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ABSTRACT

This conference was designed to offer a view to novice scholars of what scholarship is and provide insights on how to share knowledge with others. The keynote speech by Lisa Delpit, "The Role of Scholarship," is not included in this volume. Other conference papers, presented in alphabetical order by first author, include: (1) "Social Studies in Other Nations: A Focus on Nigerian Social Studies/Global Education" (Sadiq A. Abdullahi); (2) "Towards a Pedagogy of Inferential Statistics in Graduate Education Programs: Insights from Cognitive and Educational Research" (Cengiz Alacaci); (3) "University Policies That Increase and/or Decrease Access for African-American Women Seeking Advanced Degrees" (Vannetta Bailey-Iddrisu); (4) "The Complacent Acceptance of Diversity: Human Resource Development in a Culturally Diverse Environment" (Judith D. Bernier); (5) "The Butter Ws Better: A Preliminary Study of Nostalgia and Cuban American Identity" (Linda Bliss); (6) "An Investigation of Narration Rates for the Reading While Listening Strategy" (Chan-Ho Chae and Lisbeth Dixon-Krauss); (7) "The Effect of Incorporating Math Skills into Physical Education Classes on Math Achievement of Second Grade Elementary Students" (Charmaine DeFrancesco and Betty Casas); (8) "The Effect of Sportspersonship Instruction on the Behaviors of Second Grade Physical Education Students" (Charmaine DeFrancesco and Christian Gonzales); (9) "Globalization and the Marginalization of Educational Purpose: Preparation of Workers and Citizens for the 21st Century and the Vision of Sustainable Futures" (R.V. Farrell and Clifton Hamilton); (10) "Students of Haitian Descent in American Schools: Challenges and Issues" (Audrey M. Gelin); (11) "Evaluating the Effectiveness of a Public School Prekindergarten Program for Children with Disabilities" (Josee Gregoire and Luretha F. Lucky); (12) "The Mismatch of the Language of Textbooks and Language of ESL Students in Content Classrooms" (Claudia G. Grigorescu and Eric Dwyer); (13) "Students' Perceptions and Opinions of Unscientific Bias in Evolutionary Curriculum" (Rick Lapworth); (14) "Minority Workforce Issues in Athletic Training" (Daniel Nevarez, Dan K. Hibbler, and Michelle A. Cleary); (15) "Joining the Conversation: Graduate Students' Perceptions of Writing for Publication" (Sarah Nielsen and Tonette Rocco); (16) "Changing the Interface of Family and Consumer Sciences at Florida International University" (Sandra Poirier, Melissa Madia, Annette Marie Hernandez, and Emilmarie Faria); (17) "Women in Athletic Training: Striving for Equity" (Patricia Streit Perez, Michelle A. Cleary, and Dan K. Hibbler); (18) "The Effects of a Family-Based Educational Intervention on the Prevention of Lead Poisoning in Children" (Loraine Wasserman); (19)

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"Reorganizing the Value of Teaching Proverbs: Multicultural Origins of Oral and Written Literacy" (Susan Marino Yellin); (20) "Multicultural Literacy in Education: Meeting the Objectives of the Florida Sunshine State Standards" (Susan Marino Yellin and Doreen Perez); and (21) "African-American Experiences in the Workplace: Miseducation Goes a Long Way" (Natacha Zuniga). Each paper contains references. (SLD)

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COERC 2002

Proceedings of Appreciating Scholarship: The First Annual College of Education Research Conference

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Co-Editors: Sarah M. Nielsen and Tonette S. Rocco

April 27, 2002

Florida International University

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To all FIU Research Conference Participants, Sponsors and Guests:

The FIU College of Education Research Conference Steering Committee would like to thank the College of Education faculty and students for supporting the first annual COE research conference. Special thanks must go to the Office of Research and Grants for their sponsorship and vision under the guidance of Associate Dean Mark Shermis, for the invaluable work of program assistant Maria Tester and for the insights of Frank Di Vesta. Without the support of so many we could not have done it, so thank you again for making our first annual conference so successful.

In addition, we are indebted to Dan Dustin, First Frost Professor, Parks and Recreation Management and Adriana McEachern, Associate Professor, Counselor Education for serving on the selection committee for the Lorraine R. Gay Award for Excellence in Research/ Scholarship, founded by Barry Greenberg, Professor, Educational Research.

We especially appreciate our speakers, who gave us insight into scholarship and issues affecting education in this millennium: Lisa Delpit, Director, Center for Urban Education and Innovation; Mark Rosenberg, Provost and Executive VP for Academic Affairs; Doug Wartzok, Dean, University Graduate School; and Mark Shermis, Associate Dean, Research and Grants.

Of course, we would like to recognize the efforts of our moderators, who were instrumental in making each session a true conversation among a community of professors and students: Linda Blanton, Dean, College of Education; Charles Bleiker, Associate Professor, Early Childhood Education; Dan Dustin, Frost Professor, Parks and Recreation Management; Gail Gregg, Associate Professor, English Education; Richard Lopez, Associate Professor, Exercise Physiology; Brian Moseley, Assistant Professor, Educational Psychology; Colleen Ryan, Associate Professor, Educational Psychology; and Linda Spears-Bunton, Associate Professor, English Education.

Thank you and we are looking forward to next year.

From all of us on the COE 2002 Research Conference Steering Committee.

Opening Remarks

Welcome to The First Annual College of Education Research Conference brought to you by the hard working members of the steering committee: Linda Spears-Bunton, Frank DiVesta, Dan Dustin, Delia Garcia, Sarah Nielsen, and myself, Tonette Rocco. We are grateful to Maria Tester for her assistance with organizing this event. We also wish to thank the volunteers who joined us to help with the little things that mean a lot at a conference.

Our theme this year is Appreciating Scholarship and we have been asked several times what we mean. I offer this explanation of what the committee meant this year by appreciating scholarship:

We mean helping students understand the importance of research by sharing the knowledge we all have, knowledge gained through action in practice, knowledge gained through reflection or conceptualizing alternate meanings of another's work. And that we create knowledge through empirical studies using the tools and techniques of qualitative and quantitative methods. I would have to say that appreciating scholarship includes learning the rules and culture of scholarship so that all knowledge can be captured and shared.

We hope this conference offers a view to novice scholars of what scholarship is and provides insights on how to share knowledge with others. We hope that the presenters here find mentors among us who will help guide them through the process of submitting their work to refereed national conferences and refining their work into manuscripts. We hope that this conference helps us to understand and appreciate the scholarship of our colleagues so that we can all become more nurturing and supportive of each other.

Thank you for joining us this morning. And Welcome!

Presented at the First Annual College of Education Research Conference, April 27, 2002 by Tonette S. Rocco, Ph.D.

Program

Appreciating Scholarship:
The First Annual College of Education Research Conference

Saturday April 27, 2002

Time	*Event*	*Location*
	Morning Schedule	
8:00-8:30 a.m.	Registration/ Light Refreshments	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
8:30-8:45 a.m.	Welcome	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
8:45-9:15 a.m.	*Opening Keynote* **The Role of Scholarship** **Dr. Lisa Delpit, (New) Director of the Center for Urban Education and Innovation**	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
9:15-9:30 a.m.	Break	
9:30-10:30 a.m.	***Concurrent Sessions 1 & 2***	
Session 1	**Race, Culture, and Ethnicity** **Moderator:** Colleen Ryan	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Audrey M. Gelin: *Students of Haitian Descent: Challenges and Issues* Linda Bliss: *"The butter was better": A preliminary study of nostalgia and Cuban American identity.* Natacha Zuniga: *African-American Experiences in the Workplace: Miseducation Goes a Long Way* Vannetta Bailey-Iddrisu: *University policies which serve to increase or decrease access to graduate studies for African American re-entry women.*	
Session 2	**Issues in Teaching and Learning** **Moderator:** Linda Spears-Bunton	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Charmaine DeFrancesco & Christian Gonzales: *The effect of sportspersonship instruction on the social behaviors of elementary physical education students.* Sandra Poirier, Melissa Madia, Annette Marie Hernandez, & Emilmarie Faria: *Changing the interface of family and consumer sciences at FIU.* Josee Gregoire & Luretha F. Lucky: *Evaluating the effectiveness of a public school prekindergarten program for children with disabilities.*	
10:30-10:45 a.m.	Break	
10:45-11:45 a.m.	***Concurrent Sessions 3 & 4***	
Session 3	**Cognitive development: Problem Solving and Reasoning** **Moderator**: Bryan Moseley	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Charmaine DeFrancesco & Betty Casas: *The effect of incorporating math skills into physical education classes on math achievement of second grade elementary students.* Susan Marino Yellin: *Recognizing the value of teaching proverbs: Multicultural origins of oral and written literacy.* Cengiz Alacaci: *Towards a pedagogy of inferential statistics in graduate education programs: Insights from cognitive and educational research.*	
Session 4	**Issues in Equity** **Moderator:** Richard Lopez	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Daniel Nevarez, Dan Hibbler, & Michelle Cleary: *Hispanics in athletic training: current issues and trends.*	

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	Tricia Streit Perez, Michelle Cleary, & Dan Hibbler: *Women in athletic training: striving for equity.* Loraine Wasserman: *The effects of a family-based educational intervention on the prevention of lead poisoning in children.*	
11:45-1:00 pm	***Luncheon and Panel Discussion***	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
12:15-1:00	**Appreciating Scholarship** **Mark Rosenberg, Provost** **Doug Wartzok, Dean Graduate School** **Mark Shermis, Associate Dean Research and Grants**	
1:00-1:10	*Transition*	
1:10-2:10	***Concurrent Sessions 5 & 6***	
Session 5	**Writing for a public audience: Student Voices** **Moderator**: Linda Blanton	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Sarah Nielsen & Tonette Rocco: *Joining the conversation: Graduate Students' Perceptions of Writing for Publication* Rick Lapworth: *Students' perceptions and opinions of unscientific bias in evolutionary curriculum.*	
Session 6	**Language, Literacy and 21st Century Technology** **Moderator**: Gail Gregg	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Chanho Chae & Lisbeth Dixon-Krauss: *An investigation of Narration Rates for the Reading while listening strategy.* Claudia Grigorescu, Eric Dwyer, & Patricia Killian: *The mismatch of the language of textbook and language of ESOL in K-5 content classrooms.* Jan Morton, Susan Steege, & Charlene Crystal: *How will incorporating technology (use of e-mails) into Deaf/HOH/ASL classes increase students' written language skills.*	
2:10-2:20	Break	
2:20-3:20	***Concurrent Sessions 7 & 8***	
Session 7	**Teacher Scholars: Perspectives on Praxis** **Moderator:** Chuck Bleiker	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	Doreen Perez & Susan Yellin: *Multicultural literacy in education: Meeting the objectives of the sunshine state standards.* Mara Hernandez: *The beliefs and practices of female science teachers: Implications in relation to gender.* Cengiz Alacaci: *Pre-service elementary teachers' understanding and use of graphical data representation.*	
Session 8	**Looking ahead: Work, Schooling, and economic development in the 21st century** **Moderator**: Dan Dustin	Golden Panther Suite-GC 325
	R. V. Farrell & Clifton Hamilton: *Globalization and the marginalization of educational purpose: Preparation of workers and citizens for the 21st century and the vision of sustainable futures.* Judith Bernier: *The complacent acceptance of diversity in "theory": HRD in a culturally diverse environment.* Sadiq A. Abdullahi: *Social studies in other nations: A focus on Nigeria social studies/global education.*	
3:20-3:30	**Break**	
3:30-4:00	**Lorraine R. Gay Award for Excellence in Research/Scholarship** Presented by Barry Greenberg Award Recipients Honored	
4:00-4:45	**Appreciating Scholarship: Next Steps** **Linda Blanton, Dean College of Education**	

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Lisa D. Delpit – Keynote Speaker

Lisa D. Delpit is the Executive Director/Eminent Scholar of the Center for Urban Education & Innovation at Florida International University, Miami, Florida. She is the former holder of the Benjamin E. Mays Chair of Urban Educational Excellence at Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia. Originally from Baton Rouge, Louisiana, she is a nationally and internationally-known speaker and writer whose work has focused on the education of children of color and the perspectives, aspirations, and pedagogical knowledge of teachers of color. Delpit's work on school-community relations and cross-cultural communication was cited as a contributor to her receiving a *MacArthur AGenius@ Award* in 1990. Dr. Delpit describes her strongest focus as "...finding ways and means to best educate urban students, particularly African-American, and other students of color." She has used her training in ethnographic research to spark dialogues between educators on issues that have impact on students typically least well-served by our educational system. Dr. Delpit is particularly interested in teaching and learning in multicultural societies, having spent time studying these issues in Alaska, Papua New Guinea, Fiji and in various urban and rural sites in the United States. She received a B.S. degree from Antioch College and a M.Ed. and Ed.D. from Harvard University. Her background is in elementary education with an emphasis on language and literacy development. Her recent work has spanned a range of projects and issues, including assisting national programs engaged in school restructuring efforts; working with the Professional Standards Commission; establishing the Peachtree Urban Writing Project in Atlanta; creating high-standards, innovative schools for poor, urban children; and developing urban leadership programs for teachers and school district central office staff. She has also taught pre-service and in-service teachers in many communities across the United States. Her primary effort at this time is directing the Alonzo A. Crim Center for Urban Educational Excellence at Georgia State. She has received a number of awards including the Harvard University Graduate School of Education 1993 Alumni Award for Outstanding Contribution to Education; the 1994 American Educational Research Association Cattell Award for Outstanding Early Career Achievement; 1998 Sunny Days Award from Sesame Street Productions for her contributions to the lives of children; and the 2001 Kappa Delta Phi Laureate Award for her contribution to the education of teachers. Her book, Other People=s Children, has received the American Educational Studies Association=s Book Critic Award, Choice Magazine=s Eighth Annual Outstanding Academic Book Award, has been named a AGreat Book@ by Teacher Magazine and has sold over 100,000 copies. Some of her other publications include: The Real Ebonics Debate: Power, Language, and the Education of African-American Children; The Skin That We Speak: Thoughts on Language and Culture in the Classroom.

Social Studies in Other Nations: A Focus on Nigerian Social Studies/Global Education

Sadiq A. Abdullahi
Florida International University, USA

Abstract: This paper discusses the role of the role of social studies education in Nigeria. Amidst problems of mass education, funding, inequities, intolerance, corruption, weak governance, access to quality education, curriculum development, effective instructional methods, research, and teacher education, Nigeria embarks upon a democratic path to national unity and peace.

Introduction

Nigeria is located in Sub-Saharan Africa. It is a nation in perpetual crises. After the civil war, a booming petroleum exports and revenue, and a relatively peaceful period from 1970 to 1979, Nigeria today is attempting to correct past wrongs as it deals with recurring economic, political, religious and ethnic conflicts. Concerned about the future of a nation full with natural, material and human resources, some educators are designing educational programs and activities aimed at addressing the root causes of the political, ethnic/tribal and economic conflicts.

Citizenship education is at the core of the social studies education curriculum in Nigeria. As the nation struggles to create viable programs amidst problems of mass education, funding, inequities in access to education, curriculum development, instructional methods, research, and teacher education, citizenship education programs and activities have become crucial to sustaining the goals, objectives, and aspirations of the nation (Farouk, 1998). The Nigerian Constitution remains the supreme law of the nation, providing the guidelines and frameworks for the structure of government and for governance.

Background

Nigeria embodies 235 ethnic groups speaking approximately 400 languages and practicing traditional African religions, Christianity, and Islam. Since independence from Britain in 1960, Nigeria has moved between democracy and military rule. Three major ethnic groups, representing different political traditions, continue to influence social and political events strongly. The Hausa-Fulani, in the north, are mostly Muslim and traditionally support a centralized authoritarian system with a strong village chief and local Emir. The Igbos, in the southeast, are mostly Christians who traditionally live in autonomous village communities and are noted for indirect democracy. The Yoruba, in the west, follow a mixture of religions and lie midway between the direct democracy of the Igbos and the authoritarian systems of the Hausa-Fulani in their traditional government. The Yoruba have traditional leaders and a council of hereditary chiefs who make decisions in addition to those made by local self-governing units (Orimoloye, 1983). Although the Yorubas and Igbos differ greatly in culture and traditional political system, they are often viewed as southerners in contrast to Hausa-Fulani northerners. Politically, the Igbos and Yorubas are lumped together because of the generally higher levels of education as a result of early exposure to Western ideas brought in by the missionaries.

The new social studies curriculum should reflect goals stated in the National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981). In 1999, Nigeria became a constitutional democratic nation. The new Constitution addresses core national issues such as citizenship,

fundamental human rights, the legislature, the executive branch, the judiciary, national identity, political parties, etc. The assumption here is that the new Constitution can be a catalyst and stimulus that engenders national consciousness, political participation, and personal development. Citizenship education will provide the content, programs, and activities for students. National consciousness has been hindered by the Nigerian political discontinuity and instability because of the irregular political regimes. For example, between 1960 and 1999, there have been eight military and four civilian regimes in the country. Now that the nation has embarked on sustaining democracy and national unity, the social studies curriculum needs to be reexamined to reflect national goals and aspirations, principles, skills, and values needed to sustain a constitutional democratic nation, as there is a sustained record of corruption and human rights abuses in Nigeria. The corruption and the lack of human respect and human dignity combined with weak governance are attributable to the years of authoritarian military and so-called democratic civilian regimes. As the nation approaches state and national elections, political scientists and social educators are concerned about the role citizenship education will play in preparing the youth for active participation in Nigerian politics as well as its future.

History and Philosophy

At independence in 1960, Nigerian educators, joining educators from other African nations, were concerned about the inherited British educational systems and sought ways to change them to make it suitable to the needs and aspirations of the new and emerging nations (Merryfield & Muyanda-Mutebi, 1991). In September 1967, eleven African nations–Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra-Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia, met at Queen's Oxford in England to discuss needs and priorities in curriculum development in Africa. A year later, representatives from the above nations agreed to meet in Mombassa, Kenya to address three basic questions: (a) What is social studies? (b) What should be the objectives in social studies education? and (c) What approach should be used in teaching social studies? These questions became the framework within which Nigerian social studies education was organized. Moreover, the representatives discussed and debated the integration of the traditional subjects such as history, geography, and civics as well as disciplines such as economics, sociology, and anthropology into the social studies curriculum to reflect the goals and aspirations of the nations.

In 1969, a national curriculum conference was staged to overhaul the Nigerian education system. The outcome was the recognition of the importance of social studies as a means of inculcating national consciousness, effective citizenship, national unity, and national reconstruction, influenced by the civil war in which over 1 million Nigerians died (Adaralagbe, 1992; Farouk, 1997). Farouk (1997) argued that the first national curriculum forum aimed to depart from the rigid, authoritarian, and colonial curriculum framework that had dominated the practices and teaching of social studies in Nigeria. But there is evidence that the teaching methods and the curriculum still have vestiges of the colonial influence (K. Banya, personal communication, April 15, 2001).

Goals and Purposes

Ogundare (1991) examined the goals and objectives of social studies education to determine whether they are consistent with the goals and objectives of the Mass Mobilization for Self-Reliance, Social Justice, and Economic Recovery (MAMSER), and found that they are in agreement. He concluded that the programs and activities were consistent with goals and objectives, and therefore inculcated the values and habits that can give rise to a self-reliant civic

society (Farouk, 1998). One of the goals of education in Nigeria as outlined in the National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981) identifies citizenship education as "a basis for effective participation in, and contribution to the life of the society; character and moral training, and the development of sound attitudes; developing in the child the ability to adapt to his changing environment" (p. 7).

According to the Federal government, there are five national educational objectives, all aiming to build (a) a free and democratic society, (b) a just and egalitarian society, (c) a united, strong and self reliant nation, (d) a great and dynamic economy, and (e) a land of bright and full opportunity for all citizens (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981). In the social studies curriculum in America, five traditions guide the discussion of "What Knowledge is of Most Worth": (a) citizenship transmission, (b) social sciences or the structuring of social disciplines, (c) reflective inquiry, (d) social criticism, and (e) personal development (Barr, Barth & Shermis, 1977; Martorella, 1996). The state social order is founded on ideals of freedom, equality and justice. In furtherance of the social order, the Nigerian Constitution (1999) afforded citizens the following rights: (a) equality of rights, obligations and opportunities before the law; (b) recognition, maintenance and enhancement of the sanctity of the human person and human dignity; (c) humane governmental actions; (d) prevention of exploitation of human or natural resources in any form whatsoever for reasons other than for the good of the community; and (e) the security and maintenance of independent, impartial, and honest courts of law, and their easy accessibility.

According to Merryfield & Muyanda-Mutebi (1991), African nations need to address: (a) students' understanding of interactions between different cultural, social and physical environments, (b) students' appreciation of their homes and heritages, (c) development of academic and social skills and attitudes expected of citizens and (d) freedom of expression of ideas in a variety of ways. Adaraladge (1972), in a paper delivered at the National Conference in Ibadan, Nigeria, concluded that the importance of social studies was that is was recognized as a means for instilling national consciousness, effective citizenship, national unity, and national reconstruction (Farouk & Ukpokodu, 1995). In Nigeria, social studies education was immensely influenced by the five national objectives stated in the Second National Development Plan (NDP, 1970-1974). The objectives became the foundation for the National Policy on Education. But in the first National Development Plan (1966-1970), the Federal government emphasized modernization and technological training. In curriculum terms, this meant that more attention and financial resources would be allocated to academic disciplines such as mathematics, chemistry, and physics and less to subjects such as history, music, art, English, religious studies, nature study, and physical education.

As Nigeria moves forward to undo past wrongs, embrace democracy and a market economy, it is important to prepare Nigerian youth to think nationally and globally. According to Farouk (1995), if Nigeria is to develop and evolve, there must be a new and positive ethnic, inter-cultural, socio-political orientation to guarantee national stability, peace, and economic growth. According to Meziebi (1992), the objectives of social studies education in Nigeria are the following: (a) man's awareness of his environments and beyond and his survival in them; (b) man utilizing his reasoning, imagination, critically and constructively to identify and solve his personal skills, attitudes, societal problems and contribute to national development; and (c) man acquiring skills, attitudes, and values essential for his harmonious and effective co-existence, interdependence and functionality. Since independence, Nigerians have worked to develop a form of government that could effectively serve people with such disparate traditional political systems (Sunal, Gaba, & Osa, 1987). Unity has a major national goal. Fostering national unity

through citizenship education is emphasized in objectives for social studies. Social studies curriculum then was tied to the National Educational Policy in 1981 and to the national aspiration with Citizenship Education at the core. In 1996, a new curriculum on Citizenship Education was developed to reflect the transition to constitutional democracy and the new Constitution (M. Farouk, personal communication, August 1, 2001).

The Federal Ministry of Education views national unity, consciousness and identity as major national goals (Farouk, 2001). The philosophy of the social studies education hinges in part on the idea that Nigerian schools should not only train individuals to be just and competent individuals, but also to function as contributing and participatory members of a free constitutional democratic nation. This implies that students must rely on the knowledge, skills and awareness of the rights of minority and majority groups to coexist and worship freely; respect law and order; and respect public and private property of Nigerians and non-Nigerians. This includes the awareness of the rights and obligations of citizens to government and society, and reciprocal government responsibility to citizens. It is believed that the interaction of the reciprocal obligations would foster socio-political stability and facilitate national development (Farouk, 1995a).

Curriculum and Instruction

Curriculum and instruction in social studies education today is still reminiscent of the British colonial and imperial frameworks. Although in the past educators have attempted to Africanize both the curriculum and instruction, minimum gains have been recorded (Farouk, 1998). For example, rote learning and centralized examinations are still prevalent and imposed. The implications for democratic and classroom practices are obvious: it limits students' creativity, imagination, cooperation, and social skills.

Suggestions

The integration of citizenship and democracy education with global education will provide for a smooth, practical, and easy transformation of national identity and national consciousness, and perhaps national peace. Finally, Farouk (1998) suggests that there has to be cooperation between the agents of political socialization if the aims and goals of citizenship, global education and the goals and aspirations of the nation are to be realized. It will require a huge national effort, funding, and a long-term vision and commitment from stakeholders, especially from the Federal Republic of Nigeria, if the goals are to be realized. As Miller (2000) asserted, a community will be considered good when citizens are actively engaged in deciding their common future together. Abdullahi and Farouk (1999) believe that the new democratic Nigeria will require humanistic, constructivist and holistic approaches to teaching and learning about citizenship and democracy in the new age.

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Towards a Pedagogy of Inferential Statistics in Graduate Education Programs: Insights from Cognitive and Educational Research

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Abstract: This study attempts to understand the nature of knowledge base that supports the ability to select statistical techniques for research situations. Findings showed that the largest component of such knowledge was related to research design. One implication is that techniques should be taught in relation to features of research design.

Inferential statistics is an important tool of research. The purpose of the study described herein was to investigate the nature of knowledge base that can support the ability to choose appropriate statistical techniques for applied research situations and to draw implications on statistics education based on the findings. The knowledge that statistical experts (statistical consultants and mathematical statisticians) and novices (graduate students in research methods and mathematics education) use in performing statistical tasks was explored and compared. Subjects compared research scenarios from the perspective of choosing a statistical technique. The knowledge that experts and novices use to perform statistical tasks requiring the selection of appropriate statistical techniques for applied research situations was the focus of the study. Implications of findings for statistics instruction to help novices develop expert-like knowledge bases were sought.

Theoretical Framework

Statistical analysis is an integral part of the research process, and it can be considered as a form of human problem solving. Theories of human problem solving in academic domains postulate that a critical part of the problem solving process is *problem representation*. Problem representation is a personal model of a problem based on domain-related knowledge and its organization (Chi, Feltovich & Glaser, 1981). In inferential statistics, problem representation refers to a person's statistical modeling of a research situation based on his or her knowledge.

One important conjecture is that problem representation relies on the elements of an individual's domain-related knowledge and *their organization* (Chi et al., 1981). Not only the content, but also the inner organization of the elements of an individual's knowledge in a domain is important to represent a problem for successful solution. Studies of knowledge structures in physics and medicine have led to two important conclusions about knowledge structures: (a) elements of knowledge structures can vary in their generality (or size), and (b) knowledge structures can be more efficiently used when they are interconnected (Boshuizen & Schmidt, 1992; Eylon & Reif, 1984).

Knowledge representation

There is a need for a theory to represent knowledge structures in inferential statistics. Schema theory can be used for this purpose. There is also a need for a technique to elicit knowledge structures. Further, the underlying assumptions of the technique should be in congruence with the theory used in representing which is the schema theory. Repertory Grid

Technique of Personal Construct Psychology was used for eliciting knowledge structures of individuals in inferential statistics (Kelly, 1955).

Since knowledge resides in human memory, schema theory--a theory of human memory--can be reasonably used to think about human knowledge structures in a given domain. The basic premise of schema theory is that there exist structures (specified as *schemas*) in memory for situations experienced recurrently. Although schema theory has primarily been developed in the context of understanding prose text, it is consistent with and can embody the three important qualities of knowledge structures listed above--size, organization and goal-directedness (Anderson & Pichert, 1987).

In summary, the ability to choose a statistical technique for a research situation is underlined by the knowledge structure of an individual in inferential statistics. In particular, selection skills of an individual in inferential statistics are supported by well-developed schemas corresponding to statistical techniques. Repertory Grid Technique provides us the tools (additive tree structures) to represent the schema of individuals in a way that can capture the important characteristics of their schemas.

Methods and Data Analysis

Methods

The participants were chosen from two kinds of statistical experts--3 statistical consultants and 3 mathematical statisticians, and two kinds of statistical novices--3 graduate students from mathematics education and 3 from research methods programs. These subjects represented different levels of experience and different specialization in inferential statistics.

Subjects were interviewed by using the procedures of *Repertory Grid Technique* to elicit the knowledge used in tasks based on two kinds of elements: five carefully constructed research scenarios, and names of five statistical techniques. Research scenarios were developed so that they represent a variety of research design situations, corresponding to five techniques: two-way ANOVA, t-test, chi-square test, test of Pearson's moment correlation coefficient, and Sign Test. These research situations were designed to reflect a cross section of theoretical characteristics of the appropriate techniques that reasonably fit them (i.e., parametric and non parametric tests) as well as a variety of the research designs.

Data were collected in two sessions: In the first, subjects were asked to compare and contrast the research scenarios presented in dyads from the perspective of "the kinds of things they consider while choosing an appropriate statistical method of analysis" for them. Six such dyads of research scenarios were used for this purpose. The second session involved rating the research scenarios separately with respect to the aspects of similarity or difference (or the constructs) they had suggested in the previous sessions. Subjects completed the rating by using a Likert type scale.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed to delineate two qualities of knowledge bases: content and organization. The contents of the knowledge base of individuals were inferred from a thematic analysis of the aspects of similarities and differences suggested by the subjects. The themes were classified into four categories: research design, theory, procedures and non technical aspects. The combined number of themes addressed in the research design, theory and procedural categories were taken as a measure of the extensiveness of the content of an individual's knowledge. The number of themes correctly related to all five of the scenarios tasks were taken as a measure of the

connectedness of a person's knowledge, as these themes provided the conceptual connections among the knowledge of individual statistical techniques.

Results and Implications

Results showed that, of the four types of knowledge used for statistical modeling of applied research situations, research design knowledge comprised more than 50 % of the knowledge experts used. Theoretical and procedural elements of the knowledge constituted relatively smaller portions. Although there were no significant differences in the extensiveness of the knowledge used by experts and novices, experts' knowledge use was found to be much more inter-connected.

This study furthered our understanding of expert-novice differences in the field of inferential statistics. More specifically, the results did not support the generalizations about the extensiveness of experts' knowledge use compared to those of novices, but the better organization and connectedness of experts' knowledge use compared to those of novices' was confirmed.

There were two implications of these findings for statistics education: Statistical techniques should be taught in relation to features of research design with which they can be used. Second, statistics education should stress the potential conceptual connections (that is, the similarities and differences) among the techniques from the perspective of associated research design features, as well as the theoretical and procedural aspects. To put these implications into practice, instructors may use a number of strategies: (a) explicating the research design features of the techniques, (b) teaching the techniques in relation to well-designed research scenarios, (c) asking the students to compare techniques from the perspectives of the conditions within which they can be used, and finally (d) asking the students to create flowcharts that can be used for choosing techniques.

From an educational perspective, the results of the study informed us of the kind of knowledge needed for the valued skill of choosing appropriate statistical techniques for applied research situations. The importance of selection skills is highlighted by the increasing availability and use on campuses of powerful statistical software that can perform complicated computations in seconds.

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University Policies that Increase and/or Decrease Access for African-American Women Seeking Advanced Degrees

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Abstract: The policies of most universities show a lack of dedication in addressing the needs of their non-traditional graduate students, particularly African-American women seeking advanced degrees. As African-American women return to the academy to pursue doctoral degrees, universities must address the issues facing women in general and African-American women in particular.

Black women's lives are neither fixed nor absolute but, rather, are dependent on the socio-historical context and the social phenomenon under consideration (King, 1995). African-American scholars as well as some Euro-American scholars have suggested that White women have benefited greatly from their position. McIntosh suggested that even though White women have been oppressed, they have also had privileges that come with being White in America (McIntosh, 1995). Conversely, because of their positionality, African-American women have not had the same opportunities as their White female counterparts. Moreover, while African-American men have suffered greatly, the unit analysis around race, generally speaking, includes their voice, while often silencing or omitting the voices of African-American women. Hence, some Euro-American feminists and many African-American scholars have suggested that African-American women live with the double jeopardy of racial and gender oppression. The double-jeopardy that African-American women encounter in terms of race and sex is viewed by some Black feminists as a reason for conducting research specifically on Black women and their role contributions to American society (Brown, 2001).

From primary school through higher education, the lives of Black women are touched either overtly or covertly by racism and sexism. The history of Black women's education documents their path as one of constant struggle, confrontation, resistance, negotiation, and marginality (hooks, 1984; Johnson-Bailey, 2001). The notion that African-American women are an invisible group on the sidelines and that they can be easily combined with other groups is a convenient fiction that conceals their power and importance (Etter-Lewis, 1993). Moreover, the limited research on African-American women in higher education has suffered from scholarly disinterest and been filtered through perspectives that are androcentric and/or ethnocentric (Brown, 2001; Howard-Vital, 1989).

The policies of local universities, both private and public, show a lack of dedication in addressing the needs of their nontraditional graduate students who are classified as nontraditional because they are usually female, over 30 years in age and a member of an ethnic minority group. These policies address the needs of traditional students who are just out of high school, single, childless and for whom the university is their full-time commitment. There is a need to reform the university policies to meet the needs of the growing non-traditional student seeking an advanced degree. My research has lead me to classify students in three distinct categories: (a) the traditional student (male or female) who matriculates to undergraduate studies immediately following high school; (b) the traditional graduate student who is often a male student returning to college after spending some years working after his undergraduate studies; and (c) the non-traditional student who is usually an older female, single parent, and a member of a minority

group. Many African-American women have become a part of the growing trend of non-traditional students returning to the academy for an advanced degree. This paper seeks to examine how university policies serve to increase or decrease African-American women's access to higher education.

Confronting the Issues

There are many issues facing the academy in regards to African-American non-traditional female students. The issues of disenfranchisement of working women in pursuit of an advanced degree include such matters as race and gender issues, a hidden curriculum, and the power dynamics of academia and American corporate culture. Support systems become the major way of coping with these issues.

Racism and Gender

Racism and sexism, which structure American society, affect the educational experiences of Black women in many ways. Black women are thought to be intellectually and morally inferior because they are Black (Johnson-Bailey, 2001). Many of these women face a double sword of being female and African-American while trying to maneuver in the academy. Those who choose to engage in education do so with the understanding that it is not fair. These students follow two simple rules: first, they resist believing in the equity of the system; and second, they resist giving up their home cultures in order to participate fully in this new academic world (Johnson-Bailey, 2001). These African-American female students are part of the growing trend of what has been deemed the *non-traditional student*. The non-traditional student challenges the status quo that has typically been for those who are white, moneyed, male, heterosexual, and able-bodied (Tisdell, 1993). Most of these African-American female students face many obstacles that impede their entry and/ or success at the graduate level. Those obstacles include "age...despite the current trend ... childcare and conflicting work schedules" (St. Thomas Univ., 2000).

A Hidden Curriculum

Many African-American women feel that there is a hidden curriculum based on racist philosophies at most institutions of higher learning that serve to decrease their access. Often the feeling is that the academy does not understand or care to acknowledge that this hidden agenda does exist. Often this hidden agenda includes methods that affect Black women students by denying them access to opportunities that shape their academic careers (Johnson-Bailey, 2001). Aspects of the stated curriculum, textbooks, and institutional policies are unmistakable in their consistent message to minorities: (a) minorities are not included in the core subject areas; (b) minorities, if represented, are peripheral to the subject matter; and (c) minorities are not considered in nor do they benefit from institutional rules and policies. In addition, Black women are locked out of research and publishing opportunities, study groups, assistantships, and other funding opportunities. Black women students reported that they were discouraged and stifled in the higher education environment in specific ways: (a) they were ignored when they raised their hands; (b) they were interrupted when speaking; (c) their comments were disregarded; (d) they voluntarily remained silent out of fear, habit, or necessity; and (e) they were misadvised by professors; and (f) they were intentionally excluded from the student network (Johnson-Bailey, 1994). Discouragement often sets in when these women encounter other aspects of the hidden

curriculum. The strategies that these women use to cope with these types of hostility are silence, negotiation, and resistance (Johnson-Bailey, 1994).

Power Dynamics

Many of the African-American graduate students view these issues in academia as replications of the power dynamics of American corporate culture. Academia is often thought to be the one system that practices fairness, yet many of these women have found this not to be necessarily true. Adult education, as a field that claims to hold democratization as a core value, must examine the hidden curriculum that thwarts efforts to be inclusive and democratic. The power dynamics that are the manifestations of the politics of the academy convey a powerful message that is unheard or unacknowledged by most enfranchised students but seems obvious to minority students: (a) you do not belong, and you are not wanted; (b) if admitted, you will be treated unfairly, and different standards and different rules will be used; (c) you must find your own means of survival; and (d) your degree, if achieved, will be considered inferior or unearned. (Johnson-Bailey, 1994). These are some of the same messages that many of these women face at their respective places of employment. Many of them set out to pursue an advanced degree in hopes of finding advancement in their jobs or by making a desired career change. To have to face the same overt or covert mannerisms of sexism and racism can serve to deter or motivate them toward success in the academy.

Support Systems

In spite of these obstacles and messages reinforcing their disenfranchisement, many of these women find support within their own communities. In this regard, they have much in common with Black men and White women, as all were historically locked out of most arenas of higher education by custom or law (Johnson-Bailey, 1994). They develop coping mechanisms such as sharing notes and stresses, and serving as an outlet of emotional support for one another. Also, many of them are taking advantage of employer incentives in the form of tuition vouchers. Most of these female students are married with children and have tended to put others' needs ahead of their own. Now they are back in school and attempting to place this one need, school, center stage (Johnson-Bailey, 2001).

Implications

Increasingly, as African-American women return to the academy to pursue advanced degrees, the universities will have to address the issues facing women as a whole and African-American women in particular. The majority of African-American women returning for an advanced degree do so in hopes of gaining access to a better life and certainly a better job, but they realize that school advancement is not a guarantee of career advancement. They merely hope an advanced degree would help them with their careers, but are pessimistic because they do not perceive the world as being fair to Black women (Johnson-Bailey, 2001).

Education has longed been a tool used to gain access to power. It has been successfully used by the power holders (usually white, privileged males) in this counting to maintain their status quo. According to Tisdell (1993), higher education has a responsibility to society, not only to fulfill the traditional role of creating and disseminating knowledge but also to contribute to creating a more equitable and just society. Educating nontraditional students is one way to expand this democratic ideal, including adhering to the objectives of (a) responding to social change; (b) constructing problem centered educational programs; (c) educating for the social and

cultural consciousness of its clientele; (d) training and further educating the educationally disadvantaged; (e) developing the understanding of adult educators to include the needs of disfranchised and culturally diverse adult learners; and (f) clarifying methodologies to support educational programs at the community level. The modern university has the responsibility to make education available to the adult minority population. In order to function effectively in their domain, adult educators must determine where the individual fits into the system, where biography meets structure, what the role of the university is in clarifying this relationship, and how to develop methods of delivery which benefit the adult learner's needs outside of, as well as within, the mainstream population (Daniel & Daniel, 1990).

In order for there to be a change in how universities meet the needs of their growing African American female graduate student population, many of them will have to begin to review their current policies and reform them by including women in the committees that set the policies. As students and practitioners, we must negotiate for a new educational structure that does not reproduce the existing system. This commitment requires active involvement in all aspects of our academic settings. Instructors must be aware of students' networks and must analyze how their actions as teachers influence those interactions. We can reach beyond the established barriers, whether physical, psychological, or social, by realizing why and by whom they were established (Johnson-Bailey, 1994).

Summary

Many university policies serve to increase or decrease access for African-American women pursuing an advanced degree. Many of these universities are beginning to address those issues of access as their student populations increase based on the growing number of African-American women who are enrolling in the graduate and post-graduate programs they offer. The literature shows that there are many changes taking place at universities across the country. Viewing Black women as a separate research group, apart from the category of women and Blacks, widens the agenda simultaneously. Viewing Black women as a separate entity or including issues of race, gender, class, and color, does not crowd or dilute the research agenda nor does it skew the focus from Blacks, women, or Whites. It merely enriches the research picture.

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The Complacent Acceptance of Diversity: Human Resource Development in a Culturally Diverse Environment

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Abstract: This paper examines the inability of work organizations to achieve racial balance and use training and development, organization development, and multicultural organizational development principles to manage and enable diversity initiatives. The paper proposes a conceptual framework for a micro and macro model as an approach to diversity initiatives.

Call it trendy, but having a diversity program seems to be taking off as a politically correct measure for most corporations. However, despite the prevalence of diversity initiatives at corporations, most companies have failed to achieve racial balance in their organizational structure. The problems arising from today's workforce diversity initiatives are caused not by the changing composition of the workforce itself but by the inability of work organizations to integrate and use a heterogeneous workforce at all levels of the organization (Cox, 1991). According to Cox (2001), this inability to integrate the workforce at all levels follows directly from the failure to diagnose the problem accurately. He states that typically, the problem diagnosis is limited to "insufficient diversity," and the solution consequently focuses on changing the input into the system.

This change in the input involves such actions as creating multifunctional and cross level work teams, placing foreign nationals on the board, and recruiting more women and racial-minority men (Cox, 2001). There is no question that this change in the composition of human input is an important step toward changing the culture, especially if the changes include positions of high decision-making authority. However, the approach of new inputs has usually not been accompanied by corresponding changes in the other elements of the system and that result is a predictable suboptimization or even outright failure of the change effort (Cox, 2001).

The purpose of this paper is to examine the implicit and explicit power of diversity initiatives within the organization, the critical content and impact of a micro and macro model, and the problematic issues relating to diversity initiatives within the organization. This paper conceptualizes workforce diversity initiatives in terms of a micro and a macro model. The micro model focuses on diversity initiatives that only affect individual employees within the organization. The macro model focuses on diversity initiatives that affect the entire organization. Such a framework leads to diversity initiatives that include three different perspectives: the individual, the interpersonal, and the organizational (Chesler, 1994). This conceptual framework provides an alternative way for Adult education and Human Resource Development (AE/HRD) practitioners and their organizations to understand the diverse concerns of racial-minority workers.

The paper examines the following four key areas respectively: (a) the implicit and explicit power of diversity initiatives within the organization, (b) training and development in the context of a micro model, (c) organizational development and multicultural organizational development in the context of a macro model, and (d) the problematic issues relating to diversity initiatives within the organization.

Implicit and Explicit Power of Diversity Initiatives within the Organizations

As society becomes more dependent on knowledge power, HRD professionals involved in research and practice invariably assume greater responsibility, and logically, should be more accountable for their actions (Hatcher & Aragon, 2000). It is also important that HRD practitioners understand the dynamics of diversity initiatives within the organization: who the players are, their needs and how they exercise power to fulfill those needs. One of many barriers affecting minorities is the cultural mismatch between the learning environment and their cultural history (Guy, 1999). All too often, adult educators do not understand the importance of the role that culture plays in shaping the educational and learning process with the organization.

The overall characterization of AE/HRD practitioners within the organization should be that of a business partner to address more systemic issues and to be involved long enough to ensure real change. Ruona (2000) found that HRD should approach problems with a system point of view- an understanding of the system and how the target of intervention is related to the other parts of the organization. One participant stressed that in system intervention, an HRD professional must tend to the dynamics of the system rather than to a specific individual. This emphasis concurs with the macro model to diversity initiatives and the use of organizational/ multicultural development principles to address change within the organization.

Training and Development in the Context of a Micro Model

Training and Development

Many adult educators and HRD practitioners who are involved in diversity initiatives typically deliver awareness programs that are superficial and neatly packaged in modules and practice guidelines. Schien (1992) proposes three levels of culture when evaluating awareness programs: the *artifacts* of that society (e.g. language, dress, fashion, art etc), the *values* (e.g. might is right etc.) and the *assumptions*, the lowest and most complex level, which are difficult to state. Current cultural awareness training still use various media to address, mainly the artifact level with superimposed perception/ "guesses" as to the meaning attributed to the lower levels based on third-party reports (Schien, 1992).

Wheeler (1995) believes that many companies have established diversity value statements, missions, and objectives, but have much of the real work is yet to be done. Thomas (1991) believes that managing diversity deals with the way organizations are managing, the way managers do their jobs. It is grounded in a very specific definition of "managing": creating an environment that allows the people being managed to reach their full potential. At is best, it means getting from employees not only everything you have a right to expect, but everything they have to offer. It is important to note that if diversity initiatives were rescued from the current backlash of affirmative action, fault assumptions, and stereotypes, it might be used as a vehicle for AE/HRD practitioners to truly understand and practice adult learning and development (Thomas, 1991).

Soft programs

Many organizations engaged in diversity efforts focus on the "soft" programs, such awareness training, mentoring, or other human resources initiatives (Butaine, 1994). These programs may help organizations make important gains involving increased recruitment, support, and advancement for women, and people of color and reeducation of white managers and elites (Chesler, 1994). But they do not tackle issues of domination and oppression (Chesler, 1994),

especially the role that cultural domination plays in privileging some and subordinating others (Guy, 1999).

AE/HRD practitioners may use training to manage or support diversity initiatives. However, these initiatives must be injected into the foundation or the roots of the organization in order to influence cultural change. This lends weight to the argument that training and development need to be integrated carefully with other people management activities within the organization in order to achieve evidence of cultural diversity.

Thomas (1991) emphasizes education rather than training. He asserts that education has to do with how we think about things; training involves ways of doing things. Training builds specific skills; education changes mindsets. Bulter (2001) believes that adult educators continually transgress the boundaries between education and training as they redefine themselves as trainers and engage in ever hybridizing, mutating pedagogical practices. Butler (2001) contends that the concept of trainability carries with it an understanding of an actor to be appropriately formed and reformed according to organizational contingencies.

Despite the focus of on learning, the concept of trainability continues to be vigorously promoted, with depoliticized, prepackaged vocationally orientated education that reach all spheres of education and training policy and practice, connecting macro policy/power dynamics with micro practices (Butler, 2001).

Organizational Development and Multicultural Organizational Development in the Context of a Macro Model

Organizational Development

Organizational development (OD) has said to emerge during the late 1960s and 1970s (French & Bell, 1978). As a discipline, it was seen as a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal process through collaborative management of organization culture with the assistance of change agents (French & Bell, 1978). OD is a broad and diverse field, and because it has been rooted partly in the academy, many texts, anthologies, and review articles have been written that espouse its primary assumptions, principles, and tactics of change making (Chesler, 1994). OD principles introduce planned change, involve the entire organization, increase organizational effectiveness and enhance organizational choice and self-renewal. Yet, despite these important attributes of OD, AE/HRD practitioners within the organization rarely approach diversity initiatives from a macro model Wheeler (1994) emphasizes that multiple elements are essential in the process of creating an environment that values diversity and that no single approach is sufficient.

The reason for a broad approach to diversity efforts is that the issues or drivers are too complex (Egan, 2001). However, Lewin's (1951) three stages of change--unfreeze, change, refreeze--reflect the essence of change that needed in today's organizations to enable and manage diversity initiatives. The three stages of change also enable organizations to confront fault assumptions and support ongoing change. Most important, the three stages of change reflect a clear goal is identified and cascaded down to the organization's members. This approach is more concerned with the attempt to move the locus of control towards an organizational/macro sense of accountability. Now, the question is, how should AE/HRD practitioners fully utilizing the basic elements of OD to manage and enable diversity initiatives? The answer will be discussed in the following section in the context of multicultural organizational development.

Multicultural organizational development

Organizational development is not the same as multicultural organizational development (MCOD). The area of organizational diversity is a dynamic one, whose meaning is constantly expanding, most of the existing research has focus on issues related to race, gender, and to a lesser extent, ethnicity (Chesler, 1994). The major tactics by organizational development specialist and organizational managers to achieve their goal of diversity include: Training and coaching, goal setting and planning, process consultation, survey feedback, technostructural intervention, team building, crisis intervention and quality of work-life programs (Chesler, 1994).

Conversely, multicultural organizational development specialists generally articulate an approach to organizational change that is frankly antiracist and antisexist (Chesler, 1994). Multiculturalism that is sought is not simply an acceptance of differences, nor a celebrative affirmation of the value of differences, but a reduction in the patterns of racial and gender oppression (racism and sexism) that predominate in most U.S. institutions and organizations (Chesler, 1994). A consensus-oriented approach to MCOD stresses the possibility of reform in racism, sexism, etc. However, programs such as understanding differences and valuing diversity, may help organizations make important gains involving increased recruitment, support, and advancement for women and people of color and reeducation of white managers and elites. But they do not tackle issues of domination and oppression. Therefore, organizational development - even organizational development that includes racism and sexism awareness programs does not equal multicultural organizational development (Chesler, 1994).

The tactics utilized by multicultural organizational developers include the necessity of challenging the culture and structure of white male oppression. Such a challenge can be mounted via the following tactics (Chesler, 1994): (a) Informing and updating white, male managerial cadres through awareness or bias-reduction training; (b) Creating new organizational mission statements and changing reward systems to punish or reward managers for their behavior regarding racism and sexism; (c) Changing human resource policies and programs to meet the needs of diverse populations; and (d) Creating an work atmosphere that welcomes change and equity, including whistle blowing, protests, and external agents. It is clear that MCOD utilizes some of the principles and many of the tactics of OD. However, other traditional OD principles and many other OD tactics are not shared; they even contravene one another (Chesler, 1994).

It is also clear from the literature that diversity initiatives can be implemented from multiple approaches (Chesler, 1994; Cox, 2001; Wheeler, 1994). These approaches can either be categorized as either micro or macro. To date, however, most diversity initiatives made explicit by AE/HRD practitioners tend to be of a micro approach in nature. Practitioners not only suggest a number of "micorremedies" to provide incentives for recruiting, hiring, and promoting minorities, but also insist on "macrosolutions" to realign structural relations within the organizations (Chesler, 1994).

Problematic Issues Relating to Diversity Initiatives

Implementation

Organizations are struggling with diversity management and the programs face resistance from the dominant group in our cultural (Cox, 2001). Cultural norms such a narrow definition of diversity, affirmative action baggage, unfamiliar approach in managing diversity program, and different beliefs and assumptions about diversity are problematic to the advancement of minorities in any organization. These problematic issues negatively impact the professional and advancement of minorities within the organization.

Evaluation

Evaluation and measurement of diversity efforts are challenging. In order to measure meaningful outcomes associated with diversity, diversity must be linked to performance and performance improvement (Egan, 2001). Egan indicates that using measurement to evaluate the effectiveness of diversity is complicated for the following reasons: diversity and performance are latent constructs, as is the concept of performance improvement related to diversity; these latent constructs have multiple attributes that may be confronted by other attributes such that they are not distinguishable; indicators may connect to multiple attributes; multiple indicators exist for each of the attributes; and, as supported by the definition of diversity, each situation being measured involves a unique combination of attributes. The difficulties involved with these issues along with the relative infancy of diversity efforts in organizations suggest the need for research that builds performance measurement theory and links it to practice.

Wheeler (1995) believes that measurable management objectives might include criteria such as demonstrated commitment to diversity through recruitment, interviewing, job assignments, and mentoring for women and minorities and people with disabilities; modeling of desired behavior; and active involvement in diversity education. However, one of the primary problems with diversity initiatives is that they are not clearly connected to business objectives (Wheeler, 1995).

Communication

Schein (1992) propose that once people have a common system of communication and language, learning can take place. The problem arises from the retardation of understanding and the underdevelopment of robust process of communication. Economic and demographic realities indicate that diversity is a business issue with both positive and negative consequences for the bottom line (Wheeler, 1995). It is evident that organizations need to evaluate diversity initiatives as they would any other item on their profit and loss statements.

Conclusion

The notion of adult education in a culturally diverse environment depends upon real efforts to manage and support diversity. It cannot be based on "quickie" training programs and one-shot solutions to achieving diversity. Diversity initiatives that have awareness training as their sole theme constitute to complacent acceptance of diversity within the organization. Although many organizations continue to use a micro and macro model to diversity independently, a configuration of these two models works together to enhance diversity. A multilevel relationship exits in organizations that have training and development, organizational development, and multicultural organizational development interventions and they often experience a meaningful diversity orientation. These elements represent key areas of adult education and human resource

development. Thus, all these elements must work in concert under the larger umbrella of diversity policy to maximize their effectiveness. This type of relationship evolves from the fact that diversity is a complex phenomenon that needs constant reinforcement (Richard, 2001).

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The Butter was Better:
A Preliminary Study of Nostalgia and Cuban American Identity

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Abstract: Nostalgia for pre-Communist Cuba was found to have an important influence on the identity of three American born Cuban Americans.

Three young adults born in the United States to Cuban parents described themselves: I am "first generation American, with Cuban heritage," I am "Cuban-American" and I am "second generation Cuban. My parents are actually the ones born in Cuba." These twenty-something residents of Miami, Florida are recent graduate students in education. Their responses provide a glimpse into the richness and complexity of Cuban/American cultural identity. There is a need for educators to better understand those who came to the US from Cuba, as well as to better understand people who are from other communities that identify themselves as exilic, diaspora communities.

Method

The interviews were conducted primarily in English, and were tape-recorded. Transcripts were shared with the participants. During the one to one and a half hour individual interviews, the researcher, whose background is in cultural studies and qualitative research, listened as Ernesto, Carla and Isabella (pseudonyms) recounted ways in which being part of Miami's Cuban exile community informed their sense of who they are. This research explored the patterns of differences and commonalties in the constructions of identity of these Miamians of Cuban heritage, focusing on the pain of experiencing "Paradise Lost"--a theme identified in previous research (Alvarez & Bliss, 2001).

Theoretical framework

Identity is understood as a psychosocial product influenced by external social factors interacting with needs of a psychological or internal nature (Erikson, 1950/1963). The concept of identity is interpreted as a dynamic, multidimensional, as well as integrative process that can serve to answer the basic question, "Who am I?" One's "identity from below" is always in negotiation with our "identity from above" as society supports or rejects this particular construction of who we are (West, 1992). Within these particular power relations, our affective needs to belong and be affirmed are met by our membership in groups. Individual and group identities are always intertwined.

Ethnic identity, such as Cuban, or Cuban American, is recognized to have both instrumental and ascribed elements establishing and crossing boundaries. It is often transnational. Individuals mobilize around *ethnic*, or group associations based on claims to a common heritage usually bound to a particular place, to help achieve aims, from basic survival to political and economic advancement. Specifically concerning the cultural identity of migrants from Cuba and their children, "these two states developed policies that, while seemingly at odds with each other, have had the mutual effect of fueling a Cuban *exile* identity and political culture in the United States" (Torres, 1999, p. 178). To be part of a group in exile today is to be an individual within a diaspora community.

Diaspora community is defined here as a group of people living outside what they consider to be their homeland. In 1991, William Safran identified six characteristics of diasporic communities, noting that the term has expanded from the original meaning. As he wrote: The Diaspora has long meant "the

exile of the Jews from their historic homeland and their dispersion throughout many lands, signifying as well the oppression and moral degradation implied by that dispersion" (p. 85). Now it is a "useful metaphoric designation for several categories of people – expatriates, expellees, political refugees, alien residents, immigrants, and ethnic and racial minorities..." (p. 85). My interpretation of data used these six characteristics written below in italics, with data from the study following each one.

Characteristics of Cuban American identity as reported by participants

1. *They or their ancestors have been dispersed from a specific, original center to two or more foreign regions.* Miami is one such region for Cuban Americans; the rest of the United States is considered another region. The former has sufficient numbers to differentiate it.

2. *They retain a collective memory, vision or myth of the homeland, including its physical location, history and achievements.* The participants spoke of the stories of family, and especially mothers as reinforcing a collective memory. Stories included specific trials and tribulations after the beginning of communism. The vision of Cuba as untarnished was reinforced with publicly and privately displayed photographs such as bucolic photos in a funeral parlor, photographic calendars inside kitchen cabinets and a "Cuba wall" used to display crafts and photos from Cuba. The myth of the homeland included how much better everything was there, even the butter. Remembering everything as better is one of the most complex and rich characteristics of the collective memory, partly because they are now able to visit the (Communist) homeland.

3. *They believe that they are not, and perhaps cannot be fully accepted by their host country.* The participants saw themselves as partly separate and insulated from Americans. Even Ernesto, who proudly identified himself as a first generation American, was planning to give future children his wife's non Hispanic last name, so that things would be easier for them in the United States. Overall, though it was the young women who more often mentioned the conflict, they felt about wanting that acceptance. Being American would grant them greater independence than the traditional Cuban family allowed. They often speak nostalgically about the closeness of the Cuban family. Torres points out, "Nostalgia helps create a collective sense of identity and helps ease the pain of loss" (1999, p. 38) while helping to challenge efforts by the host country to erase the exile community's connections to its home country and the host country's "ambivalent acceptance of the group" (p. 38).

4. *They believe that they should collectively be involved in trying to help restore their homeland to a position of safety and prosperity.* Participants saw themselves as wanting the restoration of Cuba. Two were concerned that traveling to Cuba supported the present regime financially and emotionally, and therefore hindered this restoration. The participants also, unprompted, brought up supporting Elian Gonzales's staying in the United States as a move that would be both beneficial to Elian and detrimental to the Cuban status quo.

5. *They regard their ancestral homeland as their true, ideal home and the place for eventual return when conditions are right.* None of the participants spoke about going to live in Cuba. The desire, instead, seemed to be to visit Cuba, and perhaps to maintain a second home there. They wanted to be re-connected with family still there and to see where they came from. However, it was not their ideal home, even though it had often been their parents'. The "myth of returning" seems to be transmuting into a generalized emotional attachment to the ancestral homeland.

6. *They continue to relate, personally or vicariously, to that homeland. Diasporic community solidarity is defined by that relationship, rather than by building lives in the new place. The new place is a host, not a home.* In contrast, the participants relate closely to Cuba, while asserting that they <u>are</u> at home in the United States. They resist defining themselves in ways that force them into a "dichotomized identity" (Torres, 1999, p.186). Ernesto's "head" may be norteamericano, but his

"blood" and his "heart" are Cuban. And yet, he is not Cuban. He cannot "go back" to Cuba, because he has never been there. His American mind realizes all this, and is saddened.

Ernesto

Ernesto spoke at length about his struggle with the burdens of exilic memory. Ernesto, that "first generation American with Cuban heritage" did not want to be identified in first grade as one of those kids who lived in a home where a language other than English was spoken. While he resisted being identified this way because it seemed somewhat unAmerican, he also told several stories to emphasize the importance of Americans remembering their heritage saying:

> Look, I remember my heritage. Maybe you bunch of Americans don't. Maybe you bunch of Americans forget that maybe three generations ago somebody came from Poland, hungry as a dog. And now that you consider yourselves, "Americans", you've got to remember your heritage. I mean, look at the Cubans. They're your great-grandparents. From another country, but you've got to look at it.

At the same time he urges each American to "remember your heritage," he reports that he wants to put his Cuban heritage at a distance from him because it is too painful to keep close.

> It's too painful to go there [Cuba]. Because, (pause) es difícil, it's hard, because if I go there, what do I have? What sense of identity do I have? Zero. . . . for example, my fiancée, she's American. She's fourth generation, or fifth generation American. She's got German blood in her, Irish, Scandinavian. What I've told her before; you can get a passport and go to Germany and do your family roots in Germany, in peace. . . . You can walk whatever is left of the cobblestones of where your great-grandparents lived – or whatever, six or seven generations back. You can go to Scandinavia . . .and . . . to Ireland and see what of your roots are there. And without any shame to your parents. Without any shame looking at your parents.

Why does Ernesto feel such shame <u>to</u> his parents? To visit Communist Cuba would be to spit in the face of "a couple of old people who love you very much" who had once lived in Paradise. He would be supporting those who had destroyed that Paradise and caused them to be expelled. He also talked about the shame <u>of</u> his parents. They are part of the Cuban people, and the Cuban people turned on each other and destroyed the good and lawful society they had created. He is "chained" to a heritage that is itself "in chains." He longs to visit Cuba, to see where his heritage is based, but he dares not. He longs to be American, living away from Miami, released of his burden of memory, but he dares not. His sense of nostalgia for paradise holds him fast.

Nostalgia is similar to homesickness. Jacoby (1980) points out that *nostalgia's* Greek roots are "nostos" - the return home and "algos" – pain. It is the longing for an idealized past; a past characterized by wholeness, security and harmony. It is longing for an intact "unitary reality" (p.5) that has quite possibly never really been experienced, although the experience of nostalgia is often expressed as one of memory. It is human to long for such a paradisiacal experience. One is more likely to feel homesickness for such a place when one does not feel at home, of course. Jacoby's Jungian analysis emphasizes the longing for the "pre – ego" time when each one of us was "at home" in primal relationship with our mother; when we experienced harmony between our inner wishes and our outer reality. Although he cannot let go of his parents' memories, Ernesto does not envision a time when he might be at home and experience the harmony his parents once did in Cuba.

Torres points out that an emphasis on memory is often a "central force in creating a diasporic identity" (1999, p. 38). Connecting this to nostalgic memories, she continues, "Myths about the past and the future play a powerful role. Memory, remembering and re-creating become individual and collective rituals" (p. 38). Ernesto and the others have learned the myth of Cuba-of-the-past as Paradise by numerous family rituals. They told us about the stories, WQBA, (a Cuban-centered local radio station) the dinnertime discussions, the adult conversations overheard, the Cuba wall, etc.

Ernesto both embraces this nostalgia, and detaches himself from it. It is too painful to "survive mentally" if he thinks too much about how much his beloved parents and grandparents suffered when paradise fell into lawless ignorance – at the hands of "a bunch of idiots" who had no love of Cuba and no real concept of its laws or government. His shame is that he too is Cuban and that he was neither able to protect his family nor Cuba. This is the heritage with which he struggles. He cannot forget his heritage, but it is a heritage that brings him pain. He carries the "baggage" of a history "of Cubans treating Cubans in a negative way." "When you know everything that happened," it's hard to "stand up and say, 'I'm Cuban' " with pride.

Before this happened, Cuba was a third world country systematically developing into a first world country. Progress toward this goal was stopped, like a river being dammed. Jacoby (1980) suggests that in literature and scripture, paradise has been portrayed as a secure enclosed garden or as an island. For Americanized, progress oriented Ernesto, however, it was a river. He feels that only when those of Cuban heritage become more assimilated into the American society and power structure will they have the power to change American policy to tear down that dam and help restore the pristine, free flowing "Rio Cuba."

Carla

Carla sees herself as an American born "second generation Cuban." Growing up, she learned about a Cuba that was more harmonious than anything experienced by her family in the US. She said:

> My family has always described the way of life that they had there. They would talk about how, like the neighborhoods were smaller and the whole sense of community that they don't have here; like the neighbors all knew each other and things like that. All the families knew each other. Whenever [there were] birthdays, it was like the whole family of everybody went. You know, it's not really like that here – birthday parties are just for the kids or whatever. The family of the children are not really invited.

It was a community-oriented place where everybody knew each other. Carla has also grown up hearing about the more rural, self-sufficient life of her mother. It was a more natural, admirable lifestyle. In many ways it was closer to perfection than life in Miami.

> Of course they talk about the land. My mom lived more towards the country so she would talk about that more, that they got their own things. Like at breakfast time, sometimes she always talks about the butter. She says that the butter here doesn't taste the same as they used to make the butter themselves, with the cream--and that it's different... The impression I got from my mom make it seem more country, more serene, less city-like, like how it is here in Miami...The butter was better. It was pure and it was white, because it hadn't had the color added to it, like they do here when they sell it.

In talking about the closer families there, she said that her mother,

> [F]elt like there was more family involvement. Here, she sees it more like kids, once they get to a certain age, they already kind of have their own life and you don't really know and she says that when she grew up, she says it was just like, that the parents were always involved in everything. They knew. And here, it's kind of like once the kids get to a certain age, the parents are not welcome or something – and that it wasn't like that over there.

Carla and her mother lament the abnormality of life in Cuba now. As long as Fidel is in power, people will not have the opportunities they deserve for a normal, happy life. Like Ernesto, she would feel guilty if she were to visit Cuba now. Like him she also feels resentful that "the situation" and her family's beliefs/values prevents her from visiting. She doesn't even think that it would be a good idea for her mother to visit now.

> It would hurt her to see everything different from how she left it. I guess maybe she wants to look back on it in that like perfect way that she sees it and if she goes back it will probably ruin that for her. I guess that the only thing she has is that memory.

By acknowledging the strength of a memory of perfection that never existed, Carla thus acknowledges the nostalgia that has such a strong hold on her.

Isabella

Isabella, the Cuban American, has visited Cuba. Her parents are not as unitary in their viewpoint as either Carla's or Ernesto's. While her father entreated her not to visit Cuba, telling her that she would be "a traitor" if she went, her mother, the creator of the Cuba Wall accompanied her. She feels guilty about going against her father's wishes. Isabella's view of Cuba is focused on her family, both in Florida and Cuba. She envisions a time when political differences are put aside, and families are mended. She reminisced:

> I went there and I didn't (sigh)... I wanted to be so biased. I didn't want to be involved in the... I didn't ask too many questions, I didn't... I was just there to enjoy myself, to meet the family I that I had not met, which is my uncle on my mom's side of the family. I know that he never left Cuba. I know that he didn't try to leave Cuba. He's still not wanting to come over here. The exact reasons I don't know why. And I didn't care to ask. I just wanted to meet *my uncle*. I didn't want to know or understand why he wasn't coming over or what his reasons were because I think throughout the periods they change.

She was raised to know that, "Cuba is the best place on earth and Fidel is an SOB for taking it away from them [Cubans], basically." She knew that "there's nothing positive about him or his regime or anything that has to do with him." Her mother has shared many stories about "how wonderful her life was in Cuba" before Castro. Perhaps it is more than Castro who is the snake in the grass in this view of Cuba, because Miamians have rejected her observations that Cuba is still beautiful. The Cuban community in Miami was "insulted" by both mother and daughter's stories about their recent positive experiences in Cuba. Isabella imagines the paradise that could be Cuba – a place where people have the material resources they need and can reunite with family members who are now separated by politics. It is painful for her to even consider herself knowledgeable about politics, despite its

importance to her boyfriend, her family and her community. She looks both back and forward to a harmonious time when politics did not split people apart.

The pain she feels now is three-fold. It is painful to her, not only to go against her father's wishes in order to get closer to her Cuban heritage and family but also because her family members have suffered so much by being on different political sides. They have suffered separation. Her grandmother had to leave "her son, her only son" behind in Cuba when she came with her daughters. Echoing Ernesto and Carla she said, "We love our parents and we feel their pain." The third part is her "personal pain" at the physical separation between her and her Cuban relatives she has grown to love. In response to a question about the role Cuba plays in her life now, Isabella brought up the image of Cuba being the "forbidden fruit" that she has sampled, and thus betrayed her father. Traditional biblical interpretation as well as a Jungian one interprets that fruit as the knowledge of difference – and with this knowledge, paradise is forfeited. It is a helpful metaphor to pursue here.

Forbidden fruit

On one level, Ernesto, Carla and Isabella seem to consider personal knowledge of Cuba (from their being there) to be forbidden fruit. For Isabella, part of this is asserting to her boyfriend, father (and others) that she is truly knowledgeable about the "politics" that's such an important part of Cuban and Cuban American identity. Perhaps her desire to have personal knowledge, to make up her own mind from her own experiences is an example of what she has learned to value while growing up in the US.

On a deeper level, perhaps this internalization of American values is the forbidden fruit for the three of them. Despite expressing a desire to pass on close Cuban family values, Carla does not want to prevent her [hypothetical] future daughter from going away to college and Ernesto wants his future children to take his American fiancée's name. Neither he nor Isabella wants to pass along their pain to another generation. Excluded from their parents' paradise, they feel both sadness, pain and a desire to close the gap; to be redeemed. But to live a life of wholeness is to move forward, not back to "the good old days" that never were.

Paradise past and future

Those who are undertaking this movement and those people who share their lives if not their cultural identities, might take note of the fact that paradise can potentially be both past and future. In both Jewish and Christian traditions, paradise is possible again in human experience.

Being courageous, humble and working to make a more just world are some of the paths to the balance, peace and harmony that characterize paradise. As this research goes forward, this understanding will ground the researcher's quest to better understand these young people. A better understanding of their struggles for a sense of wholeness in their cultural identity is essential in order to better teach them, help them settle conflicts and with them, to move forward and build a sense of community in South Florida.

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An Investigation of Narration Rates for the Reading While Listening Strategy

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Abstract: This study investigated the effects of Reading While Listening narration rates on elementary students' comprehension. Slow, normal and sentence interval narration rates were used. Results showed higher comprehension scores with the slow narration rate for students with low reading levels, and normal rate for high and medium level readers

Reading while listening (RWL) is an instructional strategy in which children associate unfamiliar printed words with their corresponding spoken words (Bergman, 1999). In the RWL strategy, a more capable reader orally reads a text while the child follows along reading silently. From a Vygotskian perspective, children need an adult or someone more knowledgeable who plans and guides their literacy learning by adjusting the amount and type of mediational support provided (Dixon-Krauss, 1996). The mediational support used in the RWL strategy includes a model of fluent adult reading combined with a narration rate appropriate for the developing young reader. The study reported here examined how adjusting the narration rate used in the RWL strategy affects children's text comprehension.

Literature Review

Reading while simultaneously listening to text has been a common practice for over 25 years, and a few studies indicated that reading along with audiotapes improves scores on reading achievement tests (Schneeberg, 1977). Van der Leji (1981) noted that the RWL technique supplies children with a model of a reading "end product." From this model, children can derive both phonetic rules (Carbo, 1978) and the correct pronunciation of irregular words (Reitsma, 1988). The model also enables developing readers to shift their attention from the effort of reading individual words to the task of comprehending.

Other investigations focused on problems associated with the narration rate used in the RWL strategy. Some children appeared not to benefit from RWL when the narration rate used is faster than the children's own reading rates. Repeated RWL did not improve fluency or accuracy any more than did repeated silent reading (Rasinski, 1990), and reading aloud and silent reading resulted in better comprehension than RWL (Holmes & Allison, 1985). When children could not follow the narration, they were unable to make the connection between the graphemes they see and the phonemes they hear (McMahon, 1983). In contrast, slowing down the narration too much also resulted in comprehension problems that may be due to the limited capacity of young children's short-term memories (Breznitz & Share, 1992). Bergman (1999) reported that for young children, reading with a narration rate they selected was "easier" and "more fun" than undertaking RWL with a fixed rate. In summary, the question of how to appropriately adjust the narration rate for developing readers with various reading abilities remains uncertain.

Research Hypotheses

The following two research hypotheses were examined in this study to address the question of appropriate RWL narration rate adjustments: (a) there is a difference on developing readers' RWL comprehension scores based on narration rates used, and (b) there is a difference in RWL comprehension scores for readers with various levels of reading abilities.

Method

Subjects

Twenty-five Korean-American students were randomly selected from the first to fifth grade students in a Korean school in South Florida. Five of the selected children were not included in this study: three were too restless to finish the task and two children were eliminated due to experimental error. The final sample included twenty children, eleven boys and nine girls, who successfully finished all of the treatment.

Instruments

The following tools were developed for testing children's reading comprehension levels and RWL comprehension.

Reading Comprehension Level Test. A Reading Comprehension Level Test, *It's Fun to Learn Korean* (SSKS, 1991), was used to classify children into three reading comprehension achievement levels. The test consisted of 4 passages, sequenced by difficulty, with 10 accompanying comprehension questions, for a total score of 40. Subjects with scores of 1 to 20 were assigned to low, 21-30 to medium, and 31-40 to high reading comprehension levels.

RWL Passage Test. Six RWL story passages with accompanying comprehension questions were used to measure students' RWL comprehension. The six story passages of approximately 250 words in length were audiotaped. Two story passages were taped at each of the three narration rates: slow rate (65 words per minute), normal rate (80 wpm), and interval rate (80 wpm with five-second interval between sentences). For each passage, ten multiple-choice items were developed to include literal, critical and implied comprehension questions.

Design and Procedures

The experimental design used in this study was a one between–one within group design with the RWL narration rate integrated into the design. Students at each reading comprehension level (low, medium, high) were randomly assigned to story 1 or story 2 for the slow, story 3 or story 4 for the interval, and story 5 or story 6 for the normal narration rates, resulting in three RWL Passage Test scores per subject.

The study was conducted for a period of four weeks in the fall. All tests and treatment were administered to students individually in two sessions conducted by their classroom teachers. In the first session, the Reading Comprehension Level Test was administered with students receiving no feedback about their reading speed or accuracy of responses. Then in the second session, each student completed one RWL Passage Test at the slow, one at the normal, and one at the interval narration rate.

Results

A one between–one within group ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effect of narration rates on RWL comprehension for students with high, medium and low reading levels. Because the narration rates of the stories can change the dependent variable, RWL comprehension scores, the story narration rate was integrated into the experimental design and then the effects of the

different stories on the dependent variable were removed. The between group factors were narration rates with three levels (slow, normal, and interval) and within group factors were reading comprehension levels (low, medium, and high). The RWL mean scores were reported in Table 1. The dependent variable RWL comprehension mean scores ranged from 2.75 to 8.50.

Table 1. *Means and Standard Deviation for Listening Comprehension Scores*

			Narration Rates						Total
			Slow		Interval		Normal		
			Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4	Story 5	Story 6	
Reading Levels	Low	Mean	7.00	6.00	5.33	4.25	3.00	2.75	4.67
		SD	1.00	1.41	2.08	1.96	1.00	.50	1.88
		N	3	4	3	4	3	4	21
	Medium	Mean	6.33	7.00	6.00	5.67	5.33	5.00	5.89
		SD	1.53	1.00	.00	.58	.58	1.00	1.02
		N	3	3	3	3	3	3	18
	High	Mean	8.20	8.50	7.80	8.00	7.40	8.50	7.95
		SD	1.30	.71	1.10	1.41	1.82	.71	1.24
		N	5	2	5	2	5	2	21
	Total	Mean	7.36	6.89	6.64	5.56	5.64	4.78	6.18
		SD	1.43	1.45	1.63	1.74	2.29	2.44	2.00
		N	11	9	11	9	11	9	60

The results of the ANOVA indicated a significant main effect for RWL narration rates, $F(2, 3) = 21.64$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .51$ and for reading levels, $F(2, 6) = 52.48$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .40$. There was also a significant interaction effect between narration rates and reading levels, $F(4, 6) = 3.08$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .70$. Because the interaction between narration rates and reading levels was significant, the differences among RWL narration rates for the three different reading levels were examined separately. To control for type I error across the three simple main effects, $\alpha = 0.017$ (0.05/3) was set. The results shown in Table 2 indicated differences in RWL narration rate for the low reading level, $F(2, 6) = 9.94$, $p < .0017$, but there were no significant differences for the middle, $F(2, 6) = 1.48$, $p = .300$, and for the high reading levels, $F(2, 6) = .39$, $p = .691$.

Table 2. *Simple Main Effect for Narration Rates Within Reading Comprehension Levels*

Source	*SS*	*Df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Rates within Low	45.48	2	22.74	9.94*	.012
Rates within Medium	6.78	2	3.39	1.48	.300
Rates within High	1.80	2	.90	.39	.691
Error	13.72	6	2.29		

Note. $^*p < .017$

The Bonferroni method was conducted to evaluate the three pairwise differences among the means for low reading level, with alpha set at .006 (0.017/3) to control for type I error over the three pairwise comparisons. One of these three comparisons was significant: the comparison associated with the slow and normal narration rate. The slow speed narration rate ($M = 6.43$) had significantly higher comprehension scores than the normal rate ($M = 2.86$) for the low reading level. But there were no significant differences between the interval ($M = 4.71$) and the normal ($M = 2.86$) and between the slow and interval for the low reading level. Students at the low reading level scored higher with the slow RWL rate than they did with the normal or interval rates.

Because the interaction between RWL narration rates and reading levels was significant, the simple main effect of reading levels was examined--that is, the difference among different reading levels within three different narration rates on RWL comprehension. To control for type I error across the three simple main effects α=0.017 (0.05/3) was set. The results shown in Table 3 indicate that differences for the normal narration rate, $F(2,6) = 26.35$, $p < .0017$, but there were no significant differences for the slow, $F(2,6) = 2.50$, $p = .162$, and for the interval, $F(2,6) = 8.74$, $p = .027$.

Table 3. *The Simple Main Effect for Reading Levels Within Narration Rates*

Source	*SS*	*Df*	*MS*	*F*	*P*
Read within Slow Rate	7.46	2	3.73	2.50	.162
Read within Interval Rate	26.06	2	13.03	8.74	.027
Read within Normal Rate	78.58	2	39.29	26.35*	.001
Error	8.95	6	1.49		

Note. $*p < .017$

The Bonferroni method was conducted to evaluate the three pairwise differences among the mean for the normal narration rates, with alpha set at 0.006 (0.017/3) to control for type I error over the three pairwise comparisons. All of these three comparisons were significant. The high reading level ($M = 7.71$) had significantly higher RWL comprehension scores than the medium ($M = 5.17$) and low ($M = 2.86$)) levels with the normal narration rate, and the medium reading level ($M = 5.17$) had significantly higher RWL comprehension scores than the low reading level ($M = 2.86$).

Conclusions/ Implications

The major findings of this study showed the narration rates and reading ability levels affected children's RWL comprehension abilities. Also, for students with low reading levels, slowing RWL narration rate was more effective in promoting comprehension than a normal narration rate. But medium or high reading level students had the same comprehension regardless of the narration rate used. Similar to previous findings, the results of this study showed that slowing the narration rate can be beneficial to the children's comprehension, and the lower level readers seemed to have profited more from control over the narration rate than did the other readers (Bergman 1999; Carbo, 1988; Reitsma, 1988).

Compared to other narration rates, all three reading level groups had the highest score when they listened to the slow narration rates. The study also showed that there were no significant difference between normal narration rates and interval rates. This finding was consistent with other studies. Bergman (1999) suggested that reading with a narration rate they chose was "easier" for students than undertaking RWL with a fixed rate. McMahon (1983) also reported that the reason some children appear not to benefit from RWL was that the narration rate used was generally significantly faster than the children's own reading rates. Findings from this study indicate that that the important factor related to the children's reading comprehension was not the interval between the sentences but the speed of whole stories.

These findings lead to the conclusion that the narration rate used in RWL must be selected to match children's level reading abilities. Further investigation is needed using repeated reading while listening activities with students of varying reading ability levels. In addition, the study's results suggest that the software of talking books or stories should focus on narration rates that are appropriate for the children's levels of reading ability. The software publishers, reading educators, and education policy makers also need to work together in taking on the challenge of exploiting the promise of new technologies for improving children's reading comprehension.

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The Effect of Incorporating Math Skills into Physical Education Classes on Math Achievement of Second Grade Elementary Students

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Abstract: The effect of embedding math skills into physical education lessons on math achievement of second grade students in two classes was investigated. There were no statistical differences between the experimental (PE/Math) group and the control group. However, practical observations indicated more research is needed in this area.

Two important objectives of most quality physical education programs are to promote individual fitness and to develop motor skills through movement activities. Because young children enjoy moving and playing games, most elementary students look forward to participating in physical education classes. Unfortunately and quite often, physical education is thought of as a periphery subject within educational settings. That is, many school administrators, classroom teachers and parents do not consider physical education an essential part of the academic curriculum. This notion is prevalent throughout educational systems for two related reasons. First, many individuals do not appreciate the value of what children are being taught in the gymnasium and as a result, perceive physical education as an extended recess or recreational period. The second reason is that integrated lesson planning between classroom and physical education teachers typically occurs at a minimum, if at all. This, in turn, limits the knowledge of teachers as to what occurs in various instructional settings and across academic areas.

Physical education programs are valuable to the holistic development of children because learning outcomes occur within several domains. In addition to addressing psychomotor objectives by developing fitness and sport skills, many elementary physical education curriculums within the United States contain learning experiences geared at facilitating the cognitive development of children. This is accomplished in part through perceptual motor activities. Perceptual motor activities are movement-based and focus on developing balance, spatial, temporal, directional and body awareness within individuals. These types of activities are believed to augment the cognitive and academic development of younger students (Payne & Isaacs, 1999). Although the cognitive and academic benefits of participating in perceptual motor programs have been debated in the related literature, they do serve as a mechanism through which academic subjects can be taught to children in a motivating manner (Gallahue & Ozmun, 1998; Payne & Isaacs, 1999). To do this, however, integrative lesson planning between classroom and physical education teachers is needed.

Integrative and cooperative lesson planning between teachers is gaining popularity within educational environments because of the professional and emotional benefits teachers derive from this practice. The instructional energy of teachers is often enhanced when teachers are connected with their colleagues professionally as well as emotionally (Graves, 2001). Interactions between teachers create natural social support networks and environments conducive to collaborative planning. In many instances, however, connections between physical education and classroom teachers are difficult to initiate and maintain because of the locations of their planning and instructional settings. Another obstacle to integrative planning between the

classroom and physical education teacher is that the connections between subject areas are not overtly noticeable. This may be due, in part, to differences in learning environments (i.e., open vs. closed). What many teachers do not realize is that teaching methods and instructional strategies are similar across content areas and instructional settings (Graham, Holt-Hale, & Parker, 2001; Pangrazi, 2000). Given that motor performance variables have been shown to be related to the academic abilities of elementary school students (Harris & Jones, 1982), barriers to integrative planning between elementary classroom and physical education teachers must be overcome to promote holistic student learning.

Learning is most enjoyable when it is fun for the students. In some instances, the joy of learning is lost when learners do not find the content meaningful. Creating meaningful and stimulating learning environments remains a challenge to many teachers, especially those in mathematics (Kajander, 1999). Teachers may forget that young children learn most effectively through the kinesthetic modality. Quite often, teachers use very structured organizational formats to maintain appropriate "indoor" student behaviors and choose instructional formats that include sedentary, independent or small group learning formats rather than movement-oriented and play-like arrangements (Corso, 1999).

The best teachers teach largely through playing purposefully with children (Greenberg, 1993). Academic areas such as math, reading and social studies can be taught to children in an enjoyable manner utilizing movements and games (Gallahue & Ozmun, 1998; Payne & Isaacs, 1999). Play and other movement activities that require children to make use of age-appropriate cognitive processes serve to strengthen those processes within the children (Lee, Silverman & Montoya, 2002; Pasnak, 1999). Moreover and specific to this study, experts in teaching mathematics encourage others in the field to employ strategies that make math physical (Moss, 1997). This type of learning strategy and related instructional strategies are readily found in developmentally appropriate physical education curriculums (Graham, Holt-Hale, & Parker, 2001; Pangrazi, 2000).

During physical education classes, students are presented with many activities where math concepts can be applied. For example, students are often asked by their physical education teachers to divide themselves evenly into groups, find the area of a basketball court or compute their gains or losses on fitness tests. Play, fitness and movement activities such as modified sport games enable children to exercise and develop cognitive processes in a way that is exciting (Weininger & Daniel, 1992). As promising as this may sound to most educators, few studies have focused on embedding classroom subject areas into the physical education curriculum. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the effect of incorporating math skills into physical education classes on the math achievement of second grade students.

Methods

Participants

Two cluster second grade classes from a public elementary school were selected to participate in this study. Each class consisted of 28 students heterogeneously grouped by reading level.

Procedure

The math teachers of the two classes participating in this study developed pre and post-instructional math tests specifically for this investigation. These tests consisted of math

concepts, questions, and problems that paralleled the math portion of the standardized achievement test used by the state of Florida, the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT). The pre and post tests each consisted of 20 math problems covering addition, subtraction, charting and symmetry. Students were allowed 45 minutes to complete each test. No significant differences were found between the pre-instructional math test scores of the two second grade classes (PE/Math: M = 13.81; Control: M = 13.62).

The duration of this investigation was four weeks. Following the pre-instructional math test, each class received math instruction for one hour every day and met for physical education two times each week for 30 minutes. Instruction in math and physical education classes were similar for each class of second graders. Each class participated in comparable physical education activities, which included cooperative games, fitness experiences, sport skill instruction and activities and rhythm movements. The only observable difference in the physical education instruction between the two classes was that math concepts were incorporated into the lessons of the PE/Math class. For example, the physical education teacher would ask the students in the PE/Math class to get into four equal groups. If the groups were not equal, the teacher would ask the students to determine the difference between groups. Unlike the PE/Math class, the physical education teacher would assign students to groups in the Control class. Florida's educational objectives, the Sunshine State Standards, for math and physical education were incorporated into the lessons plans for the PE/Math class. Examples of lesson objectives for the PE/Math class are located within the Appendix.

Following the four week instructional period, the post-instructional math test was administered to the two classes.

Results and Discussion

There were no statistical differences between the two classes (PE/Math: M = 15.23; Control = M = 14.10). However, some outcomes of practical importance were revealed. First, the two classroom math teachers were not teaching their classes in parallel with the physical education teacher and therefore, the math concepts were not reinforced and practiced in the math class and physical education class simultaneously. In fact, when one math teacher introduced the concept of symmetry to her class, she was surprised that her students already knew what it was because they had been introduced to it previously in their physical education class.

More collaboration in planning across the elementary school curriculum was needed on an ongoing basis. In addition to unit planning, teachers need to discuss learning objectives continually, with emphasis placed on the present progress of students. This practice will provide a better opportunity for teachers across subject areas to reinforce or modify learning objectives to the needs of the students. Furthermore, more research in this area is needed to ascertain the true effects of collaborative planning and embedding academic areas within physical education lessons. This study lasted for a short period of time. Students participated in only 8 physical education lessons in which math concepts were embedded. Perhaps a study maintained over the course of a semester, or a complete school year would have yielded more favorable results.

One natural outcome of this study is that students in both physical education classes had fun. As mentioned previously, learners best understand concepts if they are presented in meaningful and enjoyable contexts. Physical education classes and activities provide a wonderful framework to explore new concepts from areas of the educational curriculum, and teachers across disciplines must work collectively and collaboratively to make sure this occurs.

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Appendix

Lesson Plan Examples (with Florida Sunshine State Standards)

Unit Focus: Free-Throws & Fractions.

Students will:

- Know how to demonstrate functional patterns of shooting a basketball (PE.A.1.2.3)
- Know the proper techniques for shooting a basketball (PE.A.1.2.3.)
- Solve problems involving fractions and percents, using the most appropriate representation of a number for a given circumstance (MA.A.3.2.3)
- Relate percents to fractions and decimals and justify the reasoning (MA.A.1.2.4)

During a basketball shooting lesson, students can focus on both the motor skills as well as their cognitive skills. Have students use the proper technique for shooting free throws. Give each student ten tries and ask them to record how many successful baskets they make. Use ten at the beginning to make it easier for the students to understand. Have the students record their results in a fraction form. For example, if a student made 4 baskets out of ten, he or she would record 4/10. Have the students simplify the fraction. You can also teach them how to convert it to a percentage. The student made 40% of his/her baskets. You can extend the lesson by having the student figure out what percentage he/she missed.

Unit Focus: Throwing and Measuring.

Students will:

- Know various techniques for throwing different objects (PE.A.1.2.1.)
- Recognize the proper techniques of performing an overhand throw (PE.A.2.2.1.)
- Know the reason that appropriate practice improves performance (PE.A.2.2.3.)
- Verify estimated measures for length (MA.B.4.2.2.)

When working on throwing and catching, you can have the students measure the distance. Give each group of students a measuring tape. As the student throws the ball into an open field, another student will focus on where the ball lands. As a group, they measure the distance of their throw.

Unit Focus: Relay Races and Math Equations.

Students will:

- Define track and field terms and identify the events (PE.A.1.2.4)
- Run while placing the baton in the hand of an already moving receiver (PE.A.2.1.5)
- Exhibit good sportsmanship (PE.C.1.1.1)
- Explain the difference between sprint, relay, and distance races (PE.A.1.2.4 & MA.B.1.1.1)
- Use mental math to find sums (MA.A.3.1.2)

When working on relay races rather than just running and coming back to tag the next person, have the students pick up cards with math equations and cards with the answers. When all the students have picked up a card, they must now get together and match the questions to the answers. The team to complete it first wins the race. This gives a fair opportunity for both students who are physically fast and students who can mentally answer questions fast.

The Effect of Sportspersonship Instruction on the Behaviors Of Second Grade Physical Education Students

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Abstract: The effect of sportspersonship instruction on the behaviors of second grade physical education students was examined. Instruction consisted of defining sportspersonship focus words, modifying the words into target behaviors, modeling the behaviors, and reinforcing the behaviors. Results revealed that students from two intact classes improved their behaviors.

Over the past decade, the written and unwritten rules of sport and the personal attributes of sport and physical activity participants and coaches have changed dramatically. There are more females participating in sport and physical activities than ever before and as a result, sport terminology has appropriately been modified to include members of both sexes (Weinberg & Gould, 1999). A *first baseman* is now referred to as a *first baseperson*, *man-to-man defense* is called *person-to-person defense*, and *sportsmanship behaviors* are discussed as *sportspersonship behaviors.*

Today, there are more opportunities for children and adolescents to participate in sport and physical activity programs. It is estimated that 20-35 million children participate in after school programs in the United States (Ewing, Seefeldt & Brown, 1996). Many children begin their sport involvement prior to their seventh birthday and continue participating well through their adolescence and into adulthood. Regardless of their age, however, most sport and physical activity participants are involved because it is fun and it provides them with many opportunities for social interactions (Cote & Hay, 2002).

Historically, educators and parents have argued that sports, physical activities and physical education classes have positively enhanced the holistic development of children, particularly in the areas of social and character development (Smoll & Smith, 1996). Sportspersonship behaviors have typically developed out of participating in competitive and cooperative activities in sport and physical education classes. Recently however, many observations of inappropriate and dangerous behaviors have been witnessed on the playing fields, within the gymnasiums, and in the stands. Some researchers (e.g., Nixon & Frey, 1996) have suggested that displays of social and sport-related deviance have erupted in parallel with the changing values of society, while others (e.g., Smoll & Smith, 1996) contend that the unparalleled growth in opportunities for individuals to participate in sport and coeducational physical education classes has resulted in a shortage of qualified coaches and teachers. Regardless of the argument, formal instruction in sportspersonship is needed in sport and physical education environments.

There are several theoretical methods and practical strategies that can be used to teach or modify behaviors. Weinberg and Gould (1999) have suggested that three of these approaches may be specifically applied in sport and physical education settings. The first approach is a social learning approach. Social learning theory suggests that attitudes and behaviors are learned through modeling, reinforcement and social comparison (Bandura, 1977). Children observe and try to imitate the behaviors of role models and significant others through play or within structured environments such as a youth sport setting. The children are reinforced by others, directly or indirectly to maintain their behaviors.

The next method of examining and teaching sportspersonship behaviors is called the structural-developmental approach. The structural-developmental approach proposes that moral reasoning and behaviors (i.e., sportspersonship behaviors) are conditionally based on the cognitive level of the individual (Weiss & Bredemeier, 1991). As a consequence, younger children or less developed individuals may have more difficulty independently determining appropriate behaviors than older children or adults.

The third approach used to examine sportspersonship is termed the social psychological approach. This approach considers the developmental level of the participant, social learning theory, the type of sport being played, and the skill level of the participant (Vallerand, Deshaies, Cuerrier, Briere, & Pelletier, 1997). The social psychological approach suggests that sportspersonship behaviors must be defined specifically by the activity and with regard to the characteristics of the participants. This becomes a complicated task for physical education teachers and youth sport coaches in urban, multicultural environments because appropriate social and sport behaviors differ between cultures.

Sportspersonship and sport-appropriate behaviors vary between sport and physical activities. That is, behaviors deemed "within the behavioral rules" in one sport might be viewed as "deviant" or unsportsperson-like in another. Moreover, it is debatable whether young children have the capacity to understand the differences and appropriateness between sport behaviors in the professional or "big leagues" and sport behaviors in the "little leagues." These behavior issues are complicated even more when the coaches and teachers of children and youth do not know or understand the differences.

Because there is not a universally accepted definition of sportspersonship (Weinberg & Gould, 1999), appropriate behaviors must be specifically identified, modeled and reinforced for each activity so that the participants know what behaviors are appropriate and expected. To create safe environments and facilitate the enjoyment among the participants, educators and coaches must define and teach children appropriate sport and social behaviors. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the effects of sportspersonship instruction on the social and sport behaviors of second grade physical education students.

Methods

Participants

Participants consisted of 53 second graders from two intact classes in an urban, multicultural elementary school. Many of these students had behavior and learning disabilities.

Procedure

Focus words relating to sportspersonship and deemed appropriate for second graders based on their cognitive and motor skill levels and selected program activities were identified and then modified into target behaviors. The focus words included sportspersonship, honesty, communication, teamwork and compromise. The instructor collected baseline behavior data for each student for two weeks prior to sportspersonship instruction using a behavioral checklist. The checklist was developed using suggestions from Tenoschok (2001) and considered the developmental level of the students and the activities the teacher deemed appropriate for instruction in sportspersonship. This checklist is located in the Appendix.

After baseline data collection was completed, the instructor provided sportspersonship instruction for three weeks. Each class met for 30 minutes three times a week. The instruction included a variety of methods including short lectures, discussions and demonstrations, role-playing, modeling, and viewing visual aids.

When students demonstrated positive targeted behaviors, verbal and nonverbal positive social reinforcements were provided by the instructor. Additionally, color coded stickers related to the target behaviors were placed next to the names of the students on a publicly-displayed chart and the classroom teacher was notified and additional verbal reinforcement was given to the student or the class as a whole.

When students demonstrated negative social or sport behaviors the instructor immediately intervened with a verbal reprimand and in some instances, the student was removed from participation. In all instances, appropriate behavior was modeled by either the instructor or a peer. A color-coded sticker with a black circle around it was placed on the chart next to the name of the student. At the end of the third week of instruction, data were analyzed.

Results and Discussion

Students from both classes gradually improved their behaviors during the three-week instructional period. One class demonstrated a slight decrease in negative behaviors and an increase in positive behaviors. Figure 1 illustrates this data. Results from the second class revealed a more noticeable drop in negative behaviors and a consistent rise in positive behaviors over the instructional period. Figure 2 illustrates these results.

Figure 1: Behavior Changes for Class One.

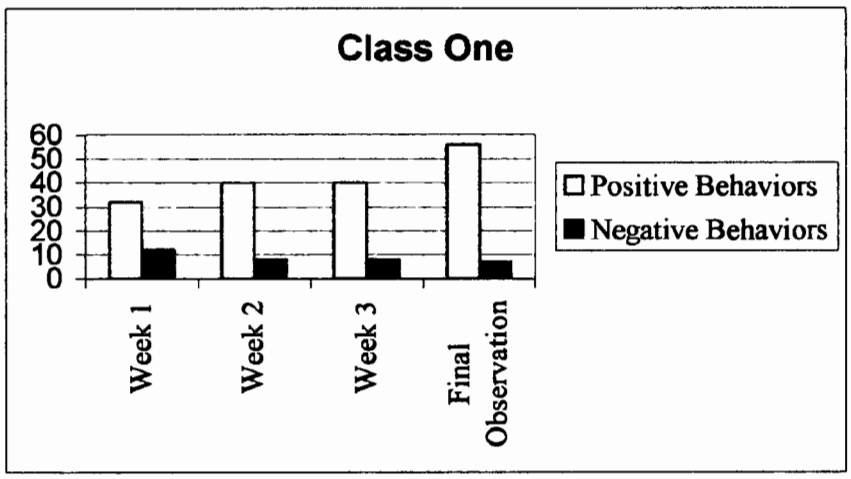
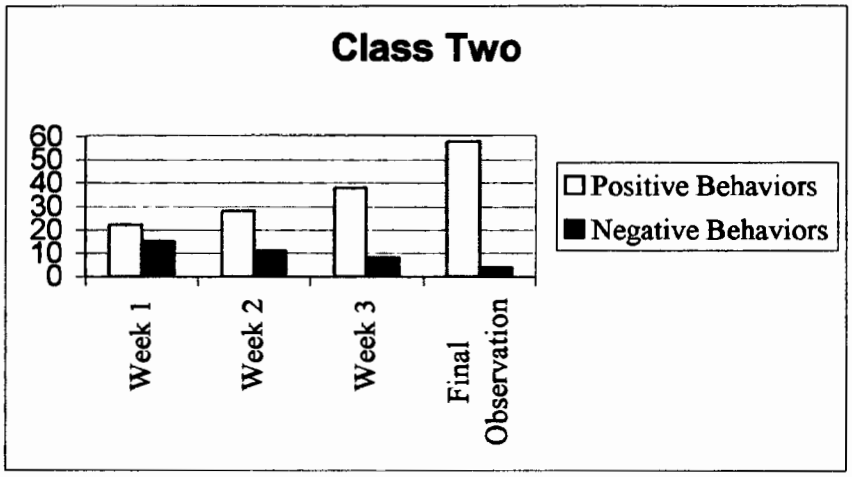


Figure 2: Behavior Changes for Class Two.



Sportspersonship Checklist

FOCUS WORD/SKILL	ACTIVITIES	TARGET BEHAVIORS	(+)	(-)
Teamwork (red)	Relay, modified kick-ball, parachute	Achieving group goals, cheering for teammates, high-fives, for effort		
Honesty (blue)	Fitness activities (laps, sit-ups, etc.) Self-directed activities	Being responsible to record score, admitting the truth with confronted, etc.		
Communication (yellow)	Verbal and written group goals and team assignments	Being able to express feelings: "happy," "sad," "mad," "glad." Using "please," "thank you," "I need some help," participating in group discussions, etc.		
Compromise (green)	Small group activities with limited equipment (team jump-rope)	Taking turns, being equal to all team members		
Sportspersonship (silver)	Tag, ball-wrestling, tug games	Trying hard, playing to have fun, not mentioning winning or losing		
Totals				

The increase in positive behaviors and decline in negative behaviors were promising changes for the physical education teacher to observe. However, behavior change takes time. The three-week instructional period should have been lengthened. Perhaps embedding sportspersonship instruction into the regular curriculum throughout the school year may improve and stabilize the positive behavior changes in young students. Based on the literature regarding cognitive development and appropriate behaviors (i.e., Wiess & Bredemeirer, 1991) it is questionable whether similar sportspersonship instruction would result across grade levels. The most important aspect of this instructional process was that the teacher made certain that the students understood what was expected of them behaviorally. Teachers and coaches must not take for granted that students and young athletes know the difference between those behaviors that are appropriate and those that are not.

Cooperation and collaboration with the classroom teachers could have been improved throughout the duration of this study. Parallel strategies used in the classroom would have augmented the reinforcements given to the students about their behaviors throughout the day. This, in turn, may have increased positive behavior changes in the students. Likewise, parental involvement and support may have enhanced the outcome of this study. Reinforcing appropriate social behaviors outside of the educational environment may have helped the students realize that appropriate social and sportspersonship behaviors may be transferred across social and educational contexts.

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Globalization and the Marginalization of Educational Purpose: Preparation of Workers and Citizens for the 21st Century and the Vision of Sustainable Futures

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Abstract: Human capital development remains a primary goal of modern schooling. This paper raises questions concerning the link between global economic needs and school-based human capital development. The primary mission of preparing students for the workplace may weaken other educational missions vital in achieving a more sustainable future for humanity.

The current globalization trends in the world, which have resulted in an incredible standardization in the world market culture of products, images, activities, financial transactions, electronic information and amusements (Bates, 1993; Marginson, 1999), have also resulted in the continued and augmented work-related, economic focus of modern schooling. These globalization trends are also clearly universalizing the values of the industrial revolution, which support the consumption and production model of the West. In economic terms, this has resulted in the highest levels of growth and development (GNP) seen in human history. However, this happy fact is accompanied by the realization that if all humans lived at the consumer and producer levels of Americans (a mere 4% of the world's population) there would be a need for at least two new worlds for energy production and waste absorption (Wackernagel & Rees, 1996).

All educational means, including schools, are needed to raise human consciousness to respond to the sobering message regarding globalization, consumption and production of the above paragraph. However, it is the premise of this paper that the continuing focus on human capital development in schools limits our understanding of these issues by marginalizing other educational purposes better suited to prepare citizens to meet the challenges of the 21st century. Below, the question of whether school emphasis on human resource and human capital development is perpetuating an unsustainable way of life on a global scale will be explored. The last section of the paper will present an alternative curricular approach known as "Education for Sustainability" that is a more viable and sustainable way to prepare citizens to live and work in the future.

Globalization and Education: Human Resource Development and the New Economic Order

Schools are experiencing unprecedented numbers of programs that foster career/technical preparation and school-to-work initiatives in this contemporary era. The idea of "flexible thinking worker skills" is sweeping the United States and Europe, signaling a shift from mindless industrial revolution material production to information processing and flexibility in production. Desired flexibility in the work place still results in sales and profits, but production now will instantly respond to perceived wants and needs of consumers. In short, the production line, given flexible thinking workers, will now be able to give consumers almost immediately what they want, which will result in increased consumption. These new requirements of the work place are visibly influencing educational aims and purposes in schools around the world. As Thurow (2000) so aptly points out, "To participate in this new global economy, developing

countries must be seen as attractive offshore bases [by providing] relatively well educated workforces . . . " (p. 20). There are both positive and negative aspects to these developments.

There is nothing new about schools playing an economic role in society. Spring (2001) sees human capital development as the primary educational purpose of American schools in the 20th century, and according to some critics, like Gatto (1992), this emphasis has resulted in most students and parents believing that a good education means a good job, good money, and good things. However, there are also other aims and purposes of schooling. Character and citizenship education were popular in the 19th century and are regaining support in the current moment. In the liberal tradition of the United States, critical thinking was a primary educational purpose that is also gaining new support in the current global economic context. This support is a direct result of a changing technological and economic world. Schools no longer need to produce mindless factory workers for an industrial economy. Today, the need is for problem-solving team players who can compete in a world economy characterized by technology and the service industry (Reich, 1991). Theorists and educators have heralded critical thinking as an educational ideal for the 21st century, and people concerned with worker preparation see it as essential in problem-solving, decision making, multitasking and assessing in the workplace (Riddle, 1996). Rote learning and memorization are now considered anachronistic, and educational activities that promote critical thinking and problem solving of future workers are valued. The 21st century focus on human capital development builds on this premise.

The changing forces that shape evolving educational policy and purpose are complex in this global age. Certainly work force expectations, government policy, and universally promoted notions of social justice, national development, and economic progress of the last few decades have contributed to the formation of current policies and purposes (Davies & Guppy, 1997). As always, however, there is no universal agreement on educational direction, especially related to the use of schools in the spread of modernization and the western consumer/producer culture. Many educators believe that schools, especially secondary schools, have been and should be used to build modern nations (Fuller, 1991; Willinsky, 1998) and to develop human capital for a globalized economy and workplace by focusing on consumer relations, problem-solving, entrepreneurship and multitasking (Davies & Guppy, 1997). Still others view this emphasis on modernization and worker-related skills as reinforcing an unsustainable economic model that concentrates wealth into fewer hands and undercuts educational aims that would help promote a more sustainable world (Bowers, 1997; Fien, 1993; Orr, 1992; Smith, 1992).

Current school emphasis on the development of "flexible" work skills related to abstract and conceptual thinking, real world problem solving, and advanced communication abilities (Davies and Guppy) initially appears very promising. School programs with this purpose in mind are working their way across the United States and Europe as dozens of state departments of both education and labor are mandating school-to-work, tech-prep, and other vocational/career initiatives to meet global market demands. The Florida Department of Education's program for Technology Learning Activities emphasizes career awareness and real-world applications of academic skills, consumer knowledge, and the impacts and consequences of technology (Bouchillon, 1994). The National Goals Panel for School-To-Work lists several strategies that middle school teachers can utilize to make a student's transition from school to work less hazardous. They include emphasis on ways to help students become flexible, adaptable, independent, responsible and proficient in self-assessment (Benz, 1996). At the Fort Worth Independent School District's Applied Learning Academy, teachers collaborate with employers and community representatives to link instruction and the real world by developing project

driven, problem-solving learning experiences for all students (School-To-Work, 1997). On higher levels, the European Commission's advocacy of a learning society embraces educational goals of a broad knowledge-base connected to abilities and skills for employment and economic life (Spring, 1998) and the Secretary of Labor in the U.S. has indicated that middle school students are at an opportune age to learn fundamental skills for a variety of work places and jobs (School-to-Work). Concern for worker skills is essential, but a problem results when working contributes to over-consumption, over-production, and over-accumulation in a finite world.

School-based work-related programs now emphasize critical thinking and problem solving in the workplace and work activities. The assumption surely is that these characteristics will be transferred to other areas and concerns. However, critics of the approach that associates thinking and working see this focus as flawed in that schools are creating homogenized individuals who will unconsciously associate thinking and problem-solving with the context of work. Bowers (2000) articulates this point in his critical review of modern liberalism and its tenets, stating that modern liberalism (to be grouped with school-to-work initiatives, etc.) places "its emphasis on transforming skills, knowledge and relationships into commodities" (p. 59). His view underscores the way in which school-to-work initiatives, tech-prep programs, and other work-related endeavors package knowledge and problem-solving into the context of work and economy—ignoring and perhaps even negating the need for the current generation to think and problem-solve within more crucial contexts of ecological sustainability and cultural diversity.

Another flaw seen in the new emphasis on flexible worker preparation and human capital development is the false sense of preparedness given to secondary school students. Advocates of school-to-work and other such programs that develop "flexible skilling" see these efforts leading to employable skills and job placement. One only needs a short memory to remember the "brain drain" issues of manpower development of the 1960's and 1970's when educational production outpaced job placement. Job availability and employment structure are serious issues. Just what percentage of the workforce will need job-related higher level thinking skills? Rifkin (1995) raises serious questions about the employment of any more that a small percentage of high-skilled individuals in the current economy. Calliods (1994), in fact, has questioned the attempt of educational policy makers to predict future worker needs, claiming that the need for future skills cannot be accurately predicted. He goes on to state that "...an efficient system of continuing education must be organized and pre-employment education must lay an adequate foundation of general knowledge and transferable skills" (p. 254). This assertion is strangely reminiscent of Philip Foster's conclusion in the 1960's that the best vocational education in Africa was a liberal arts education.

The liberal arts, foundational knowledge and transferable skills referred to by Caillods and Foster are available in public and private schools in this society. Whether students want to take advantage of this availability, or the system wants to teach the liberal arts to all students, are other questions. It seems that many students do not want to take advantage, given alarms about student achievement and the incredible "waste of time" that occurs in America's 180 day school year. Aside from this, the question remains as to whether the current reemphasis on human capital development limits or marginalizes other educational aims that are vitally needed to promote and develop the conscientious, thinking citizens so desperately needed in the contemporary moment. In this regard, Hutchison (1998) asserts that "...by promoting the interests of business and private enterprise over other, more community-oriented concerns, such as citizenship education and local community-based decision making, [work-related curriculums] severely curtail the role that schools can play as critical spheres of public discourse" (p. 38). He

argues further that "streamlining curricula for the sole purpose of fulfilling labor market imperatives...severely curtail[s] the mandate of schools within a democratic society" (p. 39).

Many critics see the globalization of modern schooling with its emphasis on human capital development as spreading mindless Western consumerism and threatening to local sustainable cultures (Mabogunje, 2001; Norberg-Hodge, 1991; Quashigah & Wilson, 2001). Gatto (1992) calls for public schools to move away from "defining education as an economic good," (p. 67) and move towards schools which allow students the latitude to discover themselves and the meaning of life in a context not necessarily contingent on work, career, consumerism and economy. According to Gatto, a passion for life, work and play cannot be achieved through training for a future that is unpredictable, competitive, and exploitive of humanity and the earth. Low-paying jobs, and even high-paying jobs, based on a consumer/producer culture that is unsustainable, are not the answer. A much more reasonable approach would be to restore balance between humanity and habitat in order to conserve and preserve life. Such an approach, which involves teaching and learning for sustainable futures, is probably the biggest challenge humanity faces.

Teaching and Learning for Sustainable Futures

The debate continues as to whether the Western consumer/producer culture is sustainable. However, when the ecological footprint of the average American citizen is taken into consideration, the debate's conclusion seems fairly obvious. The ecological footprint of the average American, or the land area required to support this individual's material standard of living indefinitely, is calculated to be 5.1 hectares/person (Wackernagel & Rees, 1996). The average citizen of India requires 0.4 hectares/person. There are only 1.8 hectares of productive land per person in the world. These figures describe a very skewed world in which one billion people live a very satisfying life, but two billion live on less that $2 dollars a day. Alarm over this reality has prompted the emergence of a new concept, sustainable development, to help restore a balance between human consumption and earth's capacity as a "natural resource."

This is not the place to trace the recent history of "sustainable development." Suffice it to say that the most well known definition of this concept surfaced in the 1987 report of the U.N. Commission on Environment and Development entitled *Our Common Future.* In this report, sustainable development was defined as "...development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (p. 43). As for "Education for sustainability," "education for sustainable development," and "education for a sustainable future," they are interchangeable. The concept of "education for sustainability" (EFS) has evolved over the last 20 years as a way to better prepare citizens for the 21st century. The basic argument is that modern schooling, with its emphasis on human capital and consumption, does not assure the development of the kind of citizen who is needed. In general, educators are unfamiliar with this concept unless they are affiliated somehow with environmental education. The primary concerns of American teachers continue to be high-stakes testing, national standards, accountability, and diversity.

Consensus in educational circles will be difficult to achieve on many of the ideas in EFS. Take, for example, the idea that EFS is an interdisciplinary educational transition. A number of individuals in Australia favor this notion, including Fien (1998), who writes that the goal of education for sustainability is "to develop the civic or action competencies that can enable all students and institutions to play a role in the transition to sustainability," thus embracing a societal vision that is "not only ecologically sustainable but also one which is socially,

economically, and politically sustainable as well" (p. 245). Just like environmental education, EFS is interdisciplinary in nature—a problem in a subject-focused school system. Sustainability demands multiple levels of understanding that bridge both the natural and social worlds of human existence. Due to this interdisciplinarity, some see EFS as an essential component in all subjects.

EFS is clearly a new vision and transition towards overcoming the school's role in perpetuating what are perceived to be unsustainable values. C.A. Bowers (1997/ 2000) is especially adamant in his call for educators to recognize how schools reinforce values that perpetuate the current "unsustainable" consumer/producer culture, the so-called digital phase of the Industrial Revolution. These beliefs and values include: (a) that humans are separate from and superior to nature (anthropocentrism and individualism); (b) that resources are free and inexhaustible (earth as a natural resource); (c) that technological fixes and product substitutions exist to solve all human dilemmas (technozoic focus); (d) that nature can absorb all human waste (earth as a convenient waste-sink); and (e) that material objects are the essence of self-actualization (materialism). The implications of these values and beliefs are challenging. EFS implies the interdependence of humanity and habitat, a recognition of the ecological crisis facing humankind, and the importance of environmental justice and human rights. Above all, it calls for a serious study of the accumulating evidence of a world biodiversity and cultural diversity crisis, which is epitomized in the concept of the Sixth Extinction (Eldredge, 1998). The rampant expansion of the human enterprise, in the form of the globalization of the consumer/producer model of the west, bears much of the blame for this current situation. The new path of EFS requires a shift in thinking away from the anthropocentric and anthropogenic, away from the individualistic and progressive values inspired by the Industrial Revolution. It requires the restoration of self-reliance and mutual support that have been undermined by the modern, scientific age. The two characteristics of growth and development, which epitomize modernity, above all must be replaced by a more balanced, steady-state economic existence (Daly, 1973).

There are many international and national efforts to integrate EFS into the formal educational process, far too extensive to be reviewed in this paper. However, one of the most integrated efforts to make available a curriculum based on EFS is UNESCO's multimedia program "Teaching and Learning for a Sustainable Future" (http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf) Plug into it. You might be persuaded to join the ranks of those who see a crucial need for this educational change...

Schools, and their continued reinforcement of values that support the globalization of the West's unsustainable, consumer/producer lifestyle, are considered by many to be part of the "problem." This paper has begun to examine how the increased importance of human capital and human resource development in schooling contributes to this problem by marginalizing educational purposes that could perhaps foster higher levels of understanding and awareness related to more sustainable lifestyles and to the needs of future generations. Curricula that support "education for sustainability" are encouraged in raising human consciousness about this situation and to allow future generations to have a similar quality of life as present generations.

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Students of Haitian Descent in American Schools: Challenges and Issues

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Abstract: This paper examines the ways the reception of students of Haitian descent in this country has shaped their educational careers. Additionally, this paper explores the racial, cultural, and individual differences that need to be understood in order to help educators, parents, and students make their schooling a positive experience.

Introduction

In his seminal work, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Friere (1970) posits that in order to liberate the exploited members of society, it is necessary to engage in a pedagogical battle against the "banking concept" of education that seeks to undermine their humanity. According to Friere, one of the primary characteristics of this system is the unidirectional relationship between teacher and student. This "banking concept" does not recognize the individual and group histories and skills of the "oppressed." Although Friere's work grew out of his experience with the disenfranchised of Latin America, it has much significance to the education of groups in America who have been systematically excluded from or allowed minimal benefits of education. This movement for equality has been waged for hundreds of years over many battlefields. One arena in which the hegemonic nature of this country is most apparent is in the field of education. Although America is universally known as the "land of opportunity," the history of the education in this country is a shady one. One only has to read about the feminist movement, institutional segregation, and bilingual education battles to get a mere glimpse into their struggles. Terms such as *multicultural education*, *pluralism*, and *new immigrants* have been bandied about as the battle rages on. During the mid 1980's, a new group of immigrants joined the fray. Whether they refer to themselves as "Haitian" or "Haitian-American," or even "American," these first and second generation immigrants have significantly impacted the political and social realities of the communities in which they settle. America's educational system is now faced with the challenge of educating these new immigrants who, in many cases, are not proficient in English. In addition, a large number of this group is challenged by social realities such as racism and prejudice. In addition to teaching them the basics of reading, writing, and arithmetic, schools must now prepare these young adults to pass standardized tests at the elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels. They must facilitate their passage into the job market and train them to become active participants in an age of technology. All of this must be accomplished while promoting the ideals of democratic citizenship, diversity, and respect of all people's cultural values. If, as they say, education is the great equalizer, these goals can only be accomplished when all the stakeholders--students, parents, educators, administrators, and government--unite to implement laws (and curricula) which ultimately connect the students' social reality and acknowledge their contributions to the schools and communities, as well as the country that they have adopted as their own.

Educating America's Immigrants

According the 2000 U.S. Census, almost 30 million of the country's residents were foreign born (2001). As they are younger than the U.S. born residents, these immigrants are more likely to have children of school age. This new population has a significant impact on the United States' educational policies. This *newcomer* population is so termed because they are 19th century and 20th century immigrants in that the majority of them are not White and come from places other than Europe. The 1965 amendment to the Immigration and Nationality Act reversed the effects of the 1924 Immigration Restriction Act, which limited the immigration of persons who were not from Anglo or European cultures (Perkins, 2000). Unlike the European immigrants from Italy, Hungary, Germany, and the British Isles, these immigrants, by virtue of phenotype, cannot simply "melt" into American society. Hirsch (1987), for example, maintained that main purpose of school is to "acculturat[e] our children into our national life" (p. 110). To further this goal, Hirsch wrote a list, "What Every American Needs to Know." He describes the list as "nonpolitical," and suggests that educators use it to develop tests to be used at the 5th, 8th, and 12th grade levels (House, Emmer, & Lawrence, 1991, p.68-69). Hirsch subscribes to the "banking method" of education, which does not acknowledge what the student brings to the learning experience. If literacy is part of culture and the students' contributions are not been heard, they will feel as if they are of no value. According to Langer (1991), literacy should "be viewed in a broader and educationally more productive way, as the ability to think and reason like a literate person, *within a particular society*" (p.11). Immigrant students are the products of both their culture of origin and the myriad of cultural practices to which they are exposed in America. To be placed in a system that does not recognize this is traumatizing. As such, the nation's schools can no longer implement an "Americanization" curriculum, which aims to socialize new immigrants into "American" customs to the detriment of their culture of origin. As new immigrants, students of Haitian descent can be best served when historical, political, and social contexts of their experiences are understood and valued by all those who are involved in their schooling.

A Summary of Haitian Immigration

In order to understand the challenges of educating students of Haitian descent, it is necessary to contextualize their immigrant experiences. The history of their migration and subsequent struggles is one fraught with political, social, and psychological implications. The history of Haitian migration to the United States began with the first immigrants who arrived as "political" refugees in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and were allowed to remain in America, settling in New York (Catanese, 1999). The second wave of immigrants began during the Presidency of François "Papa Doc" Duvalier (1959 – 1971). Unlike the immigrants of the third wave (1973- 1986), these immigrants were the elite upper and middle class who were fleeing the regime of Jean Claude "Baby Doc" Duvalier (Laguerre, 1984). Still, the most popular image of Haitians remains the desperate, sea-ravaged "boat people" who began to appear along the shores of Florida in 1973. The U.S. government has consistently fought to keep these refugees from coming to Florida, claiming that they are "economic," not "political" refugees. Unlike Cubans, the other most visible group of refugees to the United States, Haitians are consistently denied due process and welcomed with hostility and prejudice. In fact, many believe that ". . . black Haitian immigrants became targets of widespread hostility and were regularly denied their claim for political asylum . . . and . . . their early reception was one of the most adverse." (Portes & Stepick, 1987, p. 1).

Challenges and Issues

The experiences of Haitian descent youth are of particular importance, for they can serve as a barometer that can measure the extent to which the Haitian people have formulated strategies for successful adaptation to the social, cultural, and economic aspects of life in the United States. Portes and Zhou (1994) found that second generation immigrants are under constant pressure from many sides. On one hand, they must choose between the social and cultural demands of their parents' culture, and fight for entry into a hostile world on the other. This is especially true for Haitian youth, who are "triple minorities" because they are foreigners, they are black, and they speak a language not commonly spoken in America (Bryce-LaPorte, 1993). Portes and Zhou (1994) describe the problem facing immigrants as "disturbing," citing economic opportunities and culture conflicts as major causes (Introduction, para. 2). This is evident in the Haitian community where second and generation immigrants shun the jobs that their parents depend on for survival. A survey of the family socioeconomic status and structure by Rumbaut (1999) showed that 57.8% of Haitian fathers and 58.5% of Haitian mothers had less than a high school degree. The same survey revealed that 66.4% of the children feel ashamed of their parents. The need to disassociate themselves from the socio-economic realities of their parents' lives, leads many students to assimilate. Stepick (1998) maintains that in visiting Miami Edison Senior High School, "One can not miss those Haitians who have not yet assimilated African American culture" (p. 62). These young adults can be differentiated by their style of dress (mismatching, non-designer clothing), their speech (Haitian Creole), and their tendency to congregate in the "Haitian Hall" (ESOL wing) where they speak exclusively to each other. In contrast, some Haitian youth resort to "cover-up." The boys dress like African-Americans (name brand sneakers and athletic clothing) while the girls' clothing expresses a "freedom of style" (shorts, tight dresses, expensive hairdos) that sets them apart from the other Haitian girls who may come to school wearing something that is appropriate (by the standard of the immediate dominant culture) for church (Stepick, 1998, p. 63).

Portes & Zhou (1994) make a distinction between first generation Haitians who attempt to maintain their national identity and the children whose institutionalized contact slowly makes them aware of the conflict of values. As a result, these youth sometimes have "followed the path of least resistance and thoroughly assimilated . . . to the values and norms of the inner city" (Assimilation as a Problem, para. 3). They maintain that this socialization can hinder the second generation's rise to upward mobility because the children of immigrants are exposed to "the adversarial subculture that marginalized native youth" (Vulnerability and Resources, para. 3). In addition, the Portes & Zhou study also identifies three resources that facilitate the assimilation of second-generation immigrant: government programs that provide academic loans, public sympathy due to cultural and phenotypical affinity, and resources in the co-ethnic community. However, the extent to which these resources are available to second-generation immigrants is unknown. Some parents who have been in the country illegally are reluctant to seek aid for fear of deportation.

Ballenger (1999) maintains that the educational attitude of the parents of Haitian children has influenced the parents' expectations for their children, noting that parents come from different class levels. This economic history affects the value placed on scholarship and the extent to which they can help their children with schoolwork (Ballenger, 1999). Discipline, language, responsibility, and family structure may also affect children's learning. Elder children who are responsible for younger siblings may not devote adequate time to their schoolwork. Sometimes educators may not be familiar with the strictness of the Haitian family and may not understand

the relationship between family and community in disciplining children. Ariza (2000) gives the example of miscommunication between the school and a Haitian parent. The teacher called the home with the intent of praising the student. Since no one answered the phone, the teacher left a message requesting that the parent contact the school. After listening to the message, the parent whipped the child. The teacher did not know that in Haitian culture, there is minimal contact between the school and the home. Many Haitian parents take the phrase *in loco parentis* literally. Teachers are expected to educate, guide, and even use physical discipline. For the most part, Haitian parents contact the school when their children have misbehaved. Teachers and parents must participate in training to understand the nuances that separate the role of school and home.

Educational Implications

As the above text shows, students of Haitian descent come into teachers' classrooms with challenging experiences. The difficulty they have in adapting to their environment most often exhibits itself in the form of language acquisition. Even those who were born and raised in the U.S. may experience some difficulty with English. However, that does not mean these students cannot achieve or are inferior to their English speaking counterparts. One way in which the Florida Department of Education endeavored to deal with the growing number of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students (mainly Hispanic and Haitian) was by complying with federal and state laws such as Title VI and VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits the denial of federally funded benefits on the basis of race, color, or national origin. In the late 80's, the Florida Board of Education was sued by the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) and other parties who maintained that the state was not responding to the needs of its LEP students. Several conditions of the consent decree signed in August 1990 were that the state ensure that all LEP students were identified and assessed, had equal access to appropriate programming, and were instructed by teachers who received proper in-service and training. Some parties argue that Florida is not fulfilling responsibilities as outlined in the decree. Teed (2000), in studying children of Haitian descent enrolled in English for Speakers of other Languages (ESOL) classes at two Miami high schools, notes that the program is limited by differences in functional literacy in both Haitian Creole and English, the age requirements for high school attendance, resources such as classrooms, counselors, and supplies, and teachers. If a school has at least 75 students who are not literate in their native language, they must be placed in Bilingual Curriculum Content (BCC) classes while enrolled in ESOL I and II. However, if 75 students do not qualify for BCC, students who neither speak nor write in English or Haitian Creole are placed in regular ESOL classrooms. Tweed also observed that in one school, only two counselors spoke Haitian Creole. For the most part, students who could not speak or understand English went to counseling sessions, which as far as they were concerned were conducted in Greek. Tweed's observations emphasize the point that even 11 years after the LULAC decree, some adults involved in the education of our youth continue to undervalue them.

Immigrant students are also harmed when educators prejudge their parents. Ariza (2000) maintains that because the majority of teachers in the U.S. come from the dominant White group, they sometimes do not realize that the expectations they place on others may be unfamiliar to them: "American teachers often make the assumption that the immigrant parents are not interested in their children's education due to their lack of participation in school functions, conferences, and activities" (p. 36). This is often not the case. Like their children, many immigrants do not take more active roles in their children's education because of language and

cultural barriers. In Haitian culture, for example, teachers are revered. A parent would not go to a school and argue with a teacher over a child's grade even if the student were right. Similarly, some Haitian students misinform their parents. One of the most popular examples from the predominately Haitian school where I taught was the case in which students told their parents that an "F" on the report card meant "fantastic." Myths can only be dispelled when there is communication. Lindeman (2001) suggests that there are several ways to reach out to immigrant parents. Lindeman provides the example of the Arlington, Virginia school district which instituted "Family Night School" three times a year, every five to seven weeks, about two to three nights a week. During this time, teachers shared their expectations with parents; parents practiced homework activities with their children, and learned about good study routines to use with their children.

Another challenge facing some students of Haitian descent is the system of standardized testing used by the states. In Florida, for example, if an ESOL student is in the appropriate grade level for the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test, that student, regardless of how long he or she has been in the U.S., must take the test. In Memorandum 97-054 from the Florida Division of Public Schools, superintendents were advised to distribute information regarding "special accommodations" made for ESOL students. The extent of these accommodations include allowing students to use an English-heritage language dictionary, testing in a room with other ESOL students, and having a native language proctor who could translate only the *directions* to the test. To call these *concessions* is absurd: how can an ESOL I or II student pass a test written on an 11th grade reading level? More pointedly, how can a student who does not even read and write in his native language pass a test that a large number of native English speakers fail? Opponents of standardized tests usually cite racial and ethnic bias as a primary reason for their dissent. Without negating this reality, one could also posit that there is a bias of educational process. Immigrant students are not only trapped in a quagmire of languages, but they are also ensnared in the battle of educational policies that pits teachers against students, and schools again schools, all fighting to become an *A+* school.

Connections and Conclusions

Karolides (2000), in discussing Louise Rosenblatt's *transactional theory of literature,* describes it as a model that "gives equal voice to the reader and the text and acknowledges the co-penetration of a reader and a text, each conditioning the other" (p. 4). Karolides goes on to state that "what a reader makes of a text will reflect the reader's state of being at a particular time and place and in a particular situation, as well as the reader's relationship to the text" (p.5). This writer posits that if the education of new immigrants such as students of Haitian descent is to be effective, then one must view education as a transactional process. Just as reading is reflective, recursive, and cumulative, so too is the educational process. Students, no matter what their race or ethnic background, bring their state of being into the classroom. Until stakeholders recognize this, their learning journey will continued to be delayed, unicentric attitudes towards culture and literacy that impede students' ability to engage in socio- political discourses that respect diversity while promoting academic success.

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Evaluating the Effectiveness of a Public School Prekindergarten Program for Children with Disabilities

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Abstract: A stratified sample of teachers was surveyed to determine their opinion about a Pre-k Program for Children with Disabilities. The results revealed that the teachers were satisfied with their students' progress, the support received from their administrators and district, and their ability to implement the curriculum to meet students' needs.

Many pre-school children with disabilities and their families have been the recipient of services under the federal law passed in 1986 called the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments or P.L. 99-457, which was later renamed the Individual with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 or IDEA (Florian, 1995). Since its inception, various studies have been done on the effectiveness of Early Childhood Special Education and how the delivery system can more effectively serve children with disabilities and their families across diverse populations (Barnett & Frede, 1993). Additionally, studies have found that early intervention services make a very noticeable difference in the lives of the children currently served (Odom, McLean, Johnson & LaMontagne, 1995). Methods have also been used to measure the effectiveness of Early Childhood Special Education such as parent interviews, teacher preparation programs, personnel knowledge and expertise, and observation of interaction with children (Barnett & Frede, 1993; Barnett, Macmann & Carey, 1992; File & Kontos, 1993; Le Ager & Shapiro, 1995; McCollum & Yates, 1994; Miller, 1991).

Purpose of the Study

The service delivery system in use depends on many factors such as children's needs, the structure set up by the local district, and personnel preparation. Also, as more researchers conduct studies in the field of Early Childhood Special Education, it is becoming clear that intervention must be fierce and early to be effective for children with disabilities (Odom, McConnell & Chandler, 1993; Odom et al., 1995). Different studies have used different methods to evaluate the effectiveness of early childhood special education programs. Miller (1991) used a survey in which she asked respondents to answer questions regarding their particular work sites. The questions measured the general knowledge of personnel working in those settings. Miller found that only one region in the U.S. out of five had more than 50% of the respondents who could answer satisfactorily to questions on knowledge of theory of learning and development, reasoning behind assessments used on children and reasoning behind curriculum choices. Furthermore, other studies (Barnett et al., 1992; File & Kontos, 1993; Le Ager & Shapiro, 1995) have mentioned using individual student assessments to ascertain program effectiveness. However, these inventories tend to measure individual student achievement rather than the effectiveness of the program as a whole.

Finally, other studies (Barnett & Frede, 1993; McCollum & Yates, 1994) have examined the connection between personnel preparation and program effectiveness. Results have been most promising in this area because the researchers have found that personnel knowledge of Early Childhood Special Education and awareness of program goals led to a closer match between

curriculum, assessments used to measure student progress and more defined goals for program effectiveness. Awareness of personnel knowledge also led to technical assistance relevant to the needs of personnel and aimed at improvement of skills. This study sought to determine a pre-kindergarten program's effectiveness by surveying teachers who taught in the program.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were randomly selected from a pool of pre-kindergarten teachers currently employed in a South Florida public school district. This pre-k program serves children with disabilities ages three to five years old.

Instrument

A questionnaire was used to survey the pre-kindergarten teachers. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain teachers' responses on a number of issues such as knowledge of curriculum, perceived ability to implement individualized education to students, perceived support from the school site and district administration, and communication with parents. The instrument contained 18 items: 15 used the Likert scale format, and 3 used the checklist format for demographic information. The demographics included area of certification, type of instructional setting, and years of experience in the field.

Procedure

The questionnaire was mailed to teachers working in the pre-k program. One hundred questionnaires were mailed out, with 79 returned. The results were tabulated to determine how each teacher rated the statements and also to determine if there were correlations across variables.

Results

Curriculum

Knowledge of the pre-kindergarten curriculum is important for teachers to plan instruction for their students. The analysis of the data revealed that of the 79 teachers responding to the Likert-type items on the questionnaire, the majority reported they understood the scope and sequence of the curriculum, felt competent with curriculum delivery, and felt strongly that the curriculum was adequate to meet the needs of their students. (See Table 1.)

Teachers Perceptions of Students' Progress

Table 1 shows that the majority of the teachers agreed that their students were making steady progress in school. Almost half of those responding agreed that they had sufficient time to individualize curriculum. However, some indicated that they did not have sufficient time to individualize instruction for their students. The teachers agreed that they are able to measure progress in their students. Teachers also reported that, within the scope of the curriculum, they were able make the adaptations needed to meet their students' needs.

Table 1. Teachers' Perceptions of Prekindergarten Program

	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
Variables	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Curriculum								
2. Scope and sequence	60	75.9	19	24.1	--	--	--	--
3. Competent in delivery	58	73.4	19	24.1	1	1.3	--	--
9. Adaptation	22	27.8	39	49.4	15	19.0	2	2.5
13. Adequacy	39	49.4	35	44.3	3	3.8	1	1.3
Teachers' Perception of Students' Progress								
1. Students make progress	51	64.6	25	31.6	1	1.3	1	1.3
4. Competent in curriculum delivery	8	10.1	38	48.1	31	39.2	--	--
8. Ability to measure overall progress	35	44.3	43	54.4	1	1.3	--	--
14. Confusion about adaptations needed	3	3.8	4	5.1	44	55.7	28	35.4
Support Provided								
5. Support from school site	19	24.1	49	62.0	8	10.1	2	2.5
6. Support from district	53	67.1	23	29.1	2	2.5	--	--
Professional Development								
7. More training to be effective	7	8.9	25	31.6	37	46.8	9	11.4
10. Confused about expectation	--	--	2	2.5	36	45.6	41	51.9
Delivery of Services								
11. Satisfied with program	39	49.4	37	46.8	3	3.8	--	--
15. Improvement, delivery	5	6.3	36	45.6	31	39.2	4	05.1
Parent Communication								
12. Communication, parents	59	74.7	19	42.1	1	1.3	--	--

Support Provided to the Teachers and Professional Development

Table 1 shows that the teachers indicated they received sufficient support to do an effective job delivering the curriculum to the students. However, the majority reported the district provided more support to them than the school site to help them accomplish their jobs. Most of the teachers felt that they did not need additional training to be effective in their current positions.

Delivery of Services and Parent Communication

As can be seen in Table 1, the teachers strongly agreed that they were satisfied with the pre-kindergarten program. Yet, a large percentage agreed that the service delivery system can be improved. Also, the majority of teachers in the program reported that they initiated contact with their parents either verbally or in writing at least monthly.

Correlation of Variables across Data

Data were also analyzed using the Kendall's Tau(b) Correlation to determine if relationships existed between variables. When correlated using the Kendall's Tau(b), several of the variables showed positive relationships. The Kendall's Tau(b) correlation was used to estimate relationships because of the size of the data set and the variables are ordinal. Certain items showed a significant correlation at the .001 level. Variables 1, 2, 3, and 8 showed a significant positive correlation. These variables focused on the curriculum and the progress students made in the curriculum. The negative correlation among variables 1, 2, 3 and 10 documents the finding that the majority of teachers in this study felt that they were competent with the curriculum and their students were making progress within the curriculum. A significant relationship was shown between variables 2 and 13, both items related to the curriculum. There was also a positive relationship between variables 6 and 11 and variables 11 and 13, which dealt with support from the district and curriculum adequacy respectively.

Discussion

The results in this study revealed that teachers are basically satisfied with the pre-kindergarten program. Findings indicated that teachers had a good understanding of the curriculum, how to implement it in their classroom, how to adapt it to meet individual student needs, and how to measure its adequacy for students. This is significant because teachers are the stakeholders in ensuring that learning takes place within the classroom, especially in the pre-school years when students are so dependent on them.

Teachers reported district support at a higher level than the school site. This may be occurring because district personnel provide professional development and peer mentoring for new teachers, assist teachers with record keeping, and give supplementary materials and resources above that of site administrators. Though teachers reported they were satisfied with the program, they strongly agreed the service could be improved.

The majority of teachers reported making contact with parents at least on a monthly basis either verbally or in writing. This condition would be very difficult to replicate, especially in all public school programs. This phenomenon could be attributed to the size of the program, the age range of the population being served, and the fact that these children have disabilities. Parents picking up and dropping children off at school may facilitate this level of contact. Finally, since these children have been diagnosed with a disability at such a young age, parents and caregivers have taken several crucial steps to get to this point. Hence, they have already recognized their role in

the process and have established a line of communication with teachers. Also, parents and teachers are dependent on each other in an effort to generalize skills across settings. The majority of the teachers disagreed with the comment that they require more training to be effective in their position. Likewise, teachers overwhelmingly disagreed that they are confused about what is expected of them. Finally, teachers also indicated that they felt students were making progress, had time to individualize instruction, were able to measure student progress, and knew how to make adaptations for individual students. This finding indicated that teachers either entered the program with the pre-requisite knowledge necessary or obtained it soon after entering. The majority had four or more years in the field, indicating high turnover is not an issue in this program, which contributes to stability and effectiveness.

Implications

Additional research needs to substantiate the reliability of the responses obtained. The results from this study clearly showed teachers, as a group, thought very highly of this program. The overall results of the program were positive, but it was not as strong as previously thought. A portion of teachers felt the delivery of services could be improved, which school and district level administrators should take into consideration.

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The Mismatch of the Language of Textbooks and Language of ESL Students in Content Classrooms

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Abstract: Debate concerning bilingual education effectiveness may focus around the definition of academic language. Two aspects of such—vocabulary and grammar—were examined in 4th and 8th grade textbooks. Results showed substantial increases in the number of abstract words and complex sentences, suggesting more daunting language demands for older non-English-speaking students.

Lisa Delpit (1998) states that children need to be language detectives. Educators in Language Education agree that children need instruction on how to discover language and make it their own. However, before children can become detectives, they have to be directed as to what they should be detecting. Therefore the main question we ask is, "What is academic language?"

The defining of academic language can be viewed politically. Recent public referenda placed into law by electoral processes, such as Proposition 227 in California (1998) and Proposition 203 in Arizona (2000), have and are currently imposing a one-year limitation for English as a Second Language (ESL) students to acquire English and enter mainstream classrooms at a faster pace. Other states are currently considering such measures.

In response to these ideas, many language education researchers (e.g., Castro Feinberg, 2002; Cummins, 2001; Krashen, 1996; Thomas & Collier, 1997; Wong Fillmore, 1991) have argued passionately that these propositions have considerably, if not completely, stifled the linguistic skills ESL students need to tackle academic language demands in mainstream classes. A single year of English cannot realistically suffice for mainstream academic achievement, especially when research indicates that students need a good five to seven years to learn any language (Collier & Thomas, 1989; Cummins, 2001; Stack, Stack, & Fern, 2002). In contrast, passage of these referenda would suggest that the public perception, however, is that children can learn enough English to participate in mainstream classes within a year (McQuillan & Tse, 1996).

Currently, students whose English language skills limit their academic progression often find themselves in classrooms that fail to support their learning of content material (Collier & Thomas, 2001). Since ESL students have significantly less English to process content than native speakers (Collier & Thomas, 2001; Hakuta, 2000), a gap separates these two groups of learners with regard to academic achievement, thereby inadvertently redefining status among native and non-native speakers in classrooms and schools. The gap is marked by the additional time non-native English speakers must spend in order to study the English their native-English speaking counterparts already know.

Closing the Gap

To mainstream ESL students is to place them immediately in English-only medium classes, regardless of their English proficiency. Collier and Thomas's (2001) research indicates that the most effective gap-closing suggestion is never to mainstream ESL students and have them share all their content classes in two languages with their native-English-speaking peers—a conclusion directly in conflict with the beliefs of the California and Arizona propositions. Despite the political controversy, new ideas for closing the gap have risen, in the hopes of increasing essential academic language skills for ESL students to achieve levels equal to those of their

native English speaking peers when such bilingual education constructs are unavailable. Such ideas include literacy concentrations involving children's choices of pleasure reading (Cho & Krashen, 1995) and the development of children's self-expression and cultural representation through personal writing (Klingner & Vaughn, 2000).

These two literacy format examples fit into the structure of overarching methodologies, often described as *sheltered English*, currently implemented to help ESL students access academic and abstract language (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cloud, Genessee, & Hamayan, 2000; Echevarria & Graves, 1998; Jameson, 2000). These designs structure classroom procedures so that students have exposure to and practice with what Cummins (1979) labels Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, or CALP. Practices such as SIOP (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol) (Echevarria, 1998), CALLA (Cognitive/Academic Language Learning Approach) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994), and SDAIE (Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English) have been shown to be successful in helping ESL students achieve CALP.

Cummins (1979) also describes a simpler kind of language, known as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). BICS refers to the basic language one learns and uses in social situations such as coffee shops and school playgrounds. When comparing BICS and CALP with Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, the lower-level set of language—knowledge, comprehension, and applicability—characterize BICS, and the higher-level set—analysis, synthesis and evaluation—represent CALP.

The argument often found among language educators is that politicians and administrators are misinterpreting ESL students' growing fluency as sufficient preparation for students to move into mainstream classrooms. However, language education professionals are concerned that recently emigrated ESL students may have had enough English preparation to operate effectively in activities that only require BICS. Similarly, they believe ESL students may fail to receive sufficient CALP accessible materials or critical thinking skills to face academic language in regular classes. As a result, propositions in California and Arizona may have diminished or even eradicated the integration of CALP materials for English learners in the short amount of time the students are expected to learn the language. With this in mind, if we in TESOL and Bilingual Education tout the importance of academic language, we need to be able to describe what it is. In other words, simply saying that students aren't getting enough CALP may not be an explanation with enough specifics to satisfy supporters of these propositions.

Academic Language

Cook (1989) identified varying levels of discourse, reaching from the most rudimentary to the more global and complex. These include sounds and letters, lexis and grammar, cohesion, conversational mechanics, discourse function, discourse type, shared knowledge, and relationships. While it seems that the concept of academic language encompasses all aspects of discourse as described by Cook, the scope of this paper deals exclusively with aspects of lexis and grammar.

Nation (2001) states that comprehensible input of and attention to specific academic vocabulary is crucial in the development of one's language learning. As a result, ESL students need to be equipped with sufficient academic vocabulary in order to decipher sentences in their textbooks. Researchers (Coxhead, 2001; Nation, 2001; West, 1955) have developed extensive lists of vocabulary words often found in English language materials. West (1955) counted words from common everyday publications and established the First 1000 words and Second 1000 most commonly used words. Coxhead (2001) notes that West's word lists accounts for approximately

85 percent of all words used in academic texts and college textbooks and annals covering the fields of science, math, and social studies, law, and so forth. As a result, she developed a list of 570 academic words that account for nearly 10 percent of all academic language found at college level. To our knowledge, researchers who are counting such words have looked at college level vocabulary; however, we know of no accounts of lower level vocabulary for students at elementary, junior or high school levels.

Grammar has always been hailed as a primary component of foreign language scholarship. Perhaps the most popular method of teaching foreign language in the world today is known as the Grammar Translation Method, practiced in famous textbooks such as Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman's (1998) *The Grammar Book* and Firsten and Killian's (1994) *Troublesome English*—both listed as seminal works by the *TESOL P-12 Teacher Education Standards* (Stack et al, 2002). Although there are established books of grammar available, the grammar, approached as an academic form of language, especially at elementary and secondary levels, has to our knowledge been little evaluated. Dwyer and Killian (2001) did, however, conduct a pilot study which examined four high stakes testing preparation books for math and literacy development at 4th and 8th grade levels (Emery, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2000; Lund, 2000; Lund Orciuch & Babcock, 2000) in an effort to uncover principal grammar points that they believed ESL students should understand and process to pass the high stakes tests. In the examination of these texts, Dwyer and Killian (2001) identified nine grammar points that could potentially pose linguistic hurdles for any ESL student in content-based classrooms, identified in the following list along with example sentences (Emery et al, 2000; Lund Orciuch et al, 2000). They are two-word verbs ("Blood also *picks up* wastes at this time"); modals ("Why *might* this be a sign that you have an infection?"); instructions ("Predict how much the water level will go up if you add the pebbles"); strung prepositional phrases ("The parts *of the respiratory system* are shown *in the drawings on the next two pages*"); questions ("How many different ways can he pay for it using only dines, nickels, and pennies?"); passives ("As it contracts, *blood is squeezed* through a valve into the right ventricle"); gerund and infinitival phrases ("*Finding a way to get the whales to move* is an example of problem solving");clipped passives in conjunction with relative clauses ("*Blood sent through the body* gives up its oxygen to cells"); and complex constructions ("*While* you are reading this story, a scientist may be discovering something new about whales") .

Research Design

In designing this research we tackled the main question, "What is academic language?" especially as it pertains to ESL students who enter a mainstream English only classroom for the very first time. To understand the difficulties that academic language presents to ESL students, we investigated the kind of language students first encounter as they have their first experiences with English-medium textbooks in content classes. We analyzed the language of these textbooks to examine the degree of their exposure to academic language, and thus understand what English language learners are confronted with when integrated in their new English-medium.

Three books were analyzed for their academic language: *History of a Free Nation* (Glencoe/McGraw-Hill, 1996), used in 8th grade and high school courses in Florida, the fourth grade McGraw-Hill *Language Arts* text (Hansbrouck et al, 2001), and the 4th grade science book *Science Horizons* (Mallinson et al, 1993). The content of these three texts was transcribed, both by character recognition software as well as manual input. With respect to lexis, the actual words in these transcriptions were then counted in relation to Coxhead's (2001) Academic Word List (AWL). For each sentence, the number of words was counted. The overall number of

occurrences of words, as well as their proportionality to the overall text size, was then evaluated. With respect to grammar, for each text, a contiguous group of 101 sentences from the beginning of each text was analyzed. Each sentence was then examined for occurrences of each of the nine Dwyer/Killian grammar points. For each text set of 101 sentences, the number of occurrences for each grammar point was established.

Results

The results of the analyses are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1. Analysis of textbook academic language: Vocabulary and Sentence Size.

Vocabulary and Sentence Size Variables	8th grade history (w = 22,567, s = 101)	4th grade language arts (w = 18,165, s = 101)	4th grade science (w = 14,171, s = 101)
Instances of AWL	1509 or 6.69%	537 or 2.96%	343 or 2.42%
# of words from AWL used	320/570 or 56.1%	104/570 or 18.2%	72/570 or 12.6%
Mean # of words per sentence	17.19	9.09	8.88
Range of words in sentences	6 — 38	3 — 16*	1 — 18

Note:* demonstrates one instance of a 38-word sentence

Table 2. Analysis of textbook academic language: Grammar.

Dwyer/ Killian 9 grammar points	8th grade history (s = 101)	4th grade language Arts (s = 101)	4th grade science (s = 101)
Two-word verbs	*7*	*7*	*9*
Modals	*1*	*7*	*9*
Instructions	*1*	*30*	*7*
Strung prepositional phrases	*35*	*7*	*13*
Questions	*2*	*9*	*15*
Passives	*17*	*4*	*18*
Infinitival and gerund phrases	*20*	*13*	*18*
Clipped passives w/ relative clauses	*4*	*0*	*5*
Complex constructions	*37*	*22*	*17*

With respect to lexis, the length of sentences, as well as the range of sentence size, the 8th grade history text has approximately twice the mean number of words per sentence as the 4th grade science and language arts texts. Additionally, based on percentages, there is approximately three times as much academic vocabulary in the 8th grade text as there are in two 4th grade texts.

With respect to grammar, the following phenomena were present. Hardly any modals, instructions, or questions were evident in 8th grade history; hence, expectation for language and information learning seems to be based on students' reading ability, not by teacher generated or class generated discussion. In the 4th grade language arts text, classroom generated thoughts seem to be elicited through instructions whereas in 4th grade science text, classroom generated thoughts seem to be elicited through questions. Not surprisingly, nearly twice as many complex structures found in the 8th grade text were as evident as in 4th grade text. However, as many passive structures in 4th grade science text were observed as in 8th grade history text. Similarly, the quantity of infinitival and gerund phrases in both grades were also comparable.

Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that several critical grammatical structures must be addressed by ESL teachers and their mainstream teacher colleagues. For 4th grade students, it may be necessary for teachers to give specific attention to commands, complex structures, passives, infinitival and gerund phrases, questions, and strung prepositional phrases. Commands could be taught more often in the context of language arts; passives, gerund phrases, and infinitival phrases could be taught more often in the context of science. Furthermore, 4th grade teachers should consider presenting academic language in the form of regular science projects.

This study shows the tremendous linguistic demands native speakers and non-native speakers both undergo between fourth and eighth grades. It further emphasizes how the grade and/or age of the student who enters school impacts the amount of English language work in front of them as they enter class for the first time. An 8th grade student with no English is presented with abundantly more English demands than a 4th grade student with no English. As a result, these results underscore the importance for having all teachers take real care in their presentation of long sentences, especially with respect to strings of prepositional phrases. However, the depth to which 8th grade teachers make such accommodations should be substantially greater than those of the 4th grade teachers. These teachers may need to undertake special training in how they speak, how they repeat phrases, and how they break up and take breaths in the middle of sentences.

As ESL students work between 4th and 8th grades, progressively extra attention will need to be placed on the acquisition and learning of academic vocabulary. The quantity of abstract vocabulary rises extremely quickly, and teachers will have to guard that their students approach such language with reasonable expectations and assertive practice. A progressive academic word list based on grades may be necessary to help students focus energy on specific new words.

This study seems to indicate reasons for why children up to age 10 have a fighting chance at succeeding in a new language. It also provides evidence of an emergence of academic language, particularly with respect to the intense linguistic demands ESL students must endure and conquer from fourth grade on. This investigation indicates that there exists a mismatch between the language of textbooks and language of ESL students in mainstream classrooms. The mismatch lies in that the demands on ESL students to learn longer sentences with more abstract vocabulary intensify almost geometrically between fourth and eight grades, thus creating a super-challenging atmosphere that younger learners certainly do not encounter.

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Students' Perceptions and Opinions of Unscientific Bias in Evolutionary Curriculum

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Abstract: This is a qualitative study with eighth-grade students assessing their views of bias within the evolution chapters of two Florida state-adopted texts. The students determined that a significant degree of bias exists. The texts fail to develop the scientific "habits-of-mind" as stated in the school district's "science as inquiry" competencies.

Introduction

Kuhn (1962) elucidated the fundamental and pervasive role of paradigms in science. He noted that in periods of *normal science*, curriculum becomes dogmatic, and its primary role is to indoctrinate new adherents. To do so it glosses over remaining disagreements and debates, excludes anomalies and critiques, and suppresses dissension and alternative views. Only during periods of *revolutionary science* are scientists, and the curriculum, more open-minded and unbiased, focusing on anomalies and alternative interpretations.

Literature Review

The issue of bias within science books, specifically in the topic of origin theories, is well documented. A paradigm's adherents often exaggerate its strengths and ignore its weaknesses and critiques. Jonathan Wells (2000) in his pivotal book *Icons of Evolution* elucidates that the ten major "icons" of evidence for evolution are exaggerated, misleading and even false, and ignore all the contradictory evidence. Both Anderson (1995) and Wells (2000) rate most state-adopted science texts as D or F because of the texts' bias. The texts' *unscientific bias* is seen in the inadmission of incomplete evidence, withholding of anomalies, fraudulent data, presenting falsified ideas, speculation and opinion mistakenly called "theory," promoting ideologies and suppressing others, and worldview discrimination.

Such bias has been addressed by many local school boards and several state school boards and legislatures. In 1995, the Alabama State School Board voted to place an insert in the front of every state-adopted biology text that tells students to distinguish theory and interpretation from fact, be aware of evolutionary anomalies and to keep an open-skeptical mind. They wanted "to insure that the children of Alabama received training in how to think, rather than what to think, and that they receive a good science education, not ideological indoctrination" (Anderson, 1995, p.5).

The issue of bias has also been addressed at the federal level. The Senate recently passed the "No Child Left Behind" Act, which had attached to it the "Santorum Amendment" (which passed as an attachment 91 to 8). The amendment states, "where topics are taught that may generate controversy (such as biological evolution), the curriculum should help students to understand the full range of scientific views that exist" (Meyer, 2002).

Besides the bias that exists within text, there is also the reality of bias within the reader. From personal perceptual-filters to socially constructed/negotiated paradigm-filters, none of us is fully "objective" and open-minded. Deckard (1998) documented how students' worldviews play a fundamental role in how they interpret text, especially in constructing their views of the origin and purpose of the universe and life. Worldviews can act as *thought-filters*, causing adherents to

disregard discrepant experiences and anomalous data, rather than to reconstruct and accommodate one's schema.

Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative research is to assess students' perceptions and opinions of, unscientific bias in the evolution chapters of two Florida state-adopted texts: *Science – A Voyage of Exploration*, by Prentice Hall, and *Science Interactions – Course 3*, by Glencoe. The students will also be assessed about their own personal beliefs about origin theories, and their opinions about the paradigms of materialism and theism (as relates to science curriculum).

Rationale

The Tyler Rationale posits that curriculum is developed from three perspectives: the needs of society, the needs of the content area and the needs of the student (Schubert, 1986). All three of these domains provide a rationale for this research. Most polls reveal that about 70-80 % of the American public believes that materialism, evolution, is a limited and inadequate theory (Candisky, 2002). Polls also show that most stakeholders (about 70-80%) want a curriculum that teaches the evidence for and against evolution, and that evolution should compared with other viewpoints (Meyer, 2002). Fundamentally, the public wants a curriculum that is dialectical in nature. A text should teach critical-thinking skills and educate students on "how to think," not indoctrinating them into "what to think"; it should develop and prepare the mind for the real world of diverse epistemologies.

The fact that there are many anomalies within evolutionary theory is well documented (Behe, 1995; Denton, 1986). Wells's (2000) critique of evolution, and specifically how it is taught within texts, has been met with much resistance by the evolutionary community. Several researchers have sought to refute his work and person, calling it "pseudoscientific," but his polemic is thorough in its scholarship (Luskin, 2002). Many evolutionists admit that there are problems, difficulties and contradictions in their theory. For example, Ager confesses that many of the "evolutionary stories" he learned in textbooks have now been "debunked" (Gish, 1993, p. 44). The oparin-haldane hypothesis (prebiotic "molecular evolution"), that is solely promoted as the answer to the origin-of-life problem, has been refuted by the evidence that the earth's early atmosphere was oxidizing, and that there is no paleo-geochemical evidence for an atmosphere containing the presumed/necessary amounts of ammonia and methane. This led one researcher to conclude, "these symptoms suggest a paradigm whose course is run, one that is no longer a valid model of the true state of affairs" (Overman, 2001, p. 44).

Students need, and are Constitutionally guaranteed, free access to data and ideas, yet if many texts suppress anomalous data, then where should they find it? The "origin debate" is often viewed as a controversial topic, and this can make it a powerful pedagogic tool in developing critical-thinking and epistemological analysis. Through presenting many sides of a controversial topic, students can "logically synthesize multiple frames-of-reference to resolve new problems" (McMurray, 1991, p. 184). Presenting controversial material also "counteracts classroom apathy, positively affecting the students' attitude toward participation" (Cook, 1984, p. 16).

The Miami-Dade Public School's (MDCPS) CBCs (Curriculum Based Competencies) provide a thorough apologetic for this study. Specifically, the "M/J Comprehensive 3 – 2002100" (MDCPS, 1998) states that students should be able to: 1.A.2 "interpret data, use evidence to generate explanations, and critique explanations and procedures"; 1.A.4. "differentiate between explanations from descriptions"; 1.A.5. "think critically and

logically...thinking critically about evidence includes deciding what evidence should be used and accounting for anomalous data"; 1.A.6. "recognize and analyze alternative explanations and predictions...[and] remain open to and acknowledge different ideas and explanations, be able to accept the skepticism of others, and consider alternative explanations"; 1.C.2. recognize that "science is very much a human endeavor...as well as on scientific habits of mind, such as intellectual honesty, tolerance of ambiguity, skepticism, and openness to new ideas"; 1.C.3. recognize that "...all scientific ideas are tentative and subject to change and improvement"; 1.C.4. "recognize that in areas where ... there is not a great deal of experimental or observational evidence and understanding, scientists differ . . . about the interpretation of the evidence or the theory being considered," as the same data may elicit conflicting results or differing conclusions from different scientists; and 1.C.5. recognize that "evaluation includes ... identifying faulty reasoning, pointing out statements that go beyond the data, and suggesting alternative explanations for the same evidence."

Given these definitions of science inquiry and process skills, the term *unscientific bias* can be delineated. Essentially, it is when any of these competencies are not developed within the curriculum, or when any one of them is violated. For example, *Science Interactions-Course 3* teaches that embryonic nodes in the cervical region of the human fetus are "gill slits", and are homologous with fish gills, but will develop into "lungs" (Aldridge, 1995, p.553). The accompanying drawing is based on the outdated and fraudulent work of Ernst Haekel, along with Von Baer's concept of "ontogeny recapitulates phylogeny", and both have been refuted for over 30 years (Wells, 2000). It is now recognized that many assumed homologous structures are under the control of non-homologous genes and embryonic pathways, contradicting evolutionary predictions. To still use this evidence as support for evolution "bends the facts of nature...and distorts the evidence to make it fit the theory" (Wells, 2000, p. 105).

Method

Participants

Two eighth-grade students were randomly picked--one male, Chris, and one female, Vanessa--to participate in the survey.

Procedure

The survey was administered after the unit on origins and evolution. Besides the instruction they received in class, the subjects met with the researcher one time before the survey to insure that they understood the questions, and the key terms and concepts. They also met one time after the survey was completed to insure that they were satisfied with their responses and did not want to revise anything. The students were given one week to complete the survey at home.

Instrument

From the CBCs, I derived an eight-question survey. The questions seek to assess the students' opinion of *unscientific* bias. Does the text develop the required objectives of teaching *scientific habits-of-mind?*

Results

The students' responses to the eight questions are the following: Question 1: Did the book, authors, present anomalous data that may not be explained by evolution? Vanessa--"Not really, the authors only stuck to one main thing and did not mention any anomalies. They did not switch

to another theory." Chris--"No, they did not." Question 2: Did the chapter present alternative theories or explanations? Vanessa--"No, evolution was the only thing presented." Chris--"No, they did not mention other theories." Question 3: Did the authors discuss the fact that many experts do not agree about many points in evolutionary theory; there is not consensus within the scientific community? Vanessa--"No, they did not. The authors stood to their opinions and not once did they mention about other people being skeptical about evolution." Chris--"Yes, there was one man that talked and argued about the quagga and zebra." Question 4: Did the chapter encourage you to come up with your own explanations or answers different from the authors? Vanessa--"Yes, the authors encouraged me to think about the different size of the rabbit's foot, as well as the variations." Chris--"No, they did not encourage me to think on my own." Question 5: Did any of the chapters' material ask you to come up with alternative explanations, to critically evaluate evolution, to be skeptical and ask new questions, or to create your own hypotheses? Vanessa--"Yes, the bean experiment did discuss the variations of color." Chris--"No, they did not." Question 6: Do you personally believe in God's', spiritual forces, or anything supernatural? Vanessa--"Yes, I personally believe in all that was mentioned in the question: God and other possible Gods, spiritual forces, and a few other supernatural and unexplainable things." Chris--"Yes, I believe in god and supernatural things." Question 7: Do you believe that the origin of the universe, earth and life can be explained by naturalism, ie. evolution, or by supernaturalism, eg. creation or other supernatural theories? Vanessa--"I believe that the origin of the universe, earth and life can be explained by supernaturalism. I believe God made the earth, not because it says he made it in the Bible, but because of my strong gut feeling." Chris--"Yes, I do believe that there was, and still is, a creator." Question 8: Do you believe that a public school textbook is unscientific if it mentions the possibility that the origin of the universe and life may not have a natural explanation and may have a supernatural one? Vanessa--"I believe that a science book can and should discuss that there could be a God/creator who created this earth." Chris—"I believe a science book can talk about supernatural stuff."

Discussion and Implications

It can be seen from the majority of the students' responses that they believed that the texts did not present evolution in an honest, unbiased, manner, but that a significant degree of unscientific bias existed. Of course as only eighth graders, their schema of these issues are not well developed, nor their powers of textual analysis, but their answers corroborate with what experts have noted about textual bias The only positive responses that provided evidence for a dialectic in the text were questions three, four and five (Vanessa's discussion about the use of variations in evolution, and Chris's about equine evolution). But, from a deconstructivist's view, this evidence for a dialectic is really superficial. The text ignores, or leaves out, the intense debate going on in scientific circles about extrapolating the processes of microevolution (changes in allele frequencies and mutations) into macroevolution. Many experts disagree that microevolution (horizontal phylogenetic adaptation, radiation or speciation) given enough time leads to macroevolution (vertical phylogenetic ascent creating entirely new and different organisms with qualitatively new structures, functions and information) (Behe, 1996). There is little or no evidence that mutations can actually add new functions and structures to a genome, based upon Behe's elucidation of the concept of "irreducible complexity", and Spetner's (1998) studies on the limitations of mutations.

Both students believed in theistic concepts and that the origin of the universe and life may have a theistic solution. Vanessa's response to question 7, "I believe that God made the

earth...because of my strong gut feeling," supports the idea of peoples tacit knowledge of *something more* – their innate conviction that materialism is an inadequate paradigm in explaining the origin of life. Poll data also confirms that most people believe in some kind of theistic origin of life (Candisky, 2002; Meyer, 2002). The students' responses to questions 6 thru 8 may be inferred as the need *epistemological diversity/sensitivity* in origin curriculum. Though science may not answer the *God question* it should not prohibit it being asked. To assume that *only* material answers exist is a religio-metaphysical assumption, is beyond the limits of science and displays a bias against theism. Legal experts agree that the 1st Amendment prohibits the "establishment of religion", but not the suppression/exclusion of a theistic discourse, especially where this dialogue has the "secular purpose...or benefit" of good pedagogy, comparing epistemologies and teaching critical thinking (Bird, 1991, pp. 456-469).

It is clear from the students' responses, and a perusal of the studied texts, that the competencies laid out by the MDCPS are not being fulfilled. The texts have little, or no, dialectic--thesis contrasted with antithesis. It could be argued that the texts present materialism—evolution--as an absolute indisputable fact, yet in doing so all anomalies are absent, and all the evidence is already pre-interpreted for the students. Where is the tentative, skeptical and open-minded attitude that characterizes sound science? Where are conflicting experimental results and discussions about the debates over ambiguous data, anomalies or alternative interpretations?

The goals of the cited MDCPS's competencies are essentially to teach students the scientific habits-of-mind, and the proper domain and limits of science. Many philosophers of science conclude that science cannot arrive at absolute truth/certainty because inductive reasoning is based upon the limited data set of human experience, and cannot derive "universal statements"--stating that something is true at all places at all times (Bird, 1991).

Constructivism, and its learning theory, requires and implies that students are active in constructing their own schemas and epistemes, not just passive absorbers of an author's theories, no matter how scientific they may seem. Guba and Lincoln (1989) use the terms *schema-sophistication* and *elaboration* for the process where schema grow with new information. Their *hermeneutic/dialectic learning cycle* is based upon the presentation of contrasting stakeholders' constructs (a dialectic), and the interpretation of these by the learner, leading to the evaluation and synthesis of their own "sophisticated" schema. But this model assumes/requires that many stakeholder views are represented within the curriculum; if not, there can be no elaboration.

If there is no presentation of diverse views (alternative interpretations/theories) within a curriculum, there can be no perturbation of schema and no disequilibrium. As Piaget asserts, disequilibrium results from new anomalous/discrepant data, and leads to accommodation and cognitive development and growth. Yet, in the studied texts no anomalous data, or alternative interpretations, are presented. The obvious result is an absence of disequilibrium and a lost opportunity for accommodation. Plus, all the data in the texts is already pre-interpreted for the students within the evolutionary paradigm. The students are disempowered: they are not asked to think on their own and come up with alternative, personal constructions. Not that they should reject evolution, unless they are persuaded by the evidence, but in the absence of anomalous data they are not even given an opportunity to exercise their hermeneutic/dialectic learning cycles.

Are students, and other stakeholders, being disempowered and disenfranchised by the political hegemony being asserted upon them by an *evolution-as-fact* text? As Guba and Lincoln (1989), Kuhn (1962) and many others note, science is not an objective pursuit of "truth," though that may be its ideal, but a primarily socially-negotiated political-process of power, where the established paradigm exerts control over research, publication, curriculum and thought. Once a

theory becomes the majority opinion, it acts as *thought-police*, excluding anomalous data, alternative viewpoints and anything that threatens its power and status.

History shows that the curricular pendulum-swings are the result of one stakeholder group winning and losing power from another. The materialists have gained power from the theists in the last 100 years, and the Scope's Trial symbolized the futility and bigotry of trying to keep ideas out of the classroom. In our attempts at a constructive reform, we should remember the words of John Scopes, "I believe in teaching every aspect of every problem or theory" (Bird, 1991, p. 454).

Constructivists use the analogy of blind men groping about an elephant and negotiating their constructs of it through discourse; each person brings unique experiences/observations and prior knowledge to the dialogue, out of which the construct *elephant* is created (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). But as seen in this study some observations, anomalous data and alternative interpretations are excluded or suppressed because some of the participants do not continue to ask new questions. It is often the illusion of knowledge that is the greatest obstacle to scientific discovery.

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Minority Workforce Issues in Athletic Training

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Abstract: Certified Athletic Trainers belonging to ethnic minority groups have many issues in the profession. This paper addresses workforce issues including distribution of minorities, recruitment and retention of minority Certified Athletic Trainers, and support systems for minority Certified Athletic Trainers.

Minorities in the United States continue to be confronted with workplace issues such as racism, discrimination, glass ceilings, and under representation in higher education. Improvement of minority status in the workforce will require many changes. As is true in the field of athletic training, minority under representation is a major workforce issue. Athletic training is an allied health profession concerned with the health care of athletes and physically active individuals. Certified athletic trainers are allied health professionals trained to prevent, treat, and rehabilitate athletic injuries. They work in various settings from physical therapy clinics and hospitals to high schools, college and professional athletics. In order to become a certified athletic trainer, one must hold a Bachelor's degree from an accredited athletic training curriculum program and pass a national board examination. The governing board for athletic trainers is the National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA). Their mission is to enhance the quality of health care for athletes and those engaged in physical activity. In addition, the NATA promotes the advancement of the athletic training profession through education and research in the prevention, evaluation, management, and rehabilitation of injuries (National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999).

The purpose of this paper is to identify and describe minority workforce issues in the field of athletic training, including job placement, recruitment and identification of support systems for minority certified athletic trainers. Minority athletic trainers are unequally distributed in the profession as supported by the following data. A total of 26,096 members of the NATA includes certified athletic trainers, athletic trainers not yet certified but practicing, retired athletic trainers, and student athletic trainers (National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999). Of the total number of athletic trainers, there are only 1,826 minority athletic trainers, or less than 7% (National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999), compared to 25% of the minority composition of the total population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). A detailed breakdown of these minority athletic trainers is presented in Table 1. This information is gathered from a personal report of members when renewing their NATA membership. Although some members did not respond to the ethnicity question, the distribution is very much lopsided in favor of the dominant Caucasian group.

Data from the NATA provide the breakdown of minority athletic trainers in a variety of employment settings (Table 2). Employment settings for members of the NATA include physical therapy clinics, high schools, colleges/universities, professional athletics, and college students. The minorities not accounted for in the workforce distribution are certified athletic trainers working in hospitals, industry/corporate, junior colleges or other professions related or not related to athletic training but still members of the NATA (National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999). Compared to certified athletic trainers currently working in the profession, a relatively equivalent number of minorities are students studying to become certified athletic trainers. Although there may be an equal number of individuals studying to become certified

athletic trainers, minority student athletic trainers are not entering the athletic training workforce at an equal rate as certified athletic trainers. While there may be an increased number of minorities entering undergraduate programs in athletic training, further research must be conducted to determine a correlation between minority athletic training students and minorities who actually enter the workforce as certified athletic trainers (National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999).

Table 1. *Ethnic Minorities members of the NATA*

African-Americans:	384	1.5%
Asian:	552	2.1%
Hispanic:	577	2.2%
Native American:	125	0.5%
Other:	188	0.7%
Caucasian	20,287	77.7%
Blank:	3,983*	15.3%
Total	26,096	

*Members who chose not to disclose their ethnic background.

(National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999)

Table 2. *Percentage of Ethnic Certified Athletic Trainers by Employment Setting*

	Clinical	High School	Univ/College	Professional	Students
Black (Not of Hispanic Origin)	13%	7%	17%	5%	48%
Asian or Pacific Islander	17%	10%	11%	5%	37%
Hispanic	22%	14%	11%	5%	37%
American Indian/Alaskan Native	25%	11%	16%	2%	34%
Other	17%	6%	4%	4%	57%
Caucasian	31%	14%	14%	3%	24%

(National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999)

With so many of our athletes in the high school, collegiate, and professional sports worlds being minorities, recruiting minorities into these positions can only help the structure of your organization. It is important that not to hire any minority, but one that is qualified and capable of handling the job at hand. In order to recruit minorities to their organizations, employers must show cultural sensitivity, especially if the positions that are being applied for are not in large minority communities. Minorities choose careers for the most part, and anyone for that matter, in professions in which they are exposed. When young African Americans see Michael Jordan as a role model, they want to become basketball players. When young Hispanics see Sammy Sosa or Alex Rodriguez as role models, they want to become baseball players. If young minorities see other minorities as nothing other than sports stars, they will believe that this is the only avenue for success. It is up to the educated minorities to spread the word in our communities.

Recruitment of minority certified athletic trainers requires diversification in three areas: a) the need to acquire cross-cultural communication skills, b) awareness of workplace attitudes towards minorities, and c) the need to increase knowledge about traditional and nontraditional ethnic minority populations (Martin & Buxton, 1997). Retention of minority employees is just as

important as the recruitment process. Retention of minority certified athletic trainers requires positive feedback, an excellent working environment conducive to all parties involved, and the ability to evolve into well-rounded employees (Martin & Buxton, 1997). Employers may consider initiating a diversity management program in order to develop an organizational culture that will value all employees, resulting in more effective recruitment and retention.

Support systems for minority athletic trainers are important in that minorities are often one of only a few minorities in an organization. Support from others in similar situations is helpful while sharing experiences, thoughts, interests, and challenges of working in an organization. Sharing with others does not have to be with people exclusively in the department in which they work. Minorities must network with each other regardless of their particular unit or group. Getting ahead and breaking stereotypes must be accomplished together as a group or as a team effort. This is not to say that minorities should only network with other minorities. It is very important for any certified athletic trainer to have a professional network of people of all ethnicities.

The NATA recognizes the importance of professional networking in dealing with minority workforce issues by forming the Ethnic Diversity Advisory Council. This council promotes the advancement of ethnic minorities in the profession of athletic training (National Athletic Trainers' Association, 1999). The council requests mentors for minority students, supports research on minority issues, and emphasizes networking of minority athletic trainers. Education about minority experiences in the profession of athletic training is integral in raising awareness. The council is an excellent forum for communication among certified athletic trainers of all ethnicities.

Support systems using modern technology connect minority athletic trainers and promote open lines of communication. The Listserv for Ethnically Diverse Athletic Trainers is used as an electronic forum to discuss minority workforce issues, network with other minority athletic trainers, and share information over the Internet. The listserv is an innovative and wonderful tool for support of ethnic minority athletic trainers.

Under representation of minorities in the profession of athletic training is primarily attributed to the reduced number of minorities entering higher education. Hispanics graduate from secondary school at a lower rate than Caucasians and African Americans. In 2001, secondary school graduation rate for Caucasians was 81.6%, for African Americans was 73.4%, and for Hispanics was 59.8% (American Council on Education, 2001). The lower secondary school graduation rate for Hispanics may be attributed to several factors including, but not limited to, socio-economic, political, and cultural factors. These factors apply to many minority groups that face adversity in their lives and in their pursuit of higher education. The lower secondary school graduation rate of African Americans and Hispanics results in lower recruitment and lower admission rates of minorities in athletic training education programs. Other important factors also are considered for young minorities wishing to enter the athletic training profession. Support from parents and teachers, financial stability, and intrinsic motivation are very important in any young person's life (Mathis & Jackson, 2000).

Discussion

Progression of the NATA on minority workforce issues is vital to increasing diversity in the athletic training profession. Minority populations in the United States are increasing rapidly (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). As the diversity increases, it is important for the athletic training profession to adapt and reflect the changing fabric of America. The NATA has shown progress

on minority workforce issues with the creation of the Ethnic Diversity Advisory Council, meetings on minority workforce issues at the NATA annual conventions, and requests for proposals on research on minorities in the athletic training profession.

Health care of athletes and physically active individuals is the primary focus of certified athletic trainers. These individuals arise from ethnically diverse backgrounds, and it is important for health care providers to reflect their culture. This can be achieved by recruitment and retention of qualified, competent minority certified athletic trainers and the inclusion of minorities in athletic training education programs. As America becomes increasingly diverse, the athletic training profession must recognize and address the concomitant workforce issues to progress in the new millennium.

Conclusion

Increasing the representation of minority certified athletic trainers can be accomplished by promoting the athletic training profession to minorities. Promotion through the media, community service, or education will increase exposure of the athletic training profession. In order to reach minorities, promotion of the profession should include the inner cities as well as the suburbs to expose young people to the rewarding profession of athletic training. Once young people have been exposed to the profession, it is important to recruit and admit them into an accredited athletic training education program so they may become certified athletic trainers.

Future Direction

Research is paramount in addressing the workforce issues for minority athletic trainers. Identification of the challenges faced by minority certified athletic trainers currently employed in the profession will provide a basis for recommendations for improvement.. Athletes and coaches should be surveyed to elicit the attitudes and preferences of these individuals toward health care provided by minority athletic trainers. Finally, administrators' concerns regarding diversity and minority under representation in the workplace may help recruitment and retention of minority certified athletic trainers.

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Joining the Conversation: Graduate Students' Perceptions of Writing for Publication

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Abstract: The authors report on their qualitative study of eight students in a class on writing for publication and the nature of the writing process in academia. While the participants found value and purpose in writing and scholarly writing, they had great difficulty with criticism and using feedback in constructive ways.

A distinguished speech communication scholar once commented that "an article published in a major journal early in a career could be worth about $25,000 in pay and benefits. [It] can mean a better job [and] higher pay with increased retirement and other benefits" (Phillips, 1982, p. 95).

Twenty years later, this statement is just as astounding. Effective writing is an essential skill —now more than ever. The advent of instant worldwide communication has heightened the need for individuals who can access, analyze, and produce clear written communication. Thus, the importance of providing writing instruction in colleges and universities is essential. Requiring students to write papers to a "publishable" standard acquaints students with the scholarly writing process (Shaw, 1999), training them in the conventions, formats, and unique rhetorical styles of their disciplines (Jeske, 1985). Many inside and outside of academia lament the quality and substance of writing (Rankin, 1998). Journal editors observe numerous grammatical and structural errors and frequently find a clear thesis absent in manuscripts (Judy, 1982; O'Donnell, 1982).

However, graduate school training rarely includes the specifics of the publication process (Jackson, Nelson, Heggins, Baatz & Schuh, 1999). Few graduate programs teach scholarly writing, and little professional input or support for effective graduate writing exists (Rose & McClafferty, 2001). These doctoral students become faculty members lacking fully developed research and writing skills and the ability to pass on these skills to the next generation of doctoral students (Witt, 1995). The curious shortage of course offerings seems partially to be based on several assumptions and problems. First, academics because of their advanced degrees are assumed to be accomplished writers. (Moxley, 1992). Second, the perception is students receive support for their writing as a by-product of their coursework. Third, simply by being graduate students, they should already know the writing process (Gaillet, 1996; Hernandez, 1985). If not, professors attribute writing flaws to the student rather than institutional deficiencies (Sullivan, 1994). Problems are that non-English educators perceive writing instruction as belonging to the English department rather than across the curriculum. Faculty find their attempts at critiquing and grading writing far too time-consuming to be worth the effort (Loux & Stoddart, 1993; Resnick, 1987). And the same poor writing habits, chronic procrastination and writing apprehension that plague undergraduates are also indicative of graduate students (Bloom, 1981). Additionally, graduate students' lack of knowledge about writing confounds the problem (Berquist, 1983).

In their own scholarly writing class, Caffarella and Barnett (1997) found that of three elements of the writing process--content, process, and critique--the critiquing element was most influential in understanding students' writing process and facilitating a final, publishable product. The limited research that exists on the critiquing process and scholarly writing is found in composition and the humanities, reinforcing the notion that writing instruction necessarily belongs in these disciplines. The purpose of this study was to understand the nature of the writing

process for graduate students. These research questions guided our inquiry: (a) What are students' perceptions of the writing process? (b) Do students think learning to write better has value in their careers? (c) How do graduate students learn the writing process? (d) In what ways is a course in writing for publication valuable in terms of personal and professional growth?

Method

On the first day, in the Writing for Publication course at a large urban institution recently rated Carnegie Research Intensive, the co-researchers (a doctoral candidate and instructor) described the study, requesting that students participate. A letter of introduction, a consent form, an outline and timeline of the study were handed out. Questions were answered and eight graduate students agreed to participate by signing the consent form. The data were collected during one school term from multiple sources--a survey, an interview, writing samples, artifacts from class, and field notes—and made up the data used for analysis. The 21-question survey of students' past and present attitudes about the writing process, answered electronically, was modeled after similar attitude surveys and/ or interview questions by Emig and King (1977), Ketter and Pool (2001), and Lavelle and Zuercher (2001). Of the eight students who initially agreed to participate, seven completed the survey questions, five were interviewed, and three completed the course; none resulted in publication. The five who dropped the course had issues or problems with registration, their topics, family, and/ or health. One student who did not participate in the study published his article.

We began with the assumptions that (a) students would find writing a valuable skill, and scholarly writing a difficult, time-intensive process; and (b) the manuscript critique would be used constructively and inspire students to produce polished writing. Instruments were developed based on these assumptions. The data supported the former but not the latter assumption. While the participants found value and purpose in writing and scholarly writing, they had great difficulty with criticism and using feedback in constructive ways.

We looked at the data from four perspectives: the system, meaning the university and the larger urban community; the faculty member/ researcher, Dr Rocco; the student/ researcher, Ms. Nielsen; and individual students. Following the heuristic research process (Moustakas, 1990), this study involved personal exploration of the qualities and relationships concerned with the research questions. One researcher searched all data sources for themes and patterns relevant to the research questions. We examined the survey and interview data by question, searching for common perceptions, examining emergent themes, and then comparing analyses to ensure consistency. Open coding following the procedures of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) produced three themes: (a) writing philosophy, defined as the nature of one's understanding of writing; (b) writing process, or knowledge of a series of actions leading to a final product; and (c) understanding writing, defined as the ability to understand one's own writing habits, strengths, and weaknesses. Each theme revealed three to five key points and was validated against current data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). These three themes are discussed below.

Discussion

Writing Philosophy

Four key points will be discussed: communication, standards, experience, and process.

Communication. Writing is a method of communicating ideas and sharing knowledge. As one student asserted, "Writing has enabled mankind to communicate over great distances and [is] a precursor to the rapid spread of knowledge... help[ing] to permanently record historical facts,

independent of oral traditions." On a practical level, it allows us to "navigate the society in which we live," as it "allows the author to put out ideas, values and theories to larger groups of people [who] accept or reject these ideas as they see fit." The participants saw writing as a powerful medium for transmission of ideas, allowing knowledge to evolve. This echoes Applebee (1984), who argued that the permanence of the written word and the explicitness required in effective writing makes writing a powerful vehicle for shaping thought.

Standards. The permanence of ideas makes the standard for written communication higher. As one student wrote, "Writing is the best mechanism I know to express ourselves in a lasting or permanent way." For another, the "thought process [involved in writing] takes lots of energy" compared to speaking. When writing is an indisputable record of their ideas, it requires a higher standard of perseverance, clear articulation of ideas, and greater attention to salient features such as clarity, accuracy, and organization.

Experience. Writing is a deeply personal experience, "a pure form of self-expression" and a place where "the imagination runs wild, like a stallion, always seeking new pastures and boldly going where none has ventured before. It is my life, my work, my dreams." So personal is this experience that writing involves creating and re-creating the self, the result of an exchange between the self and external forces that act to construct experience (Ketter & Pool, 2001). Another student noted, "when you write, you are the person who makes things happen; you can do many things that are not possible in real life." Indeed, in graduate courses for publication in education, students experience empowerment (Rippenberger (1998) and create their scholarly identities (Rose & McClafferty, 2001). However, negative reactions to one's writing can cause a person to question his/her ability as a writer and as an academic (Caffarella & Barnett, 1997).

Process. Graduate students viewed their attempts at scholarly writing as learning the methods of academic discourse, or "a conversation with other scholars and before you can join a conversation, you follow protocol." Simple rules like finding a concept, thesis or hypothesis, impact and conclusion were helpful to students. A majority would recommend that others take a class in scholarly writing; one even said it should be a requirement, while another added that two courses should be offered—a foundational and an advanced scholarly writing class.

Writing Process

Three key points are discussed: pre-writing techniques, critiquing, and standards.

Pre-writing techniques. Most participants regularly incorporate pre-writing techniques. One student considers the first three stages of the writing process—prewriting, drafting, and sharing—as "one of the most efficient ways of starting writing." Students used a variety of pre-writing strategies such as outlining, creating graphic organizers, webbing, drawing pictures, and making separate cards with main and supporting ideas. Some plan to incorporate the topic and treatment outlines, which were modeled in the course. Research has shown that these techniques are effective: students who plan and draft produce higher quality writing than minimal drafting or none at all (Torrance, Thomas, & Robinson, 2000). Further, the two thirds of college students who outline found it allows for flexibility, recursivity, and discovery of ideas (Walvoord, 1995).

Critiquing. The process of providing students with consistent, detailed, and critically constructive feedback during writing is not only an important dimension of writing (Ketter & Pool, 2001), but crucial in producing a well-written piece. As one student wrote, "Feedback and critique is very helpful . . . to gather ideas and a wealth of information from the perspective of others." Specific areas students focused on were areas of weakness for some: word choice, clarity, and supporting details. However, all concluded that the process of giving and receiving

assistance to polish the writing was essential: "good writing doesn't happen by luck; effort and rewrites seem to be the only guarantee of a quality work product." Caffarella and Barnett (1997), who found that this critiquing step was of most value, concluded that initial apprehension about feedback decreased, though not completely, over time, as self-confidence and growth increased.

Standards. Feedback is essential to ensure writing adheres to a publishable standard. One student wrote, "Through feedback from potential readers, writers discover how well they have communicated their ideas and whether their readers need more information concerning the topic, [thus] producing revision and a sense of ownership." For participants, the ability to give as well as to receive feedback took on new meaning in this class, as they wrote not as students but as scholars, and read not as classmates but as journal editors. One admitted that he "never paid much attention to the process of typing, errors and editing each paragraph or section" until he took the scholarly writing course. Another remarked that giving and getting feedback helps students' future writing abilities: "The opportunity for rewriting enables the student to internalize the feedback and put it into practice." Figgins and Burbach (1989) also found that one of the most valuable areas of growth was feedback—both giving and receiving.

Understanding Writing

Five areas will be discussed: adaptability, resistance, constraints, mistakes, and anxiety.

Adaptability. Students alter their writing style according to the genre, professor, and/ or subject, attending to grammatical rules for English classes and content for projects in other classes. Experienced writers are aware of the different styles inherent in narrative, imaginary, or informational writing, and adapt their preparation and wording accordingly. Booth (1963) calls this "rhetorical stance" a common attribute of good writers, who focus on the subject, the purpose and the audience of their writing. Good writers have greater audience awareness than poor writers (Flower & Hayes, 1981), and this awareness assists students in adapting to the purpose and style of a specific journal or publisher.

Resistance. Constructive criticism was not taken and used well by these students. Graduate students are unaccustomed to having their work criticized. First, many were not introduced to scholarly writing in their earlier academic lives, which according to Sternberg (1990) is because memorizing and regurgitating information is valued in undergraduate education, whereas discovery and judgment skills are prized late in graduate school. Second, those who possess skills important to scholarly writing rarely have the chance to demonstrate them, and may become discouraged by not being able to develop their reflective writing skills (Sternberg, 1990). Berquist (1983) concurs that original, scholarly writing is seldom stressed in lower-level courses. This explained the affective comments about criticism: many students were sensitive to being uncharacteristically subjected to criticism and the dissection of their writing. After receiving criticism about the quality of his first draft, one Ivy-league educated student who later dropped admitted, "it hurt quite a bit. But this is the first time someone has pointed it out to me." In defense of those who dropped, another student observed that students move through academia "getting a stamp of approval, and then suddenly, someone . . . says it is bad. People thought that there would be acceptance . . based on life experience and previous education." Students saw the criticism as a " 'diatribe' or 'bitter criticism,' " [and] "people will go through considerable lengths to avoid criticism." However, criticism can serve as a motivator in scholarly writing classes (Ripenberger, 1998), as it did for one student, whose competitive spirit kept him from being deterred.

Constraints. Students had more confidence in their writing ability as undergraduates than as graduate students because of constraints placed on graduate papers, which become less focused

in theme and structure, with less flexibility to be creative; the perception that graduate writing is more difficult; and time constraints of most graduate students, who juggle the demands of a full-time job, family and social lives with being a student. Even those who rated themselves higher as graduate students attributed it to maturity and practice rather than to perceived growth in writing ability. The belief that one must live up to previous academic success can inhibit writing confidence (Bloom, 1981).

Mistakes. The worst writing errors for graduate students are word- and sentence-level errors rather than structural or substantive errors. Students pointed to jargon, colloquialisms, punctuation, grammar, spelling, sentence clarity, and sentence length as the main errors in their writing and the writing of other students. Mentioned less were content-driven errors such as support, organization, or coherence that journal editors identify as recurrent writing errors (Phillips, 1982).

Anxiety. Students tend to procrastinate scholarly or high-stakes writing, recalling Bloom (1981), who found that the more important the writing, the higher the apprehension and anxiety. In interviews, "procrastinator/ing" were often mentioned with regard to academic or scholarly writing. Furthermore, most students did not meet deadlines for drafts. One said he had no problems making deadlines in other classes, but the reason for his tardiness in the scholarly writing class was "not laziness, but I put things off or procrastinate. [Deadlines] loomed large."

Implications and Recommendations

The implications are far-reaching for graduate programs, professors, and students. Though graduate students wrote 46% of articles published in one scholarly journal during a 19-year period, nine schools accounted for 59.4% of them (Blunt & Lee, 1994), suggesting that only a few schools possess a culture that promotes writing for publication. Instead, all schools should be obligated to train students in scholarly writing early, as once students successfully publish, the newly initiated gain momentum in writing fluency is not easily lost when they gain faculty appointments. Moreover, new faculty members who learned early in their careers to strike the right balance between their writing, teaching, and other collegial responsibilities exhibit high levels of publication productivity (Boice, 1992).

Therefore, we recommend the following: (a) course offerings in writing for publication, (b) mentoring partnerships, (c) financial assistance and writing workshops, (d) "publishable standard" papers throughout graduate school, and (e) early writing coaching and intervention.

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Changing the Interface of Family and Consumer Sciences at Florida International University

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Abstract: The need to change the interface of the Family and Consumer Sciences (FCS) Program at Florida International University (FIU) has evolved because of changes in our family structure, culture, resources, educational reform, new knowledge in basic disciplines and applied research.

Purpose

It is important for a program to connect periodically with the past, articulate the present, and create the future. The need for a conceptual framework in the FCS program at FIU has never been greater. Reasons for the need include the changing state of the workplace, our society, and the world, given the demands being placed on workers and citizens for technical and higher order thinking skills. Increasing complexity in all facets of work, family and community life, coupled with reoccurring calls for educational reform over the past few decades in Florida, present numerous challenges to professionals working in the family and consumer sciences field (Rojewski, 2002). Additionally, the need to revise or eliminate outdated curriculum and develop new programs to meet emerging work or family trends is an ongoing priority.

Rojewski (2002) suggests for a conceptual framework to be effective and useful, it must address the general purposes of family and consumer sciences, reflect the underlying beliefs and perspectives of its constituents, and shape the current infrastructure and educational activities and future direction of the program. A conceptual framework does not necessarily solve all problems or answer all questions present in a profession, but it should provide a schema for establishing critical issues and allowing for solutions--either conforming the problem to the framework or visa versa.

A framework should be fairly stable, have the capacity to change over time, and adapt to emerging issues, whether they be internal to the profession or external to society. The framework cannot be developed in a vacuum. There needs to be an on-going dialogue with educators and organizations to provide a comprehensive view of family and consumer sciences education and its applications in classrooms, boardrooms, living rooms, and universities. Therefore, this paper should be viewed as an initial point of discussion and debate, rather than as an arrival at the final conceptual framework for the program.

History

Family and Consumer Sciences, formerly known as Home Economics, began over one hundred years ago. Beginning in 1862, the Morrill Act established the nation's land-grant college system and provided educational pathways for individuals skilled in agriculture, mechanical trades and home economics. In 1914, a Congressional Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education was established. The findings of this commission resulted in the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917, the first federally enacted legislation to promote vocational education in public high schools in America. This act provided federal funds for vocational education at the secondary level in the areas of agriculture, trades, industry, and home economics.

In 1948, Katherine Alderman, an executive with the American Association of Home Economics, summarized the ways in which the Home Economics philosophy had been expressed. The philosophy included improvement in instruction, fostering international understanding, and the importance of on-going research at that time. A half century later, the name has changed but the philosophy has basically remained the same.

Recently, the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities (Anderson & Nickols, 2001) issued a call to institutions of higher education to join in their commitment to action by "addressing the academic and personal development of students in a holistic way" (p.15). The holistic, interdisciplinary perspective to FCS is the common thread that has been woven through all areas of specialization. It is this holistic perspective that has served as a ballast for the profession for almost a century.

A New Era with New Demands for the Profession

According to Anderson and Nickols (2001) in their Commemorative Lecture, the essence of family and consumer sciences can be summarized in three words: *head*, *heart*, and *soul*. The body of knowledge is the intellectual foundation of the field of family and consumer sciences. It can be described as the *head*. The *heart* is the mission, which reflects our passion, caring, and compassion. *Soul* is what inspires and motivates professionals and gives meaning to the field and work.

Today, the nature of this field has evolved today because of changes in the family, culture, resources, and new knowledge in the basic disciplines and applied research. Few areas of society have changed as much as the family has over the last generation. The structure of the family has been transformed from the stay-at-home mother, working father, and children to a more complex structure of children living in homes where both parents work outside the home. Many children today do not even live within a family with their biological parents. These changes have had an impact on the way that people view family life. Family and Consumer Sciences educators play an important role in family life instruction.

Dramatic changes in societal and workforce demographics present major challenges in language differences, cultural beliefs, and work attitudes that have a direct bearing on how Family and Consumer Sciences education is designed and delivered in public schools. Statistics from the United States Census Bureau has found that by the year 2020, this country will be without a majority ethnic or racial group. Therefore, we will be teaching a more diverse population of students than ever before.

The impact of technology on FCS education has not been limited to assessment. Technology has found its way into the instructional process as a teaching tool and as a learning process that facilitates a self-paced learning and tutorial assistance. Technological advances have not only changed the ways that society is living, but also the ways students learn. Technology has created new careers and new industries, and educators have greater opportunities and responsibilities to prepare students for future technological trends and issues. FCS professionals need on-going professional development to maintain a high level of competency in this area.

A severe shortage of teacher educators currently exists in many school districts of Florida. The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS) indicated that by the year 2000 (Meszaros & Miller, 1996) the national demand for Family and Consumer Sciences educators could be expected to be approximately four times the supply of undergraduates preparing to enter the field. Those in leadership positions around the country indicated that it was imperative that an immediate and sustained action over the next decade was needed to

increase significantly the cadre of Family and Consumer Sciences educators prepared to teach in middle and secondary schools.

Currently in Florida, there are only two institutions that provide undergraduate and graduate education degrees in Family and Consumer Sciences: Florida International University in Miami and Florida State University in Tallahassee. The campuses are strategically located in the north and south portion of Florida, which helps to serve our state needs. Unfortunately, there are still a large number of potential students who do not have access to courses required for degrees or teacher certification in this field.

The Changing Knowledge Base

The intellectual foundation of the profession is a body of knowledge (see Figure 1), which is an evolutionary, ever-changing model that is reflective of societal changes (Anderson & Nickols, 2001). It is the integration of several different areas of expertise, including disease prevention, biotechnology research, and consumer product design, to work life benefits, ergonomics, and career planning, to parenting, personal finance, personal and home fashion to hospitality management.

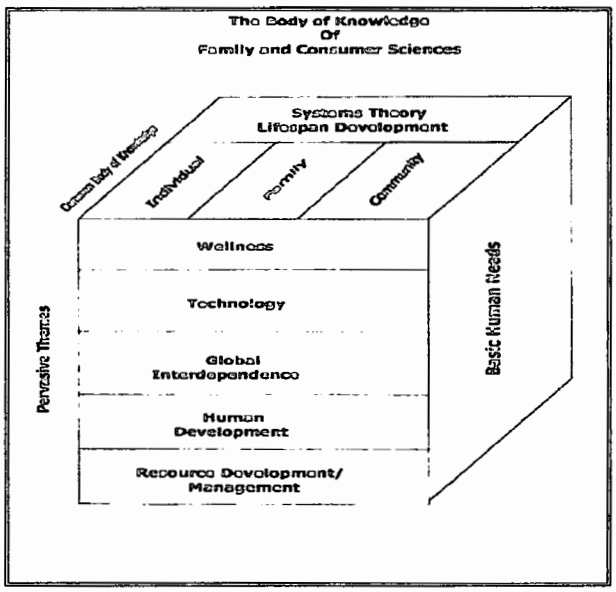

Figure 1. Body of Knowledge (Anderson & Nickols, 2001)

The body of knowledge includes unique concepts that integrate the study of the individual, family, and community systems throughout the life course and in the context of current concerns and trends. Basic human needs are central to the concepts in the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge. Individual well-being, strong and resilient families, and healthy communities focus the work of professionals. Maslow's hierarchy provides a synthesis of an individual's basic human needs: physiological, safety, love and belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization.

Empowered individuals meeting basic human needs are critical to individual well-being. Physically, emotionally, and mentally healthy individuals are essential for sustaining humanity. Empowered individuals who are self-aware and motivated become partners with the social, cultural, technological, and natural environments. The concepts and principals for promotion of

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individual's well-being are central components of the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge.

Challenges currently exist for FCS educators to strengthen their integrative orientation to instruction, research, and service in responding to pressing needs of society. At Florida International University, the Family and Consumer Sciences Advisory Committee identified instruction, research and service components as the foundation for the new conceptual framework. This new focus paralleled many strategic efforts that were also occurring concurrently with the College of Education and the University.

A New Interface: Instruction

Changing the interface of the FCS at FIU requires making the scholarship of instruction a top priority. Prospective teachers will be provided with the best knowledge of the field, the latest theories of pedagogy, strong skills in technology, considerable classroom experience, and professional mentors.

An undeniable shift is taking place now from classroom teaching and learning to asynchronous Web-based and Web-supported learning environments. According to Sonwalkar (2001), the dissemination of educational content is surely moving from a teacher-to-student model to a technology-enabled interface. Simple interfaces, such as Internet browsers, are now providing the interface to connect students to teachers and to self-paced online courses.

According to the president of Pennsylvania State University, Graham B. Spainer, "The single greatest trend in higher education today is the move toward hybrid education" (as cited in Young, 2002). These convergences of online and resident instruction are being utilized by some of the oldest colleges in the United States. The FCS program has made hybrid instruction a priority and consequently developed a number of hybrid and virtual courses to broaden access to students in surrounding counties.

A New Interface: Research

Changing the interface of the FCS at FIU requires making research an integral part of the program. A priority of the FCS program is to educate and prepare students for many diverse challenges they will encounter when working in the classrooms. Engaging students in action research projects facilitates this goal. Both the undergraduate and graduate level programs incorporate action research into the curriculum. The outcome of this research empowers the students to help provide solutions to current problems affecting the profession and society.

Taking these concepts into consideration, a FCS seminar class at FIU put research into action by planning a pilot satellite video conference called "Making Dreams into Realities." Along with FIU, the conference was co-sponsored by Miami-Dade Public Schools and included the assistance of FIU's Satellite Technology Department and Instructional Development Center.

The satellite conference focused on the issue of the critical teacher shortage in South Florida. This pilot project specifically targeted middle and secondary students and their teachers. It created awareness of the possible careers available in FCS. The agenda included various topics: technology use, financial management, foods and nutrition, fashion design, childcare programs, research and resources. Pre- and post-evaluative instruments were created for data collection on-line.

The pre-conference activities included worksheets for teachers to utilize in their classrooms with students. The post-conference student activities included worksheets on specific careers and corresponding salaries.

The student researchers indicated a significant increase in action research techniques and distance learning strategies. Involvement in this research class afforded the students the ability to comprehend their role as FCS educators and to be more creative in reaching their students through technology.

A New Interface: Service

Changing the interface of the FCS at FIU requires making service an integral part of the conceptual framework. In the fall of 2001, the Family and Consumer Sciences Student Association was established. This student group through membership automatically links to the local, state and national professional associations. A group of graduate students assumed the leadership for the group.

Since its conception, the student organization has facilitated two service projects. In October 2001, a joint forum between two FCS associations was hosted at FIU. Collaborating with the local professional teacher's association, the student group invited local Housing and Urban Development experts to discuss the latest urban housing issues pertaining to Miami-Dade County. In December 2001, a workshop for caregivers was hosted in conjunction with the Urban League of Miami. Student association members taught grandparents raising grandchildren how to plan nutritious snacks for the holidays.

Examining the Future

The development of any conceptual framework is of little value if action does not result. Collectively, the FCS program must be willing to tackle tough questions and debate potentially contentious issues to maintain a clear and concise framework. Outcomes will affirm the program's commitment to provide appropriate instruction of persons entering the field. Such a framework can guide funding priorities, program development, classroom instruction, and relationships with external constituencies.

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Women in Athletic Training: Striving for Equity

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Abstract: The demands of athletic training are unique to the profession and many of the concerns of women in the NATA are similar to those of female executives in other professions. The purpose of this paper is to identify challenges for women in athletic training and reveal areas of inequity.

Sport is a microcosm of society. Throughout history, there have been parallel occurrences between corporate professions and the sport and leisure industries, including athletic training. While the demands of athletic training are unique to its profession, a *Fortune* magazine survey showed that many of the concerns of women in the National Athletic Trainers Association (NATA) are similar to those of women who are female executives. A 1995 U.S. Department of Labor report revealed that women and minorities are still underrepresented at the highest levels of corporate America. Specifically, 95-97% of the senior managers of Fortune 1000 industries and Fortune 500 companies were men (Shinew & Hibbler, 2002). Many women opt to leave athletic training for more predictable jobs; at the same time, 87 % of female executives polled reported they were seriously considering a major life change (Nussbaum & Rogers, 2000).

Women in athletic training generally represent a silent minority and little is known about their early experiences and the barriers presented to them (Anderson, 1991). Few studies have been conducted specifically about women in athletic training, and more extensive research on this topic is needed to identify and address the issues. However, several related studies have been helpful in understanding the development of the role of women in the sports and leisure industry.

While a paucity of data exists specific to the field of athletic training, an extensive review of the relevant literature was conducted to identify the obstacles encountered by women in all aspects of careers in sport. Females experienced many barriers to advancement, including less compensation, exclusion from leadership opportunities, and greater difficulties balancing their career and family life. This paper will suggest possible ways to address and improve upon the diminished status of females in athletic training, in order to keep the field as an attractive career option for women.

Related Literature

The social institution of sport has long reflected societal attitudes toward women (Depauw, Bonace, & Karwas, 1991). Discrimination against women in both athletic careers and the American society in general has been a problem throughout history. A report issued by the U.S. Department of Labor in 1991 identified the barriers that women and people of color often face, including limited career enhancing assignments and lack of acceptance by top management (Shinew & Hibbler, 2002). Although progress has been made over the past three decades, there is great room for improvement. Women are still underrepresented as leaders in the organization of sport at all levels. A study by Booth (2000) indicated that issues of gender equity and barriers to advancement in athletic training parallel those in other professions and work settings. In athletic

training, as in society in general, women do not have the same status as do men and view barriers to equity differently than do men.

In 1972, Title IX of the Education Amendments was passed. It is a well-known federal law that prohibits gender discrimination in educational institutions that receive federal funding (National Women's Law Center, 2000). It is commonly known for its success in opening the door to athletics for women and girls. However, the impact of Title IX on coaching opportunities has not matched its promise. In 1972, over 90% of the coaches for women's collegiate teams were women. In 1990, only 47.3% were women (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992). Before Title IX, same gender coaches were the norm. Because it became more lucrative after Title IX was passed, a larger number of men began applying for and were hired for positions as coaches for women's teams. During the year Title IX was enacted, over 99% of men's collegiate teams were coached by males (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992). The same is true today, almost 30 years later.

The Women in Athletic Training Committee (WATC) survey (1997a) revealed that women and men had the equal knowledge, skills, and education required to be successful in the profession as well as in leadership positions. However, women had fewer opportunities for advancement than men and received less financial compensation. A recent report published by the NATA (2000) showed that women certified athletic trainers (ATC's), on average, earned approximately $10,000 less per year than male ATC's.

When women were asked what concerns or obstacles confronted them as women in the profession of athletic training, the most common answers were family/personal life, lack of opportunities, the "good old boys' network," and salary (WATC, 1997a). Men were asked the same question regarding themselves. Their answers included quotas/affirmative action, long hours, and the "good old boys' network" prevents younger men from participation in leadership activities (WATC, 1997b). A majority of the men polled also suggested that there is a reverse discrimination issue that needs to be addressed.

Whether these rankings reflect reality is perhaps less important than the fact that they reflect perceptions. In this case, it is the male perception that carries the greatest weight, simply because in 84.1% of our college and university athletic programs, a male makes the personnel decisions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992).

To further the above research, a study by Booth (2000) concluded that there are issues of gender equity and barriers to advancement for women in athletic training. She also concluded that women athletic trainers perceive these barriers in ways different than men, in concurrence with aforementioned research by the WATC (1997a /1997b).

The NATA was founded in 1950 by 101 athletic trainers (Samet & Sweet, 2001). No women members were recorded at that time (Graham & Schlabach, 2001). Early research on the experiences of the first women to enter the male-dominated profession of athletic training showed that these women were oppressed, and that they were excluded from access to programs, facilities, equipment, budgets, high risk sports, and supervision that were accessible to men (Anderson, 1991). This oppression kept them silent, isolated, and powerless. A lack of understanding and support of the role of women athletic trainers by other professionals was reported by all thirteen participants in Anderson's study. All participants were identified as being certified as athletic trainers between January 1, 1970 and December 31, 1974, the same era as the enactment of the Title IX legislation.

While these women loved their working relationship with athletes and student athletic trainers, many could not continue working the long hours for a limited salary, nor could they develop and nurture a social life, family life, or maintain the energy needed to deal with the daily

aspects of their personal lives. Of the 13 women interviewed, only three remained working within a traditional athletic training setting (Anderson, 1991). The remaining ten women had moved into other working environments that did not place such an excessive demand on their time and that provided better economic opportunities. Two decades later, a 1995 WATC survey found that quality of life issues were still the number one challenge for women in the profession (Schlabach, 2001). One woman recently interviewed stated that, "What tends to suffer, especially for women in this profession, is personal time. It's difficult to set aside time to do things like work out or eat lunch" (Hunt, 2002).

Currently, women make up 45% of the NATA certified membership (Nussbaum & Rogers, 2000). However, the fact still remains that less than 1% of these women have ever held key leadership positions in the NATA (Anderson, 1992). Becoming accepted as a member of a male-dominated team is not easy for women (Rusin, 2001). The WATC (1997a) showed that only 0.2% of female athletic trainers pursue leadership roles in the NATA at the national level. Almost 78% of the women believed that women would like either to pursue leadership roles, but those roles are not available, or that women perceive pressure from men not to pursue leadership roles. Ninety-three percent of all women surveyed had never been asked to serve on NATA committees on the national, state, or district level. These same women also reported that 63% of them were excluded from male networks, and 96.8% agreed that preference is given to male candidates for professional team positions. In order to improve upon this issue, women must motivate themselves to assume positions of authority and leadership and to support and encourage other women to pursue these positions (Depauw et al., 1991).

A survey of men in athletic training indicated that 21% of men have pursued leadership roles in the NATA at the national level. In agreement with the opinion of women athletic trainers, over 70% of men feel that women would like to pursue leadership roles, but those roles are not available; they also believe that women perceive the pressure not to pursue leadership roles. Almost half of the men surveyed reported that they believe that women are excluded from male networks, and over 97% believe that preference is given to male candidates for professional athletics employment settings (WATC, 1997b).

It is evident that there is overwhelmingly male-dominated control at the top of the NATA, leaving few role models for career-minded women (Rusin, 2001). The fact that men are aware of the discriminatory practices in athletic training may be promising. In 2000, a woman assumed presidency of the NATA, becoming the first female to serve the association in that capacity (Graham & Schlabach, 2001). However, the fact that the NATA still has to have a committee dedicated to women in athletic training is evidence that inequity continues to oppress women in the profession (Grove, 1999). Samet and Sweet (2001) were hopeful and indicated that future leadership opportunities for women were expected to increase as the NATA continues to grow.

Women will comprise 47% of the total workforce by 2005 (Mathis & Jackson, 2000), a percentage similar to the number of women who are currently certified members of the NATA. The work world is predominantly the world of men, but family life is still predominantly the responsibility of women (Rusin, 2001). This double standard is extremely prevalent in the athletic training profession. About half of all women currently working are single, separated, divorced, widowed, or otherwise single heads of households (Mathis & Jackson, 2000). Consequently, they are the "primary" income earners. A consequence of this situation is that balancing work and family issues will continue to grow in importance for women. Nussbaum and Rogers (2000) reported that of women employed as ATC's surveyed, 86% reported feeling a greater conflict between family and professional responsibilities than their male counterparts.

Women ATC's employed in Division I National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) jobs experienced detriments to combining motherhood with their professional responsibilities at this level of employment (Nussbaum & Rogers, 2000). Some of these detriments included long hours, travel demands, odd hours, and burnout. In the nine-question survey mailed to 97 NCAA Division I colleges in the USA, women (both mothers and women without children) reported their concerns about working while maintaining a family life.

As liberated as some aspects of our society may seem, the primary role of raising children still falls on women (Rusin, 2001). Ninety-three percent of all mothers polled in NCAA Division I athletic training jobs needed to use some form of child care. Only 26% stated that their colleges provided day care facilities (Nussbaum & Rogers, 2000). Two-thirds of women without children reported that they felt it would be very difficult or impossible to work at the NCAA Division I level and have a child.

Family demands were reported to add stress to both the mothers and coworkers who were asked to cover for their colleagues. Mothers who may have to take leave on short notice or leave work early may seem like less of a team player to the other staff members (Rusin, 2001). Many respondents of the questionnaire reported negative reactions to the added responsibilities placed upon them by co-workers with children (Nussbaum & Rogers, 2000).

Despite many concerns, it is still possible to have a family and work as a woman ATC. Over half of the mothers employed as ATC's surveyed identified factors that would make balancing their demands easier. These included a supportive partner, understanding supervisors, decreased travel responsibilities, and help from a support system (Nussbaum & Rogers, 2000).

Related Theories

The core belief of the feminist theory is that men and women should be equal politically, economically, and socially; however, different branches of feminism exist. Individualist feminism tends to encompass the men widely and focuses on the barriers that women and men face due to their gender. Gender feminism holds the belief that in order for men and women to be equal, women must be granted some special privileges. For example, the National Organization for Women publicly supports women who wish to enter traditionally all male schools, but does not necessarily believe that men should be able to enter all female schools.

Equity theory is used in comparing an employee's work inputs and outputs with those of his or her co-workers. If the employee perceives inequity, she or he will act to correct the inequity, utilizing one of the following four actions: lower productivity, reduced quality, increased absenteeism, and voluntary resignation. If the person's work input to output ratio is not perceived to be equal, he or she will usually strive to restore equity; this balancing is often accomplished by women ATC's by leaving the profession.

Discussion

The importance of networking to women and their access to sport leadership positions cannot be overemphasized (Rusin, 2001). Networking is more than being friends; it is sharing ideas and experiences of others. The majority of women ATC's surveyed suggested that the NATA must encourage networking and support role models (WATC, 1997a). Women are encouraged to find a peer or someone who has had their job before and ask them for advice (Rusin, 2001). Sharing power, influence, and expertise with other women through networking can help overcome traditional barriers in the male dominance of sport (Depauw et al., 1991).

Mentors are especially important in helping women to grow and mature as leaders (Rusin, 2001). Not only can they offer advice on specific problems, but they cal also suggest what women need to be working toward for career advancement. Both male and female sport leaders who can serve effectively as mentors should be sought. Establishing cross-gender associations can also be effective in changing the attitudes of some of the "good old boys" toward women in sport leadership positions (Depauw et al., 1991).

To address these issues, the WATC is committed to not only improving the conditions for women ATC's in the workplace but also strengthening bonds between the many generations of women ATC's (Ringer & McAuliff, 2001). A systematic planning effort should entail projecting into the future and developing plans to include women among the decision makers and leaders of sport worldwide (Depauw et al., 1991). Inclusion helps more than just women; it strengthens the entire profession (Grove, 1999). Other strategies to assist women working in the field of athletic training include greater flexibility in work patterns or schedules; more variety in benefits programs and human resource policies, including child-care assistance and parental-leave programs; job placement assistance for working spouses; and greater awareness of gender-related legal issues (Mathis & Jackson, 2000).

Specific ways to foster equity in athletic training also include in-service workshops on discriminatory practices and attitudes, leadership training institutes, national identification programs for potential leaders, recognition for research on leadership issues for women, internship programs, and strong recruitment efforts (Depauw et al., 1991). Because women are becoming increasingly more involved in the profession, the above ideas need to be employed to help prevent competent ATC's from leaving their profession. The responsibility for change lies within both women and men involved in athletic training, but especially with those who occupy positions of leadership and authority, regardless of their gender (Shinew & Hibbler, 2002)

Ghandi spoke of three levels of human interaction. The first and lowest level involves seeing differences between people and, therefore, treating people differently. The second level involves seeing differences but treating people equally despite these differences. The third and ideal level is no longer seeing differences and treating all equally (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992). Title IX has been a stepping-stone from the first to the second level. For tomorrow's sake, we, as well as our sons and daughters, need to strive toward equity and moving past level two today.

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The Effects of a Family-Based Educational Intervention on the Prevention of Lead Poisoning in Children

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Abstract: Parents completed a survey measuring their knowledge of lead poisoning. Children, 24 to 36 months old received two blood lead level screens. Parents in the treatment group showed significantly higher scores on the posttest, and their children showed greater decreased blood lead levels than participants in the control group.

Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Lead exposure even in asymptomatic cases may endure through one's lifetime and may be an accurate indicator of neurobehavioral defects as well as intellectual educational performance (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1991). Children who survive the effects of lead poisoning exhibit neurological disorders along with behavioral manifestations presenting as attention deficits and aggressive behavior (Marlowe, Schneider & Bliss, 1991). An 11-year longitudinal study demonstrated the effects of lead exposure sustained in childhood on adults. Children exposed to lead had a seven-fold risk of not graduating from high school, and had reading scores two grades lower than expected. This study indicated that lower socioeconomic individuals had higher lead levels, lower intelligence quotients (IQ) and lower teacher scores related to classroom behavior. This supports the findings that the effects of lead are greater for those with a low socioeconomic status (Needleman, Schell, Bellinger, Leviton, & Allred, 1990).

Significance of the Study

While the link between the cause and effects of lead poisoning has been identified and well studied, the application of lead health education as the mechanism of disease prevention has not. Although epidemiological, environmental and medical research have isolated the problem of lead intoxication in lower socioeconomic populations, there is a dearth of studies that have identified educational programs designed to be used in conjunction with such scientific findings. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention CDC (1997) suggests that to improve lead poisoning presentation strategies, additional research is needed in "the effectiveness of family education about lead poisoning prevention in preventing BLL elevations or in reducing already elevated blood lead levels" (p. 115).

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study is to examine whether caregiver participation in a family-based educational intervention can result in a decrease in lead body burden in low socioeconomic children.

Hypotheses

1. Three to four months post intervention, children whose caregivers received the educational intervention will have lower blood lead levels (BLLs) than children whose caregivers were in the control group.

2. Following the intervention, caregivers who received the educational intervention will have higher scores on the Chicago Lead Knowledge Test (CLKT) than caregivers in the control group.

Method

Participants

Sixty-three (n=63) children aged one to three years, with MediPass (Medicaid) as their health insurance, were randomly selected from among those families who chose the Children's Diagnostic and Treatment Center (CDTC) as their health care provider. These participants were randomly assigned to two groups with 32 and 31 participants in each group, respectively. The group of 32 was designated the treatment group while the group of 31 served as the control group. The mean ages of the participants in the pediatric sample were 23.5 months in the treatment group and 21.5 months in the control group.

Design

The experimental design of this study involved two clinic visits. Parents in the treatment group were given the educational intervention during the first clinic visit while those in the control group were given the intervention during the second clinic visit. The intervention was reinforced with a lead education information brochure written by the researcher coupled with a video on childhood lead poisoning. The primary care physician at CDTC supervised the child's medical care during the two clinic visits, and a well-trained phlebotomist in the CDTC laboratory drew the child's blood via venipuncture for blood lead testing. Blood lead levels were drawn about three to four months apart as determined by well-child check-up schedules.

Instrumentation

One instrument, the Chicago Lead Knowledge Test (CLKT) was used to test parental knowledge of lead poisoning during the first and second clinic visits. The test was administered as a pre- and post-intervention measure. The instrument consisted of 24 questions with a true, false or "do not know" response. The score revealed parental knowledge about lead in the categories of health education, environmental exposure, prevention and nutrition (Mehta & Binns, 1998).

Procedures

The first clinic visit. The first visit consisted of two components: a well-child check-up with blood lead screening for all pediatric participants, followed by parental lead education for the treatment group only. The trainer presented parents in both the treatment and the control groups with general information about the study and about blood lead testing. They were offered the opportunity to ask questions about the study. After the research was thoroughly discussed, the trainer read the informed consent to the parent if requested to do so by the parent. Parents were asked to sign the informed consent after all their questions about the study were answered. Then parents were asked to complete the CLKT (pre- intervention) to determine their previous knowledge of lead poisoning. The trainer assisted the parent in reading the test if requested. After the test, parents in the control group were asked to return to clinic in three to four months for their intervention, while parents in the treatment group were given the intervention.

The second clinic visit. This visit consisted of two components: a well-child check-up with blood lead screening for all child participants, followed by parental lead education for the control group. Both groups were given the CLKT (Post-test) at this visit. The control group parents were given the test to determine parental knowledge of lead poisoning prior to the intervention, as well as to ascertain knowledge, if any, that the parents may have learned from other sources during the three to four month period between well-child check-ups. Parents were given the option of having the test read to them by the trainer or by reading it themselves.

Stimulus Materials. A print-based module written by the researcher was used as the basis of parental lead education. The educational intervention occurred interactively between the trainer and parent. A video was used to show methods they could use in the home to prevent lead poisoning (Needham, 1994). After a question and answer period geared to the needs of the family, parents were given an informational brochure written by the researcher highlighting the risks of childhood lead exposure including factors that affect the home environment, behaviors that mitigate risk, and the need for proper nutrition. The brochure was used as a reinforcement measure summarizing the intervention and enabling family members to review the brochure as a reference guide.

Results

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used as a statistical measure to test the two hypotheses. All child participants regardless of their group assignment made appointments approximately three to four months between the first and second clinic visits. After this period of time, 13 caregivers (four in the treatment group and nine in the control group) were "no-shows" to clinic, i.e., they did not bring their child to CDTC for their follow-up well-child check-up. Consequently, these individuals did not keep their second clinic appointment to conclude this study. All "no-shows" were eliminated from the study. Since 50 families (n=50) completed the study--28 in the treatment group and 22 in the control group--all subsequent data reported in this study will account for only those families.

The blood lead data resulting from the first clinical visit showed that 46 (92%) children had BLLs within normal limits ranging from 0.6 to 7.1 μg/dL. Twenty-four children (86%) in the treatment group presented BLLs ranging from 0.9 to 6.8 μg/dL, while 22 (100%) of the children in the control group presented BLLs ranging from 0.6 to 7.1 μg/dL. However, four (8% of the whole sample) children in the treatment exhibited BLLs ranging from 10.2 to 16.6 μg/dL determined abnormal by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) were found in the treatment group.

Data from the second clinic visit indicated that the BLLs of the children (n= 50) ranged from 2.0 to 12.3 μg/dL. Children in the treatment group (n=28) who had BLLs within normal limits after the first clinic visit presented BLLs ranging from 1.1 to 9.8 μg/dL after the second visit. Those children (n=4) with elevated BLLs after the first clinic visit presented BLLs ranging from 7.5 to 12.3 μg/dL after the second clinical visit. Two of the four (50%) had BLLs that dropped into the normal range after the intervention. Pediatric participants in the control group (n=22) had BLLs ranging from 2.0 to 6.7 μg/dL. None of the participants in the control group presented elevated BLLs.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was tested using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) using the first clinical visit (pretreatment) BLL as the covariate, the second clinic visit (post treatment) BLL as the dependent variable, and the group membership (either treatment or control) as the independent variable. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the variables.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Blood Lead Levels and the Chicago Lead Knowledge Test

	First Clinic Visit		Second Clinic Visit	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Experimental Group (n = 28)				
Blood Lead Level (μg/dL)	4.54	3.71	4.50	20.36
Chicago Lead Knowledge Test	13.94	4.64	20.36	2.33
Control Group (n = 22)				
Blood Lead Level (μg/dL)	2.64	1.43	3.77	1.45
Chicago Lead Knowledge Test	10.68	3.79	9.95	3.44

Table 2 presents the source table for the analysis of covariance.

Table 2

ANCOVA Source Table

Source	df	F	η	p
First clinical visit blood lead level	1	109.94	.701	.000*
Group	1	2.18	.044	.147
Error	47	(1.86)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors

* $p < .01$.

An important statistic that should be noted in the ANCOVA is a low observed power ($1 - \beta = .304$), which can probably be attributed to the low number of participating families in the study and the homogeneity of the groups, and consequently it is very possible that the failure to reject the null hypothesis about differences between groups in adjusted second clinical visit blood lead levels was a result of Type II error.

An alternative way to examine this data might be to note the changes of blood lead levels of participants between the first and second clinic visits as shown in Table 3. The proportion of participants whose blood lead levels decreased at least 10% from the first to the second clinic visit was higher in the treatment group (10 participants or 35.7%) than in the control group (1 participant or 4.5%). Fisher's Exact Test of the null hypothesis, that the proportion of participants receiving treatment who had a greater than 10% decrease in blood lead level is equal to or less than the proportion of those in the control group who had a greater than 10% decrease in blood lead level between clinic visits yields $p = .008$ ($\Phi = .373$), allowed for the conclusion that participants in the treatment group were more likely to show decreases in blood lead levels than those in the control group.

Table 3

Changes in Blood Lead Level Between the First and Second Clinical Visits

	Treatment Group		Control Group	
	n	%	n	%
Decrease > 10%	10	35.7	1	4.5
Change ≤ 10%	8	28.6	4	18.2
Increase > 10%	10	35.7	17	77.3
Total	28	100	22	100

Further, the goal of an educational program designed to deal with blood lead levels of children could also be thought of as preventing the increase of this phenomenon. In that case, it can be seen in Table 3 that only 10 (35.7%) of the participants whose caregivers received the educational treatment presented increased blood lead levels of more than 10% while 17 (77.3%) of the participants whose caregivers did not receive the educational treatment presented similar increases. Fisher's Exact Test of the null hypothesis, that the proportion of participants receiving treatment who had a greater than 10% increase in blood lead level is equal to or greater than the proportion of those in the control group who had a greater than 10% increase in blood lead level between clinic visits yields $p = .004$ (Φ - .414), allowed for the conclusion that participants in the treatment group were less likely to show increases in blood lead levels than those in the control group.

Hypothesis 2

An ANCOVA was used to test the second hypothesis where the covariate is the pretreatment CLKT score, the posttreatment CLKT scores as the dependent variable, and the group membership (either treatment or control) as the independent variable. The Pearson's Product Moment correlation between the first clinic visit CLKT score and the second clinic visit CLKT score was .541 ($p < .01$).

Table 4 presents the source table for the analysis of covariance.

Table 4

ANCOVA Source Table

Source	df	F	η	p
First CLKT	1	25.06	.348	.000*
Group	1	175.94	.789	.000*
Error	47	(5.49)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors

* $p < .01$

The findings support the hypothesis that caregivers in the treatment group have significantly higher scores on the second clinic visit scores on the CLKT than the caregivers in the control group. This suggests that the educational treatment is effective in increasing the knowledge of caregivers about the dangers of lead poisoning and prevention strategies.

Discussion

This research demonstrated that parents are capable of learning lead education, are competent in applying the training in the home, and are able to retain the knowledge taught in the intervention over time. The education was the significant factor in lowering blood lead levels in children. Parents who have completed a lead education intervention are aware of the dangers of pediatric lead intoxication, and understand the need for being proactive in family lead poisoning prevention.

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Recognizing the Value of Teaching Proverbs: Multicultural Origins of Oral and Written Literacy

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to explore the use of multicultural proverbs in interdisciplinary and cross-cultural instruction through the language arts, history and social sciences. Educators can use proverbs to engage students in learning, enhance their understanding of other cultures and languages, and promote a globally-sensitive community.

Students come into the classroom with a rich heritage of personal, experiential and acquired knowledge from their parents and community. Teachers need to draw from these uniquely personal understandings and allow the student to share their familial and historical perceptions within the classroom and in their readings. The reader combines personal knowledge and experience, knowledge of history and cultures, experience with values and ideas, and knowledge of other pieces of literature (Christenbury, 2000). When teachers allow students to reflect on and share their perceptions in the classroom, the teacher is affirming the students' knowledge and participation, opening up discourse, and encouraging students to "make a community of meaning" (Christenbury, 2000, p. 132). One of the avenues to help develop this community of meaning is by examining proverbs, which are learned through oral literacy, through parental and generational teachings, and through cross-cultural studies, which can be implemented in the teaching of language arts, social studies and/or history. Proverbs were and are primary tools for teaching children in all cultures and communities throughout the world. The purpose of this paper is to encourage educators to understand the origin of oral literacy, which preceded the written word, and how multicultural proverbs can effectively be used to engage students in participating in literary and cultural understanding.

Historical Perspective

In Non-Western Educational Traditions (2000), Reagan writes about the communal approach and oral tradition of learning in non-Western societies, which bring about the understanding of common principles that different groups use to accomplish their educational practices. All cultures share different types of proverbs and parables, which serve as foundational tools of guidance and instruction. Proverbs are conduits of oral literacy, which enhance communal learning. Lee (1993) reveals how oral traditions of teaching, which are primary tools in all native and ethnic communities, develop into a written literature that has universal commonalities. Proverbs represent a legitimate literary source from which students can incorporate their understanding as it applies to their knowledge and experiential base. Lee (1993) states, "Voice is the metaphor of empowerment" (p. 19). Educators can grasp the opportunity to integrate proverbs, both researched and those shared by the students, as a teaching tool, which will engage students and enhance their understanding of the world around them. Communal proverbs can be valued for their pragmatic use as a vehicle for instruction in teaching the cross-cultural origins and applications of shared wisdom through oral and written literacy.

Historically, African Americans have used proverbs and other forms of storytelling (tongue twisters, riddles, parables, etc.) to sustain their diverse cultures as uprooted and unwilling participants in forced servitude in the Americas (Reagan, 2002). As slaves were not allowed to learn to read and write, they used these forms of oral literacy for instructional and entertainment purposes; these were sometimes imbedded with meaning only understood among the African slaves—much like a verbal form of masking.

Sharing proverbs is a positive avenue and door opener for engaging students of diverse cultural backgrounds and interacting with their peers from a prior knowledge-based heritage rich with generational discourse. Proverbs serve for edification, teaching, warnings, admonishments, as well as maintenance for the survival of the family, community and culture. Professor Kofi Asare Opoku, who has invested considerable research in the proverbs of African countries, states, "The Yoruba of Nigeria emphasize the value of proverbs by saying, 'A proverb is the horse that can carry one swiftly to the discovery of ideas'" as cited in Diener and Lieber (2001, p. 1). Proverbs promote intercultural and interdisciplinary connectedness in language arts, history and the social sciences. Cook (1993) compiled proverbs into categories such as: peace of mind, happiness, acceptance, forgiveness, helping other people, a higher power or God, faith and belief, self-acceptance, self-knowledge, self-reliance, simplicity, the past, the present, hope and an array of other categories, which are common concerns and challenges for all humankind.

Practical Application

According to the Florida Sunshine State Standards (1996) and the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Standards for the English Language Arts (1996), multicultural instruction should be included on a regular basis. Specifically, some of the NCTE/IRA standards address multicultural inclusion and encourage the development of the student's understanding regarding language and cultural diversity as applied to geographic regions and social roles, consequently promoting a respect for different language patterns and societal norms. As students contribute and apply their own literary and historical understanding of proverbs, they become reflective participatory actors in a global community. The application of proverbs in the classroom can facilitate cultural and literary understanding as well as fostering creativity. Students can be asked to consider proverbs from other regions of the world, come up with similar proverbs in their own part of the world, and create new proverbs according to the social problems that face them today. Further application would be to incorporate them in music, dance, drama and art.

Some ways in which proverbs are taught are in such forms as easily digestible couplets, haikus, aphorisms, truisms, or within parables. Sometimes their forms are not readily recognizable, but are "certainly proverbial" (Dance, 2002, p. 456). Proverbs are characterized by brevity, but can have multiple applications and layers of encoded meaning (Moon, 1997). Students can be asked to decode the meaning of such proverbs, which originally may have been applicable only to an intended circle, such as the Navajo proverb, "I have been to the end of the earth" (Aboriginal Archive). Where or what is the end of the earth [to the Navajo]? Or does this mean the end of one's life—life is now finished? Students can use critical thinking to analyze these proverbs and understand basic cultural values as well as cross-cultural applications. Educators might challenge students to decode messages and understand why a particular proverb is culture-bound by understanding the people and their cultural norms. Another application might be to have the students create their own culture-bound proverbs. Students can formulate proverbs that address the social issues that they face as they pertain to their particular schools or

communities. Simeone (1995) uses the game *Chalkboard Pictionary* to teach African proverbs while encouraging students to use multiple intelligences by visualizing and translating their understanding into metaphorical symbols and pictures and strengthening their inferential skills. She states that proverbs ask us to use words to "see images with the mind's eye," something which is very difficult for concrete thinkers to do. She states that the "process of translating these metaphors and symbols to pictures enables these students to make the language connection and, it is hoped, to strengthen their inferential skills" (Simeone, 1995, para. 13). Simeone uses African proverbs, such as "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush," to encourage students to translate symbols and metaphors into pictures. Thus, as the students visualize, conceptualize, infer meaning, and translate into pictures, they are processing multiple intelligences.

Proverbs, whether referred to as a maxim, wise saying, rule of conduct, aphorism, an adage, native or conventional wisdom, fundamental principle or truth, analect or precept, all have cross-cultural connections, which can open dialogue. Many of the analects of Confucius are culture-bound, but many more have cross-cultural commonalities, such as "To study and not think is a waste. To think and not study is dangerous" (Analect 2:15). Students can share their own understandings of multicultural proverbs (See Table I) through classroom discourse and written application such as (a) rephrasing, (b) comparative pieces, analyzing different culturally derived proverbs, (c) using proverbs in the heading of each journal entry, and (d) expressing them though individual creativity in poetry, prose, music and art. Proverbs contain imagery, and "are employed frequently to give point and add color to conversation, and their skillful use is a mark of erudition and elegance of speech in African societies" (Messenger, 2002, para. 4). As part of an oral exercise, students can develop their presentation skills by interpreting proverbs in front of the classroom. Through proverbs, students will learn about brevity in writing and speech, poetic meaning, sometimes rhyme, alliteration, assonance, and other literary techniques that enhance oral and written literacy. Cruz and Duff (1996) look at the student as an opportunity to draw a wealth of information from the personal resources, through familial understanding, that the student brings into the classroom. As they stated, "*Cada cabeza es un mundo,*" or "Each head is a world in itself."

Educators need to look at their students as resources, having a wealth of information to contribute to the classroom discussion. The usefulness of proverbs has crossed cultures and endured through centuries of oral and written literacy; their usefulness continues to affect the way students learn at home and how they integrate that learning within the school environment. Cruz and Duff ask three important questions: (a) How are we in the classroom not just tapping but enriching those funds of knowledge? (b) What are we doing to get students to know that they know? (c) What are we doing to help learners see each other as resources toward a community knowledge? It is up to the educator to tap the very resources that they have before them, the students, and promote bridge-building opportunities of understanding among the students. Students can use their multiple intelligences in interpretation through art, such as posters, cards, and murals depicting the people and practices of other cultures; through music, using instruments to emphasize meaning; and through dance and drama. Many students complain that their ethnic or racial group is not sufficiently and positively reflected in posters and images throughout the school and classroom. Administrators and teachers could permit students of multicultural backgrounds to draw and paint murals on specified walls and areas in the school (hallways, cafeteria, classrooms, chorus rooms, gym rooms, etc.) and include global proverbial sayings that would give the students a sense of personal pride, which is reflected from their geographic origin

(or their parents), as well as recognizing the commonalities that they share with their fellow students.

Table 1. Multicultural Proverbs[1]

Multicultural Proverbs	
Country, people, or Language	**Proverb**
Yoruba	The man who has bread to eat does not appreciate the severity of a famine.
Nigeria	A wealthy man will always have followers.
Somalia	Wisdom does not come overnight.
Swahili	Who digs the well should not be refused water.
Sierra Leone	To try and fail is not laziness.
South African	The drums of war are the drums of hunger.
Ivorian	The death of an elderly man is like a burning library.
Moussi	Little by little the bird builds its nest.
Ivorian	Until the snake is dead, do not drop the stick.
Aristotle	Dignity does not consist in possessing honors, but in deserving them.
Aristotle	I count him braver who overcomes his desires than him who conquers his enemies; for the hardest victory is over self.
Maya Angelou	There is no agony like bearing an untold story inside of you.
Abigail Adams	We have too many sounding words and too few actions that correspond with them.
Mahatma Gandhi	No culture can live, if it attempts to be exclusive.
William Shakespeare	There is a history in all men's lives.
Malcolm X	Education is our passport to the future, for tomorrow belongs to the people who prepare for it today.
Anne Frank	Think of all the beauty still left around you and be happy.
Standing Bear, Sioux	The old Lakota was wise. He knew that a man's heart away from nature becomes hard.
Eleanor Roosevelt	No one can make you feel inferior without your consent.
Confucius, Analect 2:15	To study and not think is a waste. To think and not study is dangerous.
Sukuma	The wind does not break the tree that bends.
Ruth Graham	Just pray for a tough hide and a tender heart.
Moussi	Little by little the bird builds its nest.
Swahili	If you do not seal the holes, you will have to rebuild the walls.
Rudyard Kipling	Borrow trouble for yourself, if that's your nature, but don't lend it to your neighbors.
Voltaire	It is far better to be silent than merely to increase the quantity of bad books.

Conclusion

Educators have multiple opportunities to incorporate proverbs into their teaching strategies. Dance (2002) states, "the individual who can contribute traditional wisdom to the argument in the form of a proverb or who can make his case in eloquent and memorable language wins a number of points" (p. 454). As shown in Cruz and Duff's study of proverbial instruction, students were allowed to share their personal knowledge, engage in literary discourse, and use multiple intelligences to interpret ancient proverbs and create their own understandings through language, art and music. "Like other forms of folklore, proverbs are constantly evolving. Many of them seem to continue from time immemorial. Other pass out of currency or are recast in modified form, appearing in completely new contexts" (Dance, 2002, p. 455). Proverbs invite

[1] Taken from the following: African Proverbs (2002); African Proverbs, Sayings and Stories (2002); The Book of Positive Quotations (1996); The Aboriginal Elders Archive (2002); Art Glenn's Homepage (1997)

students to explore their own understandings and prior knowledge, interconnect their understandings with those of the students and the teacher, and promote interdisciplinary understanding.

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Multicultural Literacy in Education: Meeting the Objectives of the Florida Sunshine State Standards

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to show how incorporating multicultural literacy in education can meet the Florida Sunshine State Standards to promote a more equitable approach to classroom discourse and a qualitative teacher-facilitated learning environment for students who reflect a multicultural and global community.

Multicultural inclusion is specifically addressed in Florida's *Sunshine State Standards* (Florida Department of Education, 1996) in response to our ever-changing national demographics as well as the need for a global perspective in our educational system. Multicultural education refers to "an idea or concept, an educational reform movement, and a process. It incorporates the idea that all students, regardless of their gender, social class, ethnicity, or race, would have equal opportunities to learn in school" (Parla, 1994, p. 2). Historically, the teaching of literature and social studies has focused on the literary canon, which incorporates the viewpoints and stories of a Eurocentric society. Furthermore, many of these viewpoints and stories have been biased with language that not only has, according to Knapp and Woolverton (1995), *linguistic gaps* (or what one might refer to as monolingual preferences), but the language has also been derogatory and disempowering when it has made mention of minority groups. The American ideology of schools as the great equalizer are not yet our realties, as can be attested to by the difficulty of students to transcend class boundaries and teachers' perceptions of student capability based on class (Knapp & Woolverton, 1995). Clearly, our educational approaches have yet to be inclusive of all groups. Historically, children of immigrants have had to assimilate and adopt the language and culture of the host country. The last few decades have reflected a resolute effort of various minority groups to bring about a more participatory democracy, one in which all groups might have a voice and have their views, language, history and artistic expressions reflected in the curriculum in public education.

In promoting multicultural inclusion, as identified by Powell (2001), who refers to the *monocultural* education that American students have historically received, Florida's *Sunshine State Standards* (Florida Department of Education, 1996) have incorporated several objectives to achieve a more equitable and multicultural approach for educators. Specifically, the focus will be on the standards required for the English language arts; however, some attention will focus on the Social Studies criteria for the *Sunshine State Standards.* Standards provide a foundation from which educators can build an edifice of equitable and participatory transaction for both teachers and students. Also, the purpose of standards is also to implement an accountability system (Cummins, 2001, p. 649). If the standards are properly implemented, there should be positive outcomes for both student and teacher performances and students will be prepared to take their roles as more knowledgeable participants in a global community.

Review of Literature

Since the late 1960s, there has been a more concerted focus by educators and politicians regarding the problems of inequitable approaches to race, class and gender. Gorski and Covert (1996; 2000) state that multicultural education is in a constant state of evolution through the

process of refocusing, transforming, and being reconceptualized. Still, there remains a broad gap between what has actually been achieved and what needs to be achieved in the way of an egalitarian approach. The problem with educational reform is that the pace is slow, inadequate, and met with multiple barriers, which include special interest groups, the lack of state and federal interventions, lack of representation among minorities, and disproportionate funding.

Christenbury (1994) has acknowledged that the increasing Hispanic (Latino) and Asian populations in the United States are rapidly increasing and changing the demographics of our nation. Bruder's (1992) research stated that one-third of the youth in the United States will be residing in California, Texas, New York and Florida by the year 2010. The non-White proportions of this population will be 57% within California and Texas and 53% within Florida and New York; it is expected that the descendants of these populations will represent 40% of the overall population by the year 2050 (Bruder, 1992). In order for all groups to have equal access, their voices must be heard and represented at an early onset in education, where students can learn to value their worth and build their self-awareness. A multicultural approach, which is inclusive of all groups, would help to bridge the gap between the educational approach that America's schools claim to have as the *great equalizer* (Knapp & Woolverton, 1995) to that which actually exists, which is still a separation of ethnic groups and stratification among social classes with limited access to the poor. Historically, attempts have been made to implement reforms that would affirm various ethnic groups; however, educators need to look around and assess the cultural composition in their classrooms and judiciously reflect the same in their curriculum choices and methods of instruction. Clearly, the "mobility process" accounts for the reasons African Americans and other minority and underprivileged groups relate to "academic engagement in predictable ways, " which are their perceptions of educational opportunity and disdain for the educational system as it accommodates the White and upper classes, and leaves minorities out of the loop (O'Connor, 1999, p. 137). This gap is widened when the literature, history and culture reflect only one element of society. Students feel powerless and do not want to engage in literary transaction of the canon, because their voices are not reflected there (Rosenblatt, 1995). The attempt is not to throw the literary canon out of academia and public education, but to engage students in critical analyses of these selections, address the inaccuracies and biased perceptions and invite alternate viewpoints and multicultural literary expressions.

Naidoo (1993) places critical importance on diverse resources and confronting difficult issues within the historical context, which would address the multiple ethnicities reflected in our classrooms. It is necessary to confront painful issues like slavery from different perspectives. The failure of truthful confrontation and multicultural expressionism are evident in O'Connor's (1999) research: "Ethnographic research on working-class, minority, and female youths' resistance to schooling accounted for how students recognized class- and gender-related constraints in addition to race-related barriers" (p. 138). The failure of educators to provide literature that mirrors minority struggles, viewpoints and aspirations is indicative of these groups failing in academic settings. They are resistant to an immersion of literature, which fails to address their realities. Educators need to affirm every child's identity, struggles, and self-worth.

Implications and Implementing the Standards

Minority groups desire to have their voices heard and reflected in the educational arena from the early stages of learning. Naidoo (1993) explains that "all young children seem to have a strong sense of what is 'fair' as well as an expectation of just treatment, unless they have been emotionally scarred at an early age" (p. 266). Children want reaffirming and historically

accurate stories about themselves, which are valued. "Empowerment is not an inherent birthright or a capacity acquired automatically as individuals move through life. Rather, it results from teaching and learning" (Gay & Hanley, 1999, p. 364). A more balanced paradigm in literacy can be realized when educators reflect the cultural perspectives and voices of other groups in the curricula, through literature, history, social studies and interdisciplinary studies. Historically, control has been through language, behavioral expectations and differential treatment, which have reinforced the social political status quo; however, through social and political activism, minorities are beginning to resist oppression and take an active, aggressive participation in the construction of their own reality (Knapp & Woolverton, 1995). Teachers, students and parents must move toward an inclusive, tolerant and affirming classroom environment.

One of the greatest challenges of the teacher of literature is to understand how readers think about and discuss literary works. This involves understanding student perceptions and how they process information. It is clear that the processes involved in reading literature are both intellectual and social, which can be observed in two ways: a) an informative process, and b) reading for literary understanding (Langer, 1997). Consequently, the information that the students receive must reflect historical accuracy, multicultural inclusion, and invite student perceptions and participation. The second challenge is to bring in other resources to allow critical thinking opportunities when discussing literature, history and social studies. The Sunshine State Standards (1996) encourage educators to incorporate an accurate and multicultural perspective in teaching. Specifically, the objectives for the social studies curriculum, according to the *Sunshine State Standards* (1996), require that the student understands different historical periods and outcomes, such as the Age of Discovery and the consequences of European colonization in the Americas and in India (S.S.A.3.2.4). History should be taught according to cause and effect, for example, the causes of the Civil War and the effects of Reconstruction (S.S.A.3.2.6). Understanding the significance of important documents like the *Declaration of Independence*, the *United States Constitution*, and the *Bill of Rights* enables students to understand governmental processes for political change and personal empowerment (S.S.A.4.2.4). A historically accurate approach to immigration and how immigrants enhanced our nation as well as the stumbling blocks that they faced will enable the student to empathize with the struggle of building a new nation (S.S.A.5.2.1). The student will understand "the perspectives of diverse cultural, ethnic, and economic groups" in Florida's history" (S.S.A.6.2.4). When major events like World War II are presented, the student understands the "economic, political and social transformations" that affected our nation as a result of these events (S.S.A.5.2.7). Students, previously lacking a global understanding, will be able to identify the different geographic and political regions of the world and how people relate differently (S.S.B.1.2.3; S.S.B.1.2.5). Students should understand governmental branches and processes (executive, legislative, and judicial), the protection of rights, and the importance of community involvement (S.S.C.2.2.1; S.S.C.1.2.2). Finally, students should be able to critically address whether historical documents effectively achieved their fundamental precepts.

After reviewing the *Harcourt Brace Social Studies* (Florida Edition, 2002) for Fifth grade, in Unit Seven, War Divides the Nation (pp. 407-475), the authors have attempted to apply significant African American inclusion. The topics addressed are the multiple complexities of the slave economy; slave codes and lifestyles, overseers, resistance, abolitionists, the Underground Railroad, the free and slave states, confederacy, emancipation, and other multiple-related topics and historical encounters. However, the horrific treatment and incarceration of slaves preceding, during and after the *Middle Passage* are not adequately addressed. There

seems to be an apologetic explanation regarding the practices of slavery prior to European and American slave trade in the Kingdom of Benin on the Ivory Coast. It states that slave trade was a practice in Benin well before the slave trade in the Americas; however, the text goes on to state that "enslaved people were treated almost the same in Europe as in Africa. They often worked as house servants. Few owners thought of making slaves do hard work on farms or in mines" (p. 144). This reference does not effectively address the abuses of power, economic pursuits, and the deeply imbedded social impacts of the slavery experience. Therefore, the teacher, as a facilitator, should bring in additional information that would critically address the social and moral implications, hardships, economic factors, separation of families, and the physical and emotional abuses suffered by slaves. The teacher can show how the practice of slavery deprived African Americans of their cultural heritage and basic human rights. Furthermore, the teacher should include sensitive but necessary excerpts from writers and slave journals that adequately addressed the injustices. Teachers need to include supplemental material and encourage meaningful student discourse. Finally, teachers can relate this unit to other oppressed groups.

The *Sunshine State Standards* (1996) for Language Arts addresses the need for students to understand that there are a wide-range of authors from diverse backgrounds with multiple viewpoints and styles of writing that help shape the reader's perceptions; furthermore, these writers bring in their personal arguments and understandings into their writings and students must learn to think critically about these selections and should be free to incorporate their understandings in their responses. The Standards for grades 3-5 state that the student understands that words can shape perceptions and beliefs, recognizes that there are different writing styles and audiences, and different purposes for writing that can shape reactions (Standard 2: L.A.D.2.2.1; L.A.D.1.2.2; & L.A.B.2.2.3). Standard 2 for grades 6-8 emphasizes that the student must use critical thinking to understand the text, construct meaning, differentiate fact from fiction, and understand the construction of ideas, personal views and arguments (LA.A.2.3.8). The student understands the power of language and literature, how culture is transmitted, and how to identify diverse voices in the multiple literary genres (LA.D.1.3.2). The student must understand the historical and social implications of literature and how individuals respond to literary pieces in a personal way (LA.E.2.3.5), as indicative of Rosenblatt's (1995) paradigm of the reader-response approach in *Literature as Exploration*. Consequently, students will be able to understand the historical and social contexts of these literary pieces and how writer and student perceptions bring about what Christenbury (1994) refers to as a community of meaning.

The *Sunshine State Standards* criteria for language arts, grades 9-12, involve a higher level of critical thinking. Some of the objectives that are clearly defined involve the student being able to construct meaning from a wide range of texts, synthesize information, and draw conclusions (LA.A.2.4.8). The student must be able to identify bias, prejudice, or propaganda in oral messages (LA.AC.1.4.4); recognize the shifts in language from informal to formal, social and academic; and to refrain from gender and cultural biases when expressing language (LA.D.1.4.2). The student needs to understand that differences exist in dialects in the English language (LA.D.1.4.3) and that language is a powerful tool in shaping the "reactions, perceptions, and beliefs of the local, national, and global communities" (LA.D.2.4.1). The students must be able to understand multiple literary forms prevalent in the literature of all cultures (LA.E.1.4.3) and recognize different styles, themes, and structures of literary forms within a cultural and historical context (LA.E.1.4.5). Students need to think about and respond critically to various texts and forms of literature, knowing that individuals respond differently to

based on "their background knowledge, purpose, and point of view" (LA.E.2.4.8). Clearly, the objectives are implicitly formatted for educators to include multicultural practices in the classroom. However, educator biases, lack of knowledge and failure to implement these practices remain significant problems. According to Parla (1994), the failure to implement cultural inclusion indicates in-service teachers and pre-service teachers need to develop teaching strategies that reflect cultural sensitivity and linguistic diversity. Naidoo (1993), in stressing the need for affirming images regarding diverse populations, had significant questions to pose to educators and administrators: (a) How can teachers enable children to be excited about life beyond their corner of the world? How many challenge racism? (b) How many institutions have a program of inviting in people from ethnically, culturally diverse communities, for example writers, artists, dancers? (c) Have they developed a policy? (d) Does the school/college subscribe to a journal like *Multicultural Teaching*, and do staff read and discuss issues? (p. 262). Educators cannot expect students to have positive social interactions and engage in higher cognitive levels of thinking if they fail to reflect the language, literature and history of all groups.

Conclusion

Although there have been significant strides made by minority groups to have their voices heard, research indicates that the structure and policies of the educational system still fail to mirror and reflect, in a positive way, these populations. Additionally, class stratifies minority and low socio-economic populations of all races. Cartledge's (1996) research illustrates how "...teachers structured more creative and critical thinking activities for learners of middle-income families, and more meaningless activities were more common with low-income students" (p. 142). These elements of stratification, social, political and cultural, all have economic roots (Knapp & Woolverton, 1995). Administrators and educators need to rally for public policy that would appropriate and guarantee equal distribution of funds to enhance the educational experience of all children. Meanwhile, the implementation of the *Sunshine State Standards* can help to ensure that educators will provide a more equitable learning base for their students.

Educators need to be aware of their own preconceived biases, attitudes, knowledge-construction paradigms, and differential treatment of students who come from lower socio-economic classes and diverse ethnicities. They must adjust their preconceptions and come to a higher level of cognitive thinking, just as they should want their students to do—all students, not just those that they perceive to be intellectually capable. According to Spears-Bunton (1990), culturally conscious literature can lead to improvements in students' attitudes toward the reading of literature and to new ways of thinking about one's own ethnic group and the relationship among ethnic groups in the United States. Educators need to reflect and provide an interdisciplinary, cross-cultural approach to teaching, which will enhance the educational experience for all children. Curriculum development should envisage an atmosphere and "understanding of a multicultural nation and an interdependent world" (Parla, 1994, p. 2). Equal access, equal funding and inclusion will help to advance the American educational system and help to realize her claim as the great equalizer, while emerging with a more balanced paradigm for all students. Finally, Burke (1999) advocates teaching with a balanced approach by the inclusion of different literary genres, both classic and contemporary, including authors from all groups, male and female, white and those of color, and those of different cultures and perspectives. The literary pool of possibilities has enumerable choices to bring into the classroom; teachers should make choices from this pool that mirrors the particular ethnic makeup of their classrooms. Clearly, as depicted in the Florida Sunshine State Standards, educators must

be advocates for all diverse populations and create an affirming and equitable atmosphere in the classroom.

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African-American Experiences in the Workplace: Miseducation Goes a Long Way

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Abstract: The purpose of this study was to learn how Blacks believe race affects their workplace interactions with Whites and why. The most compelling finding of the study: participants believed mis-education influenced workplace interactions. The implications of the study: how the relationship between racism, racial identity and education affects workplace interactions.

Theoretical Framework

Racial identity may be defined as a "sense of group or collective identity, based on one's *perception*, that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial group" (Helms, 1990, p. 1). The various models on black and white racial identity explore the psychology or development process (stages) by which a person develops his/her racial identity (Cross, 1991; Helms, 1990; Jackson, 2001). Research suggests the development of one's racial identity begins as early as childhood years. According to Tatum (1997), children as young as three years of age recognize racial differences such as skin color, hair texture and facial features. In recognizing these differences, children begin to raise questions about their own racial identity, as well as the racial identity of others. It is when children enter adolescence, however, that they begin to grapple with serious questions regarding racial identity. Black adolescents, in particular, must think about themselves in terms of race because it is how the rest of the world views them (Tatum, 1997). As Black and White children struggle through the maze of racial identity, education and teachers play an integral role in shaping that identity, as well as formulating opinions and perceptions of people of different color.

The effects of education on racial identity development are evident in students' reaction to what they learn, educationally and socially, in the public school system. For example, schools have established a system whereby students' achievement is measured based on standardized tests, which may be racially and culturally biased, as opposed to individual student performance. Further, many students in the United States still attend segregated schools where the curriculum centers on the achievements of Whites and Europeans, while seldom depicting Blacks in favorable ways. The result is that students are socialized to believe that there is a white and right standard to be attained. "Schooling [therefore] seeks to teach African-American children their lack of importance in the educational and social worlds" and students respond to this by "seeking to reaffirm their identities as competent and worthwhile persons . . ." (Beckman, 1995, p. 126).

Teachers can significantly influence student racial identity development through their classroom practices, such as their attitude towards diversity and the curriculum they emphasize (Branch, 1999). A very common example of this occurs during Black History Month. Teachers utilize Black History Month as a means to highlight the contributions and accomplishments of prominent Blacks, such as Frederick Douglass and Martin Luther King, Jr. However, such key figures are only studied during the month of February. This devalues the contributions of Blacks to American history by separating Black history from White history. Such classroom practices "are standards for children, implicitly and explicitly" (Branch, 1999, p. 23).

The aforementioned examples demonstrate how education and teachers affect racial identity development at an early age and through adolescence. Research on the effects of education on *adult racial identity* development has been limited. However, in his theory of black racial identity development, Cross (1991), explores how education affects adult perspectives and experiences. Cross' model is based on Nigrescence, a French term, which means *to become black*. The model explains the psychology or development process by which Black adults are transformed, by life experiences, into persons who become Black or develop a Black racial identity. The first stage of the model, the Pre-encounter stage, explores some of the adult characteristics that must be changed if the adult is to develop a positive racial identity. These undesirable characteristics are a result of the mis-education Blacks receive during their years of schooling. According to Cross, students have been mis-educated because they have been formally educated in a system that is White and Western dominated. The result is that Blacks are indoctrinated to "embrace a Western cultural-historical perspective" (Cross, 1991, p. 192). In fact, Cross maintains that it is very difficult for *any* Black student in America to receive their compulsory education without being mis-educated about the role of Africa in Western civilization and the role of Blacks in American history. Cross notes,

> Extreme mis-education can result in a great deal of skepticism about the abilities and capabilities of Black leaders, Black businesses, and Black professionals, and an equal degree of romanticism and near mysticism concerning the capabilities and talents of whites. That is, if Blacks are taught to be intellectually inferior and technologically backward, whites are seen as intellectually superior and technically advanced (p. 193).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to learn *how* Blacks believe race has affected their workplace interactions with Whites and the reasons *why*. The second part of the question, which addresses *why* Blacks believe race is an influential factor affecting workplace interactions, was an open-ended question. In other words, participants were not asked if they believed, for example, that education specifically played a role in shaping those interactions. However, education emerged as a dominant factor. Much in the same manner that Cross describes how mis-education affects adult perspectives and experiences, the participants in this study believed their compulsory education was partly responsible for how Blacks and Whites interact in the workplace.

Method

The study was a qualitative mini-project, undertaken during a course semester. The participants consisted of three African-American public administrators employed with a local municipality, the City of Southwest, Florida (pseudonym). The City of Southwest is the fourth largest city in its respective county, consisting of a population of approximately 60,000. The most dynamic component of the City's population growth has been the steady "in-migration" of Blacks, Hispanics and other minority groups. Blacks of many derivations made up 3.7% of the population in 1980; 31.9% of the population in 1990; and 53% of the population in 2000. Notwithstanding the minority population growth, the City had not been as expeditious in its efforts to diversify its personnel. However, within the last four years, the City has made major gains by hiring Blacks for key administrative positions, which were traditionally held by Whites.

Administrators, as opposed to lower-level employees, were selected for the study because they are more likely to have broad interaction with persons outside of the organizational structure, such as residents and elected officials. The three administrators held the positions of Deputy City Manager, Director of Community Planning/Development, Assistant Director of Community Planning/Development, and had 17, 12 and 5 years administrative experience, respectively. All of their experience was in the field of public administration, at the local and/or federal level. Participants requested confidentiality and anonymity; consequently, their names and the names of their organizations, past and present, were concealed. Participants were interviewed separately for approximately one hour and a half each, and were asked several questions regarding their past and present workplace interactions with Whites. This included interactions with White superiors, subordinates, counterparts, elected officials, and residents. The questions addressed how participants believe race influenced their workplace interactions (specific examples of incidents) and the reasons why (contributing factors).

Findings

Participants cited various examples of incidents which demonstrated how they believed race has and continues to affect their workplace interactions with Whites. The examples were first-hand accounts of covert and overt forms of discriminatory experiences and were told from the participants' perspective. In one account, a city was under a Federal Court Order and was mandated to hire more Blacks and Hispanics in its police and fire departments. The participant was recently hired as the Personnel Analyst, responsible for minority recruitment, retention and promotion. Shortly after being hired, her boss called her into his office in order to make clear his position regarding the Court Order. She explained:

> Within the first few weeks of starting the position, I was called into the Personnel Director's office and he had a picture of Abraham Lincoln on his wall. He looked at me and he said, do you know who this person is? I said, yes, it's Abraham Lincoln. He said, yes, he is the one who started it all. And I looked at him and I said what do you mean? And he basically said look, on a personal level, I don't care anything about Affirmative Action, diversity, minorities, females, and all that kinda stuff, but, the Federal Government tells me that I have to . . . and he said your job is to make me look good, and I need you to do whatever it is you need to do that is necessary to bring more minorities and females into the police and fire departments. Whether or not I care about the issue is another story.

Another participant discussed an incident in which an elected official refused to work with her because he believed a Black employee could not cater to his White, affluent constituents. Although the participant was the Assistant to the Commissioner, he gave all of her assignments to the White secretary, a lower-level support staff employee. When asked how could she be certain that race was a factor, she responded that the secretary indirectly acknowledged the fact (by consistently apologizing for the Commissioner's behavior) and the City Manager directly acknowledged the fact (by asking what could be done to remedy the problem). According to the participant, the Commissioner,

> . . . really deep down inside felt because she [the secretary] was White he could trust her more and she could relate to his constituents better than I because of my race. He

> never said it, but all of the evidence was there and the City Manager said what can we do . . . we had other Commissioners who lived in affluent areas and they had no problem with me, but he just really would not deal with me.

After discussing how they believed race affected their workplace interactions with Whites, participants openly discussed the contributing factors. All participants believed many of their experiences were a result of institutionalized practices. For example, upon being hired as the Personnel Analyst with the city that was under a Court Order, the participant discovered there were many artificial barriers, which prevented Blacks from attaining jobs, such as biased testing instruments and all White interview panels. Two of the participants believed the media played a role in how Whites perceive and interact with Blacks in the workplace. In particular, the media depicts Blacks in unfavorable, stereotypical roles and because some Whites have little, if any, interaction with Blacks outside of work, Whites begin to draw conclusions about Blacks based on what they see on television.

The most compelling finding of the study was that all participants believed Whites' compulsory education was a major factor influencing cross-racial workplace interactions. One participant explained, "When they [Whites] go to school they don't really learn about Black people except for about Dr. King. So, I think it has to do with their culture and the way they are educated." Another participant clearly articulated much of the same sentiments regarding mis-education that Cross discussed in his theory of black racial identity development. The participant believed mis-education was the very starting point at which Blacks and Whites are educated and socialized to believe that the role of Blacks in civilization and American history is insignificant. He also believed, as a result of this mis-education, Whites develop a sense of superiority. More importantly and more relevant to this study, the participant believed mis-education ultimately affects the way Blacks and Whites interact in the workplace. He explains,

> First of all, from our compulsory education . . . we don't focus enough on the contributions of African-Americans within this society. African-Americans have made some very positive contributions to the socio-economic progress of this country. You can go back to African-American inventors who had a very positive impact on the American economy . . . but, it's been slow to recognize those contributions, and I think that a lot of Whites, for example, grow up very ignorant of the contributions of African-Americans, and it looks as if, they don't see other cultures as having made positive contributions. I think even outside of just American history, I think when you look at world history we typically start with contributions of Greeks. We don't go back and look at Africa and look at some of the civilizations that were there and the advancement of African people . . . but, I think Europeans don't grow up learning this, they grow up learning that Greece spread everything . . . and it gives them a sense of superiority . . . and I think in general, people come out of that educational system and they begin to go into their workplace . . . so, they question our authority, our ability to do anything.

Conclusion

Implications for the Field of Education

The purpose of this study was to learn *how* Blacks believe race has affected their workplace interactions with Whites and the reasons *why*. The most compelling finding of the study was that

participants believed mis-education influenced their workplace interactions with Whites. Although the study was limited in scope, the findings suggest there is a relationship between mis-education and cross-racial workplace interactions. The implications of this study center on two relationships, which are expressed throughout the theoretical framework: (a) how the relationship between *education and racism* affects black/white workplace interactions; and (b) how the relationship between *education and racial identity* affects black/white workplace interactions.

The first relationship, which addresses the link between education and racism, specifically focuses on multicultural education. In order to understand how the two are intertwined, one must understand the original purpose and intent of multicultural education. Multicultural education, formerly known as multiethnic education, originated with the civil rights and protests movements of the 1960s. The purpose and intent of multicultural education was consistent with the goals of the civil rights movement: social change, removing institutional barriers and ensuring inclusiveness. Hence, advocates of multicultural education sought to do more than create a multicultural "program" within the school system. Instead, they focused on more substantial reform, which addressed educational deficiencies as well as societal inequities. According to McIntyre (1997),

> Multiethnic education was seen as a beacon for those who wanted to cross the educational borders and challenge existing forms of institutional and cultural racism. Thus, their challenges to the educational system were also seen as challenges to the existing ownership of knowledge and to the larger issues of the distribution of power and wealth in our society (pp. 9-10).

Because racism and racial oppression were central to the founding of multicultural education, one cannot understand the rationale or the need for multicultural education without addressing racism (Nieto, 1996; Sleeter, 1999). Multicultural education does not necessarily or automatically do away with racism (Nieto, 1996). However, if schooling, through multicultural education, can address such issues as institutional and cultural racism, it may change the way Black and White students perceive and interact with one another. Furthermore, as students become adults and go into their workplaces, it may change the way they interact.

The second implication of this study involves how the relationship between *education and racial identity* affects black/white workplace interactions. As previously noted, teachers can significantly influence student racial identity development through their classroom practices. Teachers' classroom practices, however, are a result of their personal beliefs and ideologies and their own racial identity development. Moreover, it is important to note that teachers have also been educated in a school system that is historically exclusionary and biased. For these reasons, some educators agree teachers should conduct a self-evaluation of their own racial identity and their attitudes towards race and diversity (Hollins, 1999; Sleeter, 1997). This will enable them to address and overcome their own personal biases which they may bring to the classroom. Some white educators believe this self-evaluation is even more imperative for white teachers because it will enable them to think more critically about "multicultural education as antiracist education." McIntyre (1997) states, " . . . we, as white educators, need to examine our racial identity in hopes that such an examination will contribute to new ways of teaching and learning that disrupt racist educational practices" (p. 14). If, through self-evaluation, teachers can promote a healthy racial identity for themselves and their students, they can set new standards in the classroom. Such

standards will guide students through adulthood and also as they begin to interact with Whites in the workplace.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study was a mini-project undertaken during a course semester. As a result, the study was limited in scope, specifically, in terms of the number of participants and the time allowed for completion. There are three suggestions for further research. First, the study should be broadened to include more participants. Although three participants may be representative of an organization, it certainly is not representative of a population. Second, given the implications between education and cross-racial workplace interactions, more specific questions regarding how participants interpret the long-lasting affects of their education should be asked. Third and in conclusion, although there is research linking racism and racial identity to education, there is little research which addresses what happens after Black and White students are educated, become adults and move into the workplace. How does mis-education affect these cross-racial workplace interactions? A more in-depth study may be instrumental in answering this question.

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