prove and disprove hypotheses. Science relies on technology to perform the tasks. And the implementation of science discoveries relies on engineering. Engineers utilize science and mathematics to
construct the technological innovations our workforces need to perform tasks in this world…and out of it!

To that end, the National Science Foundation saw this need for integration of the subjects and coined the acronym “STEM” in the 1990s to show that Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics are not subjects to be taught in isolation, but rather content that is integrated together to create the innovations workforces need today to move forward and progress. (Woodruff, 2013) This emphasis on the integration of the subjects can now be seen in our standards documents: The Next Generation Science Standards (2013), the Common Core Content Standards (2010) and in the Standards for Technological Literacy (2007) compiled by the International Technology Education Association. All three reflect this need for integrated studies.

STEM Education in the Public Schools

To achieve these new standards, students must receive a high quality STEM education. To receive that education, their teachers must be of the highest quality, and they must know, understand, and be able to teach the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics needed utilizing appropriate pedagogies. In an effort to ensure that teachers are better prepared to teach the STEM disciplines and have access to the most up-to-date STEM knowledge, the US Department of Education has created the Mathematics and Science Partnerships (MSP) program. The MSP program is a grant program that provides funds to support collaborative partnerships between STEM departments at institutions of higher education and high-need school districts. Why high-need school districts? Because these are the school districts (and students) in most need of help. They are commonly underperforming on state tests and frequently serve minority populations of students who do not have access to the educational resources...
that will pull them out of poverty, do not receive the highest quality of education, and fewer get into colleges and universities where they could pursue STEM careers. Additionally, according to the US Census Bureau, in 2014 there were more than 20 million children under five years old living in the US, and 50.2 percent of them were minorities. The US is quickly approaching the point where we will be a minority-majority nation. (Wazwaz, 2015) If we do not ensure that our minority students are receiving a high quality education, then the majority of our people will soon be under-educated and incapable of being the scientists, engineers, and mathematicians of the future.

The University of North Dakota received an MSP grant in the fall of 2013 to provide professional development and support to teachers and students in grades 5 to 8 in three schools. The support centered on helping teachers teach and students learn STEM content that was interesting to the students, relevant to an authentic environmental problem, and scientifically and mathematically accurate. These lessons were designed to engage and inspire students with real-to-life lessons revolving around a very real problem that confronts the people of this country and that their generation will have to address: the Energy Crisis.

Context of the Curriculum

Energy consumption in the US continues to rise, and yet our antiquated reliance on energy produced by utilizing fossil fuels, a finite and non-renewable source of energy, is problematic. What will happen when we no longer have those fossil fuels? This problem has lead scientists and engineers to explore sustainable, renewable sources of energy, sources which will remain constant and not run out. One such source is solar energy. Solar energy is produced by utilizing the energy we receive from the sun. Since
the sun isn’t likely to “burn out” any time soon, it seems like a logical source of energy to pursue. To date, however, the technological innovations needed to harness this source of energy are such that it is not yet an efficient, effective and reliable source of energy. We can power small things (e.g. water heaters, cell phones, and small lights), yet larger items (e.g. cars, homes, and computers) continue to require other energy sources in addition to solar energy. Solar panels may be appearing on houses, but those houses are still “wired” to the local power company so that when they cannot produce enough electricity through their solar panels, the homeowner can purchase the needed electricity from the power company. On a larger scale, despite huge “solar farms”, no cities are currently being powered exclusively by solar energy. The scientists and engineers of today and those of the future are going to need to figure out how we can harness the sun’s rays to power our world.

Methods

An action research study was conducted utilizing a cooperative inquiry format. (Heron, 1971) Employing the premises of this particular research methodology, faculty at the university made contact with faculty within school districts and formed research teams. All participants were concerned with the lack of interest and motivation in middle school students in these particular schools with the subjects of mathematics and science. No matter what these teachers seemed to do, their students did not appear to enjoy or see the importance of learning these two subjects. State test scores were a further indicator of a problem with the subjects. Additionally, many of these teachers expressed a profound level of discomfort with their own content area knowledge of “real” science. How could they be expected to teach their students “real” science when they did not know it themselves? They had a tendency to rely on their textbooks, not
deviating from this prescribed format. As members of the research team, all of us were fully involved in the study, figuring out the content, designing lesson plans, implementing the lesson plans, reflecting on the process, and revising, as needed. This iterative approach of the school district and university personnel allowed us to work together as teams to find out ways to motivate these students to take an interest in these subjects and study them more deeply than they ever had before.

Participants

A total of 32 teachers in grades 5 to 8 in two high-need middle schools and one urban middle school were enrolled in the study; 374 students in those classrooms were involved in the lessons created. The three schools were selected based upon their state classification as low income with low performance on state mandated tests. Two of the schools were situated on rural Indian reservations and the one urban school was situated in the third largest city in the state, with demographics similar to those found throughout the state. Participants from the university included a mathematician, an astrophysicist, a meteorologist, a biologist, and an engineer, whose role it was to provide the teachers with accurate content knowledge and support; and a science educator, a mathematics educator, and a technology educator, whose role it was to provide the pedagogical support needed to help the teachers take the science and mathematical knowledge and create and implement high-quality science and mathematics lessons with their middle school students.

The Curriculum: VSTEM: Visualizing the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics Needed by Society

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The premise behind the study was that middle school students were not interested in or connected to the mathematics and science being taught in their schools. Middle school students frequently question their teachers about the curriculum. “Why do I need to learn this?” “When am I ever going to use this again?” “This is boring!” To help alleviate this, we needed to make sure that the content that was being taught was scientifically and mathematically accurate, was relevant to a problem that existed in the world today that these students could care about, and yet was accessible to a middle school student. What was “accessible”? Something that challenged them, and yet was not at such a high level as to frustrate them into shutting down.

Knowing that this generation of students is more technologically literate than any other generation, to date, the faculty at the university thought that technology would be the key to helping the students understand and enjoy the mathematics and science. We figured that we could take quite advanced concepts and teach them to middle school students in such a way that they could “see” the STEM. It would be our responsibility to provide the much-needed “visualizations” of more advanced and authentic scientific and mathematical content than a middle school student could normally grasp. To do this, we must first “visually” educate and engage their teachers’ interests and understanding of the content.

To that end, university faculty designed and implemented in-service sessions for the teachers that were led by each one of the STEM professionals to provide the teachers with the content area knowledge that was directly tied to their state standards, as it related to the contextual problem, solar energy usage. The astrophysicist provided instruction on the connection between the sun and the Earth, the seasons, and how solar panels are constructed to make energy from the sun’s rays. The meteorologist provided instruction about the connection between the seasons and weather and how weather
impacts the efficiency of the solar panels. The biologist provided instruction on how plants make energy from the sun’s rays and the earth’s resources, tying how plants create energy to how humans and solar panels create energy using the sun’s rays and the earth’s resources. The engineer provided instruction on the engineering design process, tying home and business construction (energy efficiency) and placement of solar panels, to solar energy efficiency and effectiveness. The mathematician provided information to show how mathematics was used by each of these professionals to make the discoveries and do the things they needed to do: It was the backbone of these professions. Our technology education, mathematics education, and science education experts provided pedagogical support to help the teachers examine their standards, determine what standards could be addressed through the topic of solar energy, and assisted the teachers in the design of high quality lesson plans to meet those standards with that topic.

As the grant progressed, the classroom teachers created the lesson plans with university faculty support and guidance, to make sure that the content knowledge provided to the students was accurate and the lessons were interesting and interactive for the students. Faculty assisted the teachers with finding and utilizing “visualizations” tools to help enhance student understanding of these concepts.

Key visualization tools used included the following.

GeoDome planetarium: Utilizing this inflatable and portable planetarium, university faculty and science teachers were able to provide students with multiple simulations and 3-D visualizations of the solar system, the galaxy, and the universe, as well as properties of light and sound. At the two sites located on the Indian reservations, cultural teachers were also a part of the GeoDome presentations, providing education on the importance of the four cardinal directions (north, south, east, and west), as well
as the significance of “Mother Earth”, “Father Sun”, and “Grandmother Moon”, thus providing the students with a connection between their culture and the content being explored.

iPad Airs: For participating in the grant activities each site received a classroom set of iPads, a charging cart, and monetary support for the purchase of iPad apps. From app tools that could be used to measure distances and draw blueprints, to simulations of circuits, solar paneled houses and solar farms, the iPads became a visualization tool, as well as a research device and presentation tool for students to use to experience, learn, document and share VSTEM.

Vernier Probe Ware: A primary piece of equipment used by the schools was probe ware. With this probe ware teachers and students could conduct many scientific experiments and measure light, oxygen, and carbon dioxide levels, graph results and gather data so that they could make determinations based upon data collected.

General Science and Mathematics Materials: Additionally, funds were set aside for each school to use to purchase science and mathematics materials to support the teachers and students in the implementation of the lesson plans. This included but is not limited to solar panels, lights, fans, construction materials, and wiring.

VSTEM Content by Grade Level
The grant was designed to aide teachers in the creation of a progression of lesson plans from 5th through 8th grade that would build student knowledge and interest in solar energy and associated STEM careers.
In 5th and 6th grade students in this state typically take a “general” science course which incorporates Physical, Life, Earth and Space sciences. Students learned what energy is, what different sources of energy there are, learned to differentiate between
sustainable versus unsustainable, renewable and non-renewable, and explored how energy is created in different ways (plants versus animals versus people). They learned about circuits, open versus closed, serial versus parallel, and how wiring is used to move energy from its source to use. For students in 6th grade, the culminating project was the construction of a model of a solar house that could be powered by solar panels. They explored angles and surface area with regard to their solar panels and efficiency of operation. Students constructed their houses utilizing cardboard, wired “ceiling” fans and lights to solar panels and situated their houses outside at an angle determined by them to be the optimal placement for energy creation and usage.

In 7th grade students in this state typically take a Life Science course. Students learned about renewable energy, conservation of energy, and energy transfer. They learned how a cell functions, and how plants and animals take energy in and use it. They learned about the weather, seasons, and climate and the impact these have on life. Utilizing this new knowledge about energy, students figured out similarities and differences to how solar panels work, and how the weather impacts their efficiency and effectiveness. They learned about why climate makes the use of solar energy a better proposition in some climates, like the desert, than it does in others, like the tundra. They learned about how the seasons will also impact that efficiency by the angle of the sun on the solar panel. To further their growth and understanding of considerations regarding solar energy usage, this group of students were asked to construct a model of a solar apartment for their culminating project, with multiple units that must be powered by solar panels. We asked students to consider what we could learn from plants’ use of solar energy and apply this knowledge to our own usage.

In 8th grade students in this state typically take Earth and Space Science courses. Students learned about electromagnetic radiation, the characteristics of waves, the Earth
and the Solar System, and climate. For this culminating project, students were asked to construct a model of a solar powered community. They had to research and consider the different types of businesses and structures needed by a community, they researched the energy usage of those businesses and structures, and figured out the number of solar panels that would be needed altogether. Once the number of panels was determined, they needed to determine placement: where should the panels be located and how should they be situated.

A Sample VSTEM Lesson: Leaves to Solar Panels: Making Connections between Nature & Engineering Design

To demonstrate the types of lesson plans created, we provide the following summary of a 7th grade lesson. Students are asked to examine a series of leaves (e.g. succulents, palm fronds, giant taros, and prickly pear cacti) to determine where in the world they think those leaves may be found; they are asked to explain their reasoning. The quantity of leaves found on the plant, the surface area and angle are then discussed as it relates to photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is then related to how humans create and use energy. Solar panels are then related to the leaves found in different regions. Students make the connection that quantity, surface area and angle are important considerations with regard to solar power, as well. Groups of students are then given a particular climate zone or region of the world to explore. They research the region and the kilowatt usage of the average house in that region. They are then asked to determine the number of solar panels needed to power a house in that region, the efficiency of panels in that region, and what they believe to be an optimal solar panel farm configuration would be for that climate and region. A model should then be constructed. Students are asked to
present their model to their teacher and peers, explaining their reasoning, receiving feedback, and modifying their design based upon the feedback.

Discussion

Results

Teachers who participated in this MSP grant project reported that they were more confident and comfortable with the science and mathematics content and visualization tools. They found that working with the university faculty, “bouncing ideas” off of them, and collaborating with them as they wrote, implemented, and re-wrote lesson plans was extremely helpful and a productive use of their time. Because of the experience, teachers felt more capable of implementing “more hands-on, less textbook-oriented” mathematics and science lessons.

With regard to the students, this was where the impact of the project was truly felt. As one would expect, the students reported that they really liked learning about solar energy and making their houses, apartments, and communities. What was gratifying was that they expressed in their reflections and surveys that they wanted MORE “time to learn” - MORE “VSTEM days”. It was apparent that they valued the creative aspects of the learning experiences provided by their teachers, and that the integration of the mathematics and science content into this VSTEM content made it not something to be dreaded or bored by, but rather something of value to them.

Did this project increase the number of these students who will become STEM professionals in the future? Only time will tell. We do know, however, that this solar energy experience did indeed energize them…and their teachers. Connecting university faculty to classroom teachers and students was enlightening for all.
Where do we go from here?

Whereas many programs, like VSTEM, are designed to improve middle school teachers’ subject matter content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in the STEM disciplines, few programs are designed to improve it at the level of the primary grade school teacher and this is the direction I am proposing we go in from here. It is important to address the needs of this particular group of teachers because research has shown that the decline in interest in science is actually occurring in the elementary school years, not in middle and high school, as previously thought. (Adams, Miller, Saul, & Pegg, 2014; Pell & Jarvis, 2001) This is particularly troubling because these same students enter into their elementary school years curious about life and the world around them. It seems that our methods of teaching may be stomping that curiosity out of them. As STEM content is a spiraling curriculum, building upon itself year after year, without a strong educational and motivational foundation in the early years of elementary school, students may be unwilling or unable to learn or have greater difficulty in learning what must be learned in middle and high school years to prepare them for college. Additionally, it is important for the instruction in those early years to be of the highest caliber to promote and further the innate interest and abilities of these students. We must make sure that those teachers have the right background knowledge and support in mathematics and science, just as we are with our upper grades teachers.

How do I propose making the scientifically and mathematically accurate knowledge more accessible to these very young learners? Of course, we would continue to use age-appropriate technological visualization tools, like we did with our middle school students. But this will not be enough because they are so young. We will do this by utilizing a tried and true method of helping young children connect school and home to the world around them: Children’s Literature. Although research
has shown that utilizing children’s literature to teach mathematics (e.g. Clarke, 2002; Murphy, 1999; Shatzer, 2008; Whiten & Wilde, 1992, 1995) and science (e.g. Henriques & Chidsey, 1997; Monhardt & Monhardt, 2006; Morrow, Pressley, Smith, & Smith, 1997; Zeece, 1999) is an effective approach to teaching the isolated content, we have not explored how we can use literature to teach STEM integrated content. We should be exploring this new pedagogical area now so that we can catch these young learners and interest them in STEM content and careers at this very young age. They are our future scientists, engineers, and mathematicians.

What do you think?

References


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What’s All the Hype with Comment, Share, & Like?

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Abstract

As faculty, we are being asked to take on more responsibility for the marketing of our classes and programs. Since many faculty do not have marketing training, it has left them wondering how to market, who to market to, where to market, etc. In an effort to answer these questions, market analysis was done and a study was developed. With our specific market being comprised of predominantly “millennials,” the best marketing strategies were explored and as a result, a social media campaign marketing posts gained the most traction including comments, reaches, and shares. After this session, you will leave with new insights for increasing enrollment at your university and in your classes.