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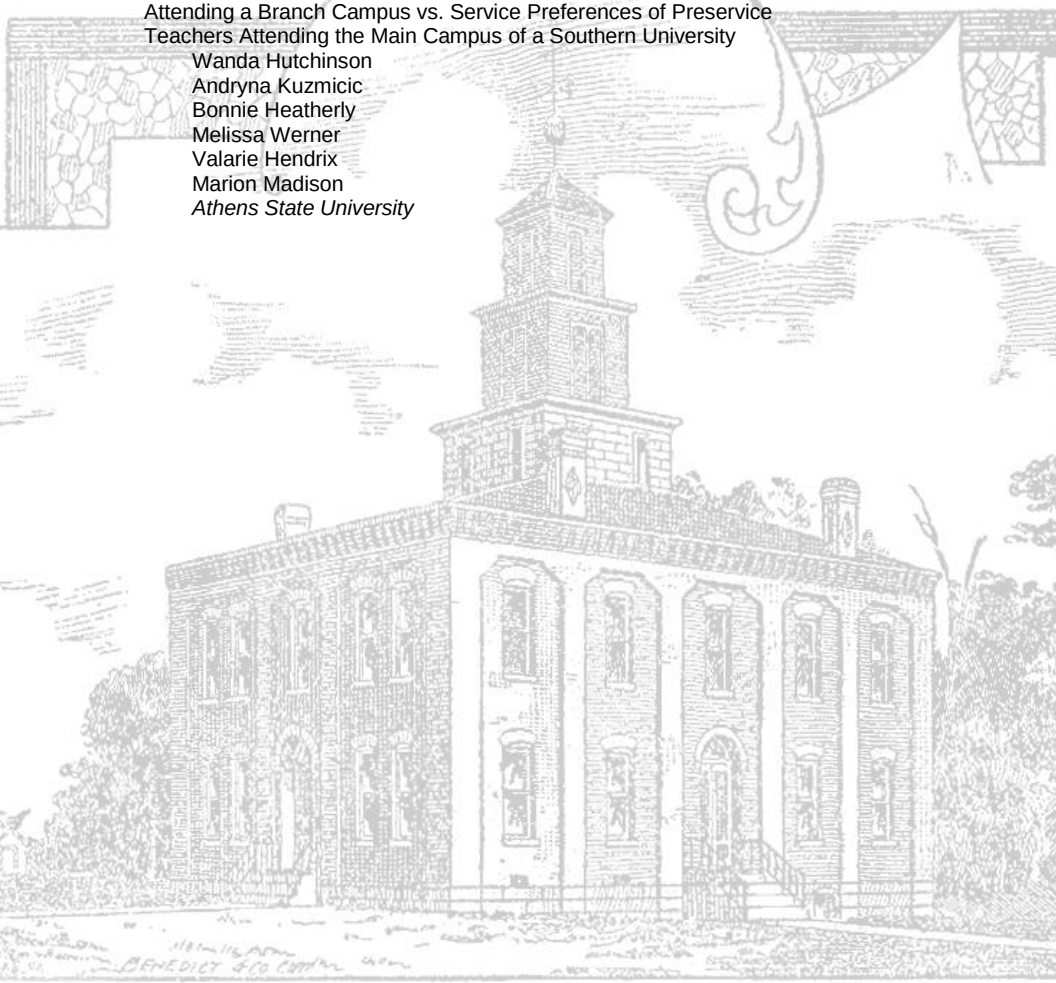
Articles



EDITOR'S COMMENTS

It seems all but impossible that the spring 2012 issue marks the beginning of the eighth year for the *Journal for the Liberal Arts and Sciences*. Yet, it is so. Looking back, I see a number of issues of which I am especially proud and which inspire me to continue to work as editor to find and publish the good work of academic scholars in various areas of the arts and sciences.

This issue offers a variety of works examining education. Martin Jacobs and his colleagues at Murray State University, for example, make an argument for curriculum studies which enhance teacher leadership. In our second offering, Roxanne Mills looks at another area of leadership, specifically the pros and cons of two different leadership styles at one particular university. Scooter Pegram, from Indiana University Northwest, presents an especially fascinating idea, as he examines the cultural place of French hip-hop and its potential for education. T.C. Eckstein weighs in on the subject of how positive psychology might be of help to educators. Another Murray State professor, Chhanda Islam, demonstrates the possibilities of using literacy blogs to enhance a graduate readings method course.

Inclusion is presently a mandated practice in education. Olawale Agboola, in his extensive review of the literature, examines barriers which limit the successful practice of inclusion. Oakland City University's Kristie Stewart looks at the surprising lack of management training in the education process that typically prepares pastors for ministry. The perceptions of charter school teachers regarding teacher effectiveness is discussed in Kate Stakem's contribution. This is an area of growing importance as charter schools become more commonplace.

In a heart-felt contribution, Lindon Ratliff, a professor at Mississippi State University, Meridian, makes a powerful argument for students studying the "Mississippi Burning" murders in an article subtitled "Teaching What Must be Remembered." Finally, Wanda Hutchinson and her colleagues at Athens State University offer a comparative study of the service

preferences of preservice teachers at a main university and a branch university campus. The fall 2012 issue of the *JLAS* will be a special edition, focusing on Indiana History.

Randy Mills, Editor
Journal for the Liberal Arts and Sciences

Curriculum Studies that Foster Teacher Leadership

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Lynn Patterson
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Abstract
A College of Education revised a number of graduate programs based on Kentucky Educational Professional Standards Board mandates focusing on the development of teacher leaders. Revisions included changes in the core curriculum development course. To facilitate course revision, faculty teaching the curriculum course formed their own professional learning community. Numerous positive implications are described impacting instruction and assessment in traditional and web-based settings. This article profiles the history of that process, including the collaborative efforts of three faculty members. The reader is encouraged to consider replication of effective practices, as deemed appropriate.

Introduction

Waves of curriculum reform have continually pounded the shores of American classrooms, quietly eroding Americans confidence in what is being taught in our schools. Although some of these waves reach almost tsunamic proportions, eventually each wave slowly subsides, leaving behind tidal pools to remind us of what has been and a promise of what is yet to come. We invite you to journey with us as we share how at one particular school of education we have reformed our graduate curriculum course to reflect the teacher leadership initiative that has flooded the state of Kentucky.

Let's begin by examining two methods for teaching our required graduate curriculum course. Just as tidal pools have

common characteristics and individual beauty, these two methods of delivery reflect but do not exactly mirror one another.

Scenario #1

Students meet face-to-face each week to attend a classroom lecture. The lone professor skillfully integrates information from the required textbook throughout the lectures and uses *PowerPoint* slide shows as a visual aid. Each class period also includes student questions and classroom discussions, but the professor carefully manages the time so that the professor's content outline is completed. The major assignments for the course are a mid-term exam, a final exam, and a research project that focuses on a strategic review of the literature.

Scenario #2

The course is delivered using traditional class meetings but is also offered on-line. Course instructors/authors, representing both delivery methods, meet as a professional learning community to develop a common course syllabus and assessments. They also share strategies that may be of benefit to all.

One of the authors, who teaches in a traditional, face-to-face setting, uses lectures more sparingly than in scenario #1 and makes a concerted effort to develop a classroom that reflects some attributes of a professional learning community. Small-group break-out times become routine—many of these discussions are designed to link the lecture and readings to professional practice. Whole-group debriefings provide opportunities for closure as graduate students decide how they can apply fresh perspectives in their own professional settings. Assignments include a reflective journal, a traditional mid-term exam, a curriculum-focused action research project, and a take-home final exam that requires students to apply knowledge from the course to a simulated (but realistic) setting.

Two of the authors, who teach on-line, use a series of weekly tasks. To establish a common framework of reference, students reflect upon assigned textbook and online readings. Most weeks students work in teams, or miniature professional learning communities, to cooperatively complete authentic

application activities. Each student team also researches a current curriculum hot topic, presents the information on the class website, and hosts a whole-class discussion. Each weekly task is designed to help students make personal and professional connections with the week's topic followed by sharing newfound insights and knowledge with the professor and classmates via on-line conversations. So that students can apply what they are learning about curriculum to a real-world setting, professors embed a semester-long curriculum project throughout the weekly tasks. Students present these projects to their virtual peers at the end of the semester. The semester's final task allows students to reflect and examine how their thinking may have changed over the course of the semester.

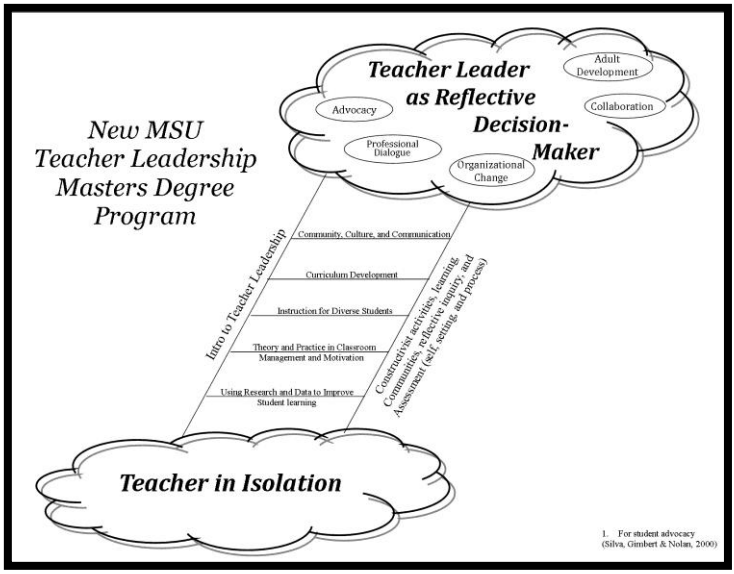
Scenario #2 has become the preferred delivery approach for our curriculum development course in a number of newly revised Masters of Arts in Education programs (MAED) which have been redesigned in response to a statewide initiative to develop teachers' leadership capacity. The purposes of these new programs are to equip graduate students with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions they need to become effective teacher leaders and change agents in their professional settings. Multiple MAED programs now offer teacher leadership degrees: Career and Technical Education, Special Education (Learning and Behavior Disorders and Interdisciplinary Early Childhood Education tracks), Secondary Education, Middle School Education, and Elementary Education. Each graduate currently completes a *LiveText* teacher leadership electronic portfolio, including two teacher leadership projects, as exit assessments. In addition, a capstone presentation within the College of Education is required.

Each 30-hour program contains a section unique to the discipline. For example, MA Elementary teacher leaders can pursue an area of elementary specialization that focuses upon integrating each of the major content areas across the curriculum. To ensure the teacher leadership theme is carried throughout the graduate programs, all teacher leader programs share a common set of core courses. One of the required core courses is *Curriculum Development* which has been taught by the authors using traditional and on-line delivery approaches.

After exploring the vision and development of the teacher leader program, this profile will explore how *Curriculum Development* professors formed a professional learning community to design common assignments and assessments, as well as activities that develop graduates' teacher leadership capacity. The reader will be encouraged to consider ways to incorporate this professional learning approach within teacher education programs as a way to improve course delivery and as a way to model best practices.

Our History

In 2005, in response to mandates developed by the Kentucky Educational Professional Standards Board, Murray State's College of Education began a series of meetings with constituents to develop a new graduate teacher leader program. We invited teachers and administrators to multiple lunch meetings to discuss the current programs' strengths and perceived deficits. The results of these discussions were shared with program faculty. Concurrently, faculty members adopted the Linda Lambert teacher leadership model because it closely corresponded with our existing mission of reflective decision-making as well as our future vision. Over the next few years, graduate faculty members cooperatively agreed upon a set of core courses which addressed the visions of our faculty and educational partners. Lambert's work (2003) provides the theoretical underpinnings for our college's approach toward teacher leadership. Instead of working in isolation, teachers become leaders and reflective decision-makers (see Figure 1). Graduate students' teacher leader capacity is developed by progressing through the series of core courses. This figure incorporated the efforts of a number of our graduate faculty, consistent with our collective vision for the core courses.



(Figure 1). Teacher as Leader and Reflective Decision-Maker

According to our Lambert-inspired vision, students grow in four *leadership categories:* Adult Development, Professional Dialogue, Collaboration, and Organizational Change. For example, in our Curriculum Development course, students *develop their sense of self as adult learners* by examining their place in the school community, reflecting upon readings about current issues and best practices, and demonstrating respect for others' perspectives during interviews, collegial conversations, and cooperative group work. Students continuously *dialogue* about curricular issues during live class discussions and via team and class discussion boards. On-line students also dialogue with various stakeholders to gather additional insight into the effectiveness of the current curriculum in meeting students' and societal needs. Students *collaborate* with classmates to create multiple course products and presentations. For the curriculum project, they collaborate with a project facilitator (e.g., work-site administrator) to reflect upon students' achievement data and school-level needs, conduct additional

research, and implement a plan of action that will result in *organizational change***.** During the course, students have the opportunity to reflect upon the curriculum adoption/implementation structure of their local school or school district by rating/analyzing the curriculum efforts as per the Kentucky Department of Education's Standards and Indicators for School Improvement, the American School Counselor Association, or the American Library Association curriculum standards, as deemed appropriate. Students learn the importance of being *advocates* for change by exploring ways to precipitate meaningful change to support student-centered instruction. Through these activities students learn to *walk the talk* [emphasis added] of teacher leadership. This commitment to student advocacy, as referenced in Figure 1, was informed by the work of Silva, Gimbert and Nolan (2000).

The new teacher leader programs officially began in fall 2009. At that time, to make the new vision a reality in our curriculum development course, the three authors formed a professorial professional learning community. Although we were teaching the course using different delivery modes (on-line and face-to-face), we agreed to develop a common vision of the course, regardless of the delivery venue. During the fall 2009 semester, we agreed to meet regularly, communicate effectively, share course documents and strategies, and seek out venues to share the collaborative experience. The remainder of this profile attempts to capture the collaboration of the authors during the fall 2009 semester and beyond, highlighting the impacts on the curriculum development course and our own professional growth.

Our Journey

Schmoker (2006) provides an engaging description of a professional learning community (PLC)—engaging in that it demands action. A community committed to shared outcomes, common assessments, and meaningful monitoring (meeting consistently) over time are just some of the actions required to meaningfully form a PLC. Defour (2005) is emphatic in delineating the purpose behind the PLC: "The professional learning community model flows from the assumption that the core mission of formal education is not simply to ensure that

students are taught but ensure that they learn" (p. 32). Referencing the work of these two scholars provides an introduction to the work of our curriculum development course PLC, starting in the fall 2009 term. We used the Professional Learning Communities model as a justification for our common assessment. Consistent with work presented by Defour, Defour, Eaker, and Many (2006), our team believed that our collective assessment work was stronger than any work that we could have done individually. Our teaching effort (both on-line and traditional) was stronger, and our own shared commitment to our work was enhanced. Each on-line course shared a similar approach to assessment, throughout, as does each course delivered face-to-face. Every course has the requirement of a curriculum project; efforts have been made to unify that assessment across both delivery approaches. All instructors have used and are using the same textbook (Henson, 2010).

Setting a consistent time to meet was a critical component to our collective planning efforts. Each Wednesday, at 10:30 a.m., became a standing time for our meeting during the fall 2009 semester. Even though our schedules did not allow us to meet each week, our commitment to the time did allow us to meet consistently and facilitated our efforts to improve the course so that students would learn.

Course documents were critical to our deliberations. Even though we realized that we needed to be flexible to honor each professor's academic freedom, we were diligent in developing some common course components. We began an ongoing conversation by sharing instructional approaches that would be helpful to our collective work. We cooperatively created a common course assignment (curriculum project) with an accompanying common assessment which is required in both delivery approaches. After reaching consensus on project performance criteria, a unique rubric was created for each delivery system. The common assignment and assessment became course artifacts for students' *Live Text* Teacher Leader electronic portfolios.

Sharing our collective learning with others was another focus of our meetings; this included communication within our unit and a presentation at a regional conference. Documenting our efforts and learning (e.g., *PowerPoint* slides) and presenting

those highlights to our colleagues heightened our collective experience and further reinforced our commitment to our PLC.

Finally, and most importantly, we were diligent in focusing on desired outcomes for our graduate students, consistent with our common syllabus. Once again the curriculum project is an excellent example. As a reminder, this project requires each student to apply curriculum tools and knowledge to a real-world setting which necessitates approval by a work supervisor or facilitator. Finished products are designed, developed, and presented (ideally) to professional colleagues so that the work/professional impact of the project is clearly demonstrated.

Looking to the Future

During the fall 2010 term, we met to review shared documents (e.g., course syllabus and curriculum project documents), leading to additional refinement of our efforts. During the 2011-2012 academic year, we have incorporated new state initiatives such as implementing the use of the *Common Core State Standards* and an increased emphasis on formative assessment. These activities will proffer many rich opportunities for continued faculty collaboration.

Although this collaborative approach to course development and delivery has caused ripples in the pool of traditional, teacher-centered instructional delivery, students' feedback and the quality of their action research projects attest to the power of these efforts. Through this process, the authors have discovered that although we still find value in traditional course delivery (Scenario #1), we embrace the richer and more strategic—combination of strategies presented in Scenario #2. We will continue to model the importance of collaborating as a professorial professional learning community so our graduate students will embrace the practice in their professional settings. We close by encouraging the reader, as we continue to challenge ourselves, to foster curriculum development as a field where dynamic professional growth and the use of best practices in all components of education will be modeled and practiced.

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Transformational Leadership versus Charismatic Leadership: A Case Study of Two College Presidents' Leadership Styles

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Abstract
Education researchers have long pointed out that leadership is essential in the success of institutions of higher education. Given this accepted observation, it still remains unclear as to what leadership style best suits a colleges or university. This case study examined examples of the pros and cons regarding the leadership styles, that of the transformational leader and that of the Charismatic leader, of two different presidents at a small Midwest Christian liberal arts university.

Introduction

Purposeful change/reform is often a difficult and sometimes painful process at best. Those who live and work in particular institutions find a number of reasons to resist even necessary change. The familiar, although dysfunctional, is still to be preferred by many over the unknown and the untried. There are also a number of power issues to be wrestled with whenever reform occurs. In the business world, scholarship on the subject of change/reform has often focused upon leadership. Fieldler and Garcia (1987) developed an effective model for assessing leadership called the Contingency Model which is essentially a leadership-match model. This idea "suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context [situation]" (Northouse, 2004, p. 109). An understanding of the need to match leadership style with reform needs would arguably be helpful for assisting an organization in the process of change/reform.

Bass (1985) believed that transformational leaders were

especially effective reform agents because they "raised followers' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of specified and idealized goals, got followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team or organization, and moved followers to address higher-level needs"(p. 20). Northhouse (2004) in his book *Leadership: Theory and Practice,* placed great emphasis upon the recent emergence of the transformational leadership model. "One of the current approaches to leadership that has been the focus of much research since the early 1980s is the transformational approach. In fact, it has grown in popularity since the first edition of this book was published" (p.169). Bryman (1992) observed that the concept of transformational leadership had, by the 1990s, become an essential part of the so called "new leadership" models being touted in scholarly and popular books and scholarly journals and at conferences on the subject of leadership in the business world. In this same regard, Lowe and Gardner (2001) discovered that one third of the subject matter in the leading journal *Leadership Quality* concerned transformational leadership.

Northhouse (2004) defined the concept of the transformational model by noting, "As its name implies, transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals, and includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings." Northhouse believed the approach involved "an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them; it is a process that often incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership" (p. 169).

Perhaps because it has been so widely popular, the concept has been greatly stretched and expanded. As Northhouse (2004) observed, "An encompassing approach, transformational leadership can be used to describe a wide range of leadership, from very specific attempts to influence followers on a one-to-one level to very broad attempts to influence whole organizations and even entire cultures. Although the transformational leader plays a pivotal role in precipitating change, followers and leaders are inextricably bound together in the transformation process"

(pp. 169-170).

While the term transformational leadership was first used by Downton (1973), Burns (1978) was the first to give it concrete defining. Specifically, Burns united the roles of leadership and followership. In his model, the leader motivates followers to reach the goals of both interests. More recently, Northhouse (2004) as gone into some detail explaining the dynamics of the idea. "The transformational approach to leadership is a broad-based perspective that encompasses many facets and dimensions of the leadership process. In general, it describes how leaders can initiate, develop, and carry out significant changes in organizations. Although not definitive, the steps followed by transformational leaders usually take the following form." Further, the transformational leaders "set out to empower followers and nurture them in change. They attempt to raise the consciousness in individuals and to get them to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of others" (pp. 182-183). The transformational leader "becomes a strong role model for their followers. They have a highly developed set of moral values and a self-determined sense of identity. . . . They are confident, competent, and articulate, and they express strong ideals. They listen to followers and are not intolerant of opposing viewpoints. A spirit of cooperation often develops between these leaders and their followers." Because of their strong leadership example, "followers want to emulate transformational leaders because they learn to trust them and believe in the ideas for which they stand" (p. 183).

The creation of a guiding vision is yet another characteristic of this leadership style. "It is common for transformational leaders to create a vision. The vision emerges from the collective interests of various individuals and units within an organization. The vision is a focal point for transformational leadership. It gives the leader and the organization a conceptual map for where the organization is headed; it gives meaning and clarifies the organization's identity. Furthermore, the vision gives followers a sense of identity within the organization and also a sense of self-efficacy" (Northouse, 2004, p. 183).

Among leaders who initiate change/reform, the transformational executive stands out. "Transformational leaders also act as change agents who initiate and implement new

directions within organizations. They listen to opposing viewpoints within the organization as well as threats to the organization that may arise from outside the organization. Sometimes leaders generate instability themselves through nurturing the expression of discordant viewpoints or issues. Out of the uncertainty, transformational leaders create change" ((Northouse, 2004, p. 183). According to Northhouse, the model is very popular today for several reasons:

- Transformational leadership has been widely researched from many different perspectives.
- Transformational leadership has intuitive appeal.
- Transformational leadership treats leadership as a process that occurs between followers and leaders.
- Transformational approach provides a broader view of leadership that augments other leadership models.
- Transformational leadership places a strong emphasis on followers' needs, values, and morals.

Another model of leadership often compared to, and sometimes incorporated into the transformational leadership model, is that of charismatic leadership. Conger and Kanungo (1998) and Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) defined charismatic leadership in such a way as to make it a unique model which stands on its own. Bass (1985), however, in his attempt to better unify the field of study regarding leadership models, expanded the definition of the charismatic idea to bring it under the umbrella of the transformational model. Like the transformational concept, the charismatic model has received much attention by both researchers and business leaders who are interested in reflective ways to bring about reform. The two models are similar in that both types of leaders

- Are strong role models for the beliefs and values they want their followers to adopt.
- Appear competent to followers.
- Articulate ideological goals that have moral overtones.
- Communicate high expectations for followers, and they exhibit confidence in followers' abilities to meet these expectations.

Where the two models differ, however, is striking. While the transformer is a facilitator, the charismatic leader is more dominating. Northouse (2004) noted, regarding this trait, "Charismatic leaders act in unique ways that have specific charismatic effects on their followers, the personal characteristics of a charismatic leader include being dominant, having a strong desire to influence others, being self-confident, and having a strong sense of one's own moral values" (172). Northouse further observed that "there are several effects that are the direct result of charismatic leadership. They include follower trust in the leader's ideology, similarity between the followers' beliefs and the leader's beliefs, unquestioning acceptance of the leader, expression of warmth toward the leader, follower obedience, identification with the leader, emotional involvement in the leader's goals, heightened goals for followers, and follower confidence in goal achievement." These characteristics were more likely to occur in times of "distress, because in stressful situations followers look to leaders to deliver them from their difficulties (pp. 172-173).

Leadership Needs in the Small College/University Setting

Perhaps in all the arenas where leadership is indispensable, no leader is more important than the president of a small, private college/university. Without the yearly infusion of state monies, many small private institutions find their existence tenuous at best. A college executive in such a circumstance must have nerves of steel and often finds him or herself in the situation of having to push for essential reform/change. One might well ask what type of leadership style is best for this kind of situation. In order to address this important question, this paper will examine the leadership styles, one transformational and one charismatic, of two college presidents who served back to back at a small Christian/ liberal arts college. Both served during one of the school's darkest times, a situation which can sharpen the awareness of researchers regarding a leader's actions and leadership style. Such an examination may bring insights into the strengths and weaknesses of both styles and suggest to the board of trustees members what type of personality might serve their particular school best. Fortunately, there exists extensive

material for undertaking such a study.

Mills (2000) carried out an extensive examination of the history of Oakland City University, a small liberal arts/Christian college in Southwest Indiana. His work focused primarily on the history of the school during the second half of the twentieth century. In the process of his research, Mills was able to secure a number of valuable personal interviews as well as locate and study important primary source written documents such as board of trustee minutes. His work offers an especially rich well of information when one is seeking to understand the leadership styles of two of the school's presidents, Bernard Loposer and James W. Murray. Loposer served two years as president of the Oakland City College. President Murray would come to serve over thirty years.

Mills, while offering many detailed and interesting antidotal stories, did not seek to examine the elements of these two men's leadership styles in any systematic way. This study seeks to use several models of leadership as a way of suggesting possible negative and positive elements to both the transformational and the charismatic leadership styles in the setting of higher education.

This researcher gratefully acknowledges Dr. Mills's permission to directly quote any material from his work. Other important information was found in the school newspaper, the *O. C. Collegian* and university yearbooks.

The Perils of a Transformational Leader

Bernard Loposer came to Oakland City College in the fall of 1972, unknowingly on the cusp of one of the institution's greatest crises. His leadership was clearly transformative, a model which typically lends itself well to leading change. The school certainly stood in great need of reform, having seemingly grown beyond its original mission. The first years of the 1970s at the small school played out as a continuation of the turbulent 60s. As Mills reported, the traditionally conservative college witnessed a time of difficult transition; an identity crisis of the first order. Students continued to push to bring dancing on campus, having more say in school decisions, and wearing the latest fashions. Their call for a greater voice was further assisted, noted Mills, by the school's need for North Central accreditation status. A college

"talk out," for example, had been held in late December of 1969, and the heavily attended meeting allowed students to respond to the potential changes and to gripe about existing school policies. North Central officials required a total school effort from administration, faculty *and students* in the process of achieving final approval. This situation suddenly empowered students in a way they had not been empowered before. However, the old traditional leadership style seemed unable to accommodate the new circumstances.

In the midst of all this turmoil, Dr. Bernard Loposer came to Oakland City from the University of Alabama Huntsville to become the school's new president. The kind, energetic, and quick witted Dr. Loposer quickly gained the approval of the great majority of OCC students. An open letter to the college community, written by Loposer, suggested several reasons for his rapid rise in popularity, as well as his transformational leadership tendencies. "The touchstone of uniqueness here at Oakland City College is rooted in our belief that the most important element in education must remain the people who are engaged in the pursuit of truth. Our concern must always be for the educational experience which does something for and to people in the quest for the deepest satisfaction and fulfillment in life" (Mills, 2000, p. 84).

This pro-people attitude and vision endeared the new president to even the most anti-administration students. Faculty and staff, meanwhile, suddenly found themselves having to deal with a more empowered student body. Here, Loposer also worked his transformative charm, encouraging the faculty and staff to take more leadership roles in the affairs of the school, while at the same time recognizing the rights of students. Faculty meetings took on a new and sometimes noisy vitality.

Loposer solidified his popularity by going out of his way to "rap" with students. The easy-going and popular president also moved quickly to connect the administration to students by initiating a Student Judiciary Court. This body would have much more power over student disciplinary actions than OCC student governments of past years. This, of course, greatly pleased student campus leaders. That year's student yearbook proudly described the new, more student empowered system. "Student Senate has undergone complete change, having expanded to a

three-branch democratic system. A new constitution initially implemented this fall quarter provides greater participation of students, a cabinet to assist the president, a judiciary court composed entirely of students to settle disciplinary problems, and a Bill of Rights. Each organization is given some opportunity in planning Fall Festival, Homecoming, and May Day celebrations" (Mills, 2000, p. 84).

As a transformative leader as described by Northouse (2004), the likable new president had begun to organize a broad base perspective which empowered and nurtured followers. As noted previously, Northouse also believed such leaders "attempt to raise the consciousness in individuals and get them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of others. . . . They listen to followers and are not intolerant of opposing viewpoints. . . . A spirit of cooperation often develops between leaders and their followers" (p. 178). Dr. Loposer carried this out in great abundance.

Lopser's work quickly bore fruit. Members of the student court, for example, quickly acted to make the entire student body aware of this new aspect of student empowerment on campus. An article in the college newspaper, the *Collegian* excitedly noted, "The Judiciary Court of Oakland City College is part of the constitutional reform in student government effected in the past year. The creation of the Court places all matters of student discipline within the jurisdiction of a court composed entirely of students. How effective the Court is depends entirely on how well the students use the Court." The school witnessed a new burst of intellectual vitality. The *Oaks,* a popular campus eating place, now filled with the kind of idealistic chatter one would expect on a college campus.

While the college continued to flourish in terms of enrollment and intellectual discussion under Loposer's visions and transformative guidance, one event seemed to herald an end to this lively era as well as suggest the typical types of problems faced by the transformative leader on a small college campus. In early 1973 President Loposer carried out a very unpopular act when he dismissed two students without going through the recently created Student Judicial Board. The president's action loomed as ironic, given the fact he had helped create and strongly supported the board to begin with. The Board did not

necessarily disagree with the dismissals but with the fact that the two students had not been given the due process promised by President Loposer. Dr. Loposer, however, would not back down from his stand, and many students ended up feeling betrayed. In a tense piece in the *Collegian*, the Student Judiciary Board asserted, "During the last few months, there has been considerable discussion as to the appropriate role of the Student Judicial Board in [topics] pertaining to disciplinary matters. Many questions have been raised due to the fact that two students were expelled in October by Dr. Bernard A. Loposer, president of the College, without consultation with or consent by the Student Judicial Board. Some basic understandings were sought; the results of that meeting now need to be brought to the attention of the student body as a whole." The article then pointed out that "The Judicial Board, in opposition again to the decision of the President, recognizes that Dr. Loposer has the authority to pursue the methods as stated in the meeting, but sincerely believes that the Board is capable of hearing all matters of student discipline unless the cases are of an extreme critical nature. If such situations develop, they should be referred to the civil courts."

In fairness, and probably in an acknowledgment of respect to the popular and inspiring leader, President Loposer's arguments were clearly presented in the article as well. "Dr. Loposer was very clear in his assertion that the orderly operation of the College has to be maintained for the very survival of the College. It was further stated that the responsibility for the governing of the affairs of the student body must be assumed by students as a whole if the current philosophy is to function properly. If there is a breakdown in the procedure as they have been established in line with the existing philosophies, then a vacuum will be created within the academic community. In the face of such a refusal by the student body to assume these responsibilities, the administration will have no choice but to act in a manner which it considers to be in the best interest of the student body as a whole and of the college as an educational entity."

President Loposer quickly moved to carry out damage control by reasserting his closeness to students' concerns. In a lengthy article in the school paper the president explained, "By entering an institution of higher education, we as students must

admit that we are ignorant and in need of deepening our understanding of the world around us through the pursuit of truth. However, we soon get caught in the great hang-up of the system. This in turn fosters the feeling that we are studying for tests and meeting requirements instead of really learning those things that are more relevant to the truth. What we need to do is to provide opportunities for students to learn and enjoy learning. We need an approach which would be conducive to the elimination of the basic ignorance that inhibits our knowing higher truths."

Loposer then shared his own vision of how needed changes might occur on campus. Again one sees Loposer's transformative tendencies, his attempt to inspire. "All revolution must begin in a small way. They must begin with the change within the individual. I am not referring to the establishing of rap sessions. All rap sessions seem to do is blow off steam for somebody who wants to gripe. Rather, I would suggest the word 'revolutionary' or the 'inner change' as descriptive of this approach. Thus I submit this in an open letter to you as students to think on these things and if there be any merit, let the spontaneity of the quest of truth move us to do those things that will lead to a deeper growth intellectually and a broader approach to the society that ultimately will receive us as it looks to us for leadership."

Loposer's words, however, now came across to many as too abstract and counterfeit for younger students who had tasted earlier empowerment. One former Judiciary Board member interviewed by Mills recalled his overall disappointment with the Loposer years, and especially Dr. Loposer's handling of the Judiciary Court. Conversely, the former student also related the difficult situation in which Loposer found himself. This second emphasis is likely due to the president's transformational style which still drew some sympathy.

> Dr. Loposer seemed in the beginning to be very different from previous presidents. When he was interviewing for the position, he seemed to make a distinct effort to sell himself to students as an administrator who was 'student-oriented' and who wanted students not to simply become involved in the governance of the campus, but actually to feel a sense of

> responsibility for what happened on campus. He made a great deal of the fact that his most recent experience was as dean of students at Huntsville. Some of us began to believe that we could have a voice about campus affairs. I believe he is the one who advocated that as a part of restructuring student governance, OCC should develop a student judicial court. The idea was that all matters of student discipline were to be handled by this student body. Then the unexpected happened. An ugly incident in one dorm quickly went from a physical confrontation between students to one which had racial overtones. Loposer found himself in a dilemma. To send the case before the judicial board would take time, and unrest among certain groups of students might fester, even explode. And if the court didn't agree with the administration's views, unrest might even become worse. He felt strongly that he must act quickly and decisively. So he expelled the black student over the weekend before most of the student body returned for classes. The entire experience was extremely disappointing for me. Student governance designed to make students responsible for their actions had the potential to teach students to be spiritually, morally sound. What we ended up with was a reaction that set back any possibility of students seriously believing in the school's administration. If this had to happen, I am grateful it happened during my last semester–when my impending marriage and the threat of going to Viet Nam allowed me not to linger too long on the disappointment (Mills,2000, p. 91-92).

Toward the end of Loposer's tenure, some students pounded away at the vulnerable president and the rest of the college administration. Argued one student in a *Collegian* column, "No one needs to paint a picture of the scene now permanently [stamped] on campus. The students have lost what faith there was in the administration. And I boldly state that, deep within, the administration has lost the faith they once had in themselves. The faculty is relentlessly attempting to stand on dry ground only to find themselves sinking fast in dissatisfaction along with the students." In fairness, President Loposer struggled with problems of which the student body remained

unaware. Foremost, Dr. Loposer had inherited financial problems which now came to a frightful head. An ever rising indebtedness, coupled with a strong downturn in student enrollment caused by the end of the war in Vietnam now threatened the very existence of the college.

At this time of crisis came a stunning occurrence. Dr. Loposer, after just two short years as president of Oakland City College, submitted his resignation in June of 1973. The president, even after having made some unpopular decisions in the eyes of students, was still very popular on the campus. Consequently, his leaving left a great psychological vacuum at a very difficult time. For his part, Dr. Loposer felt badly about his leaving, but he told the college community in an editorial in the *Collegian,* "The past two years have provided the opportunity for me to kindle many friendships which I otherwise would not have had." He also noted in his farewell message, "I maintain that Oakland City College had an inordinately fine faculty, and an excellent student body which, if allowed to do so, can exercise a high degree of responsibility. My administrative staff I cannot praise highly enough. They have been loyal and conscientious throughout my two years as the President of Oakland City College. I depart with a deep sense of regret because I know that I am leaving a great portion of the job incomplete. In the light of the needs of the college, I now feel that it is prudent to provide for the Trustees the opportunity to choose someone who can develop the school according to the selected direction."

Bernard Loposer's leadership style at Oakland City College had clearly emphasized transformational ideas. As Northouse's (2004) observations regarding this type of leader revealed, Loposer placed a strong emphasis on followers' needs, values, and morals. This style, while admirable, failed however to fit the needs of the struggling Oakland City College that Loposer headed in the early 1970s.

A Charismatic Leader's Successes

Bernard Loposer's departure heralded the start of one of the school's most difficult periods. The Vietnam War was drawing to a close and by the fall of 1973 university and college enrollments across the country plunged. Many major schools were caught in the middle of massive dorm building projects at this time,

projects which eventually left many high rise dorms without a single occupant. Oakland City College experienced a mini-version of the problem. By the fall of 1973, less than three hundred students were enrolled in the Liberal Arts School. Two years before, enrollment had hovered near 700. OCC dorm occupancy fell far under capacity. To add to the school's burden, three dorms had been built in the late 60s and early 70s, and by the fall of 1973, the college carried a large debt with the US Department of Housing and Urban Development on these structures. The debt, along with daily running expenses and decreased enrollment, now threatened the very life of the college.

The Oakland City College Board of Trustees faced an almost overwhelming task in the spring of 1973. Ultimately, they had come to the conclusion that any hope for the college's survival hinged upon the leadership abilities of whomever they selected as the school's next president. The unanimous choice for this difficult job was James W. Murray. His charismatic leadership style of reform/leadership can be seen in several areas: his handling of students, how he dealt with the major financial crisis facing the college, and how he led the school to final North Central accreditation. While he could inspire like his predecessor, Bernard Loposer, President Murray, like any charismatic leader, demanded complete allegiance to his particular visions. As Northouse (2004) pointed out, these types of leaders are dominant and have a powerful sense of their own particular moral values, values most often shaped by potent personal experiences. In President Murray's case, he had endured a difficult childhood filled with hard financial times. He had also served as a Marine in two wars. Having escaped from the Chosin Reservoir during the Korean War, plus having survived two woundings in Vietnam, Murray brought with him a powerful sense of destiny.

Many believed the new president had walked into an impossible situation. The school, now over three million dollars in debt and adding to that debt daily, seemed doomed. Besides the financial crisis, he also had to confront a student body that seemed more intent on having their right to speak out on any topic and the right to dance on campus than in examining the tough financial realities the college now faced. Indeed, most

student comments in the school paper which appeared on the eve of James Murray's arrival at the college, showed students woefully ignorant of the financial crisis with which Murray soon struggled. One editorial in the school newspaper especially captured the overall attitude of many students and student leaders during these trying days. Just three months before James Murray's arrival, the editor of the *O.C. Collegian* asserted, *"The student body wants their rights to be recognized and their voices heard.*"

Most distressing perhaps for Dr. Murray was the on campus confrontations he experienced with students immediately upon his arrival to campus. His no holds barred charismatic forcefulness, however, quickly and powerfully addressed the situation.

> I was still in the Corps that first year and flying back to Indiana from Washington [D. C.] whenever I could to work at the college. My time was spread incredibly thin; there was little room for dealing with any nonessential problems. The college was in a survival mode. One day I was walking from the executive offices, down to the business office. When I got to the main hallway, I was confronted by several students who were holding a sit down protest. Oddly, they were a little unclear about what they were protesting. Anyway, they quickly told me what they were doing, and I responded by telling them that was fine with me as long as they left me a narrow path to go to and from the business office. I still had on my uniform and service cap at that time. As I turned to leave the group, I added, 'Oh by the way, I'm going to take each of your names down, put them on separate pieces of paper, and every hour I'm going to draw one student's name from my cap. That student will then be immediately expelled from the college.' That was the end of that particular protest. (Mills, 2000, pp. 109-110)

Students' rights to complain about any and all things, however, were low on President Murray's priority list when he came into office. The college was like a rapidly sinking ship, and Murray faced the immediate task of stopping the most dangerous leaks. Just as threatening was the school's lack of North Central

accreditation. The most pressing problem, however, concerned a shortage of funds to operate the day to day needs of the school. In his response to this, President Murray took the most difficult action of his presidency, but did so, in keeping with the charismatic leadership type, with no doubts about the correction of his actions.

> It was obvious that we were overstaffed. I quickly had a list made of who worked at the college–what they did–and how much they made. Here, I was looking for any overlapping. Since we were being considered for possible inclusion into the North Central group, a status we desperately needed, I found out the minimum number of people they said an accredited school must have in each department. From this information, I proceeded to begin the really trying part. I let go nineteen faculty and staff members. Six others quickly found new jobs and resigned. This was probably the toughest thing I had to carry out. (Mills, 2000, pp. 110-111)

Murray also quickly put in place new business practices that further aided the school's financial situation. Thanks to President Murray's initial actions, by the end of the year the college was no longer bleeding money. "I remember we were a few dollars in the black when the school year came to a close," Murray recalled. "I also remember thinking how that was a start" (Mills, 2000, pp. 110-111).

After taking severe, but necessary, actions to reorganize the school, President Murray then confronted student unrest. Calling several meetings with the student body, the new President told them of his new policy for bringing the college more in line with its traditions and with the founding denomination. Some of his toughest measures were outlined in a short notice in the *Collegian*. "As of May 9, 1974, all dorm rules and regulations will be strictly enforced, according to James Murray, President. There are three nonnegotiable items involved in the dorms: 1. No handling of or use of alcoholic beverages in the dormitories or on college owned property; 2. No handling of or use of DRUGS in the dorms or on college owned property; 3. No 'sex' in the dorms or on college owned property." The president's note added, "Dorm hours will remain the same as they have been in

the past. However, during open visitation, if a resident has a visitor, the door must remain open."

President Murray quickly attempted to explain the reasons for his forceful actions by calling a number of meetings with students and with faculty, all this while working on an incredibly busy schedule with his administrative duties and with his last year with the Corps. In short, he was a tremendously busy man. Yet he took time to work directly with students on projects such as an all-day campus cleaning operation in the fall of 1974.

Other more subtle approaches for bringing the campus together were carried out by the new president. For example, Murray had noticed, while leafing through some old copies of *Collegians,* that in 1948 the student council had launched a campus beautification project. In October of 1974, as mentioned above, the new President resurrected the practice, then rolled up his sleeves and joined in the work. All classes were dismissed as students, administration, staff, and faculty joined together in the work of raking leaves, pulling weeds, picking up trash and washing windows. In that monthly *Collegian*, a photo appears of President Murray, sleeves rolled and rake in hand under the caption "Col. Murray Wages War: Campus Clean-up Planned."

While college activities such as play productions and sporting events continued through the 70s and although the college had dodged the initial fatal bullet of financial ruin, the college still faced one seemingly impossible hurdle. Although the school had been accepted to candidacy status for North Central Accreditation in 1972, the acceptance had occurred when enrollment had peaked. Now, as an accreditation team revisited the school in fall of 1974, they would find a campus much more scaled back than during previous visits. Hoping to buy time in order to improve the situation, the Board of Trustees had already requested a three year extension in the process. Now, with the college at one of its lowest ebbs in its history, that delay seemed more like a stay of execution. This much was true: without North Central status, the school would likely die. In a long interview, conducted in 2000, James Murray recalled the dramatic event. Again, one sees the effectiveness of charismatic leadership in crisis.

"The situation looked bleak at the time of the North Central team visit in 1975. During that period we were relying heavily

upon the vo-tech program to shore up our overall enrollment. However, no North Central accredited school had such a department, so they didn't really know what to make of this program." The team also saw the college at its lowest ebb. "We still had major financial problems, and enrollment was much less than when they came on their last visit back in 1973. Of course, times were still booming then." President Murray quickly pointed out to the team, however, that the financial corner had been turned. "I stressed to them that we were now operating in the black for the year after experiencing several years of losing $40,000 a month." Murray also emphasized the commitment of the college faculty and staff who now labored more than ever before and for less pay. "One North Central team member commented on this by pointing out he heard much less complaining and felt a greater sense of team work than had been reported after the previous visit in 1972."

At the critical exit meeting, President Murray made his best pitch. "I pointed out we had stopped the financial bleeding and that our enrollment had stabilized. 'Don't pull the rug out from under us now, I told them.'" As the team was leaving, Murray felt he lacked a sense of what the team would recommend to the larger body. This disturbed him enough that he asked to speak to the leader of the team individually. "The head of the North Central team was a priest from a Catholic school in Ohio. I cut right to the chase. 'Oakland City College is a ministry,' I told him. 'We have a vision here of service to the denomination and to the region. 'Without a vision,' I reminded him, 'the people perish.' I pleaded with him, telling him that we had now taken care of the problems which had almost destroyed us."

Murray's talk made the critical difference. The team recommended, and North Central gave the school, two more years before the next team would come to the campus and make a final judgment regarding accreditation.

The 1977 North Central visit was one of the most significant events in the college's history. By 1977 North Central accreditation was essential for keeping the school's doors open. Dr. Murray, with his extensive connections to Washington D.C., had also discovered, upon the eve of the 1977 visit, that students in schools without such accreditation would not be eligible for federal aid. At the time, however, this was not public knowledge.

"Even the North Central team claimed to be unaware of this pending policy," Murray remembered. One of the college's consultants, who had helped many other schools obtain North Central accreditation in the past, believed the college would fail to gain the status. Dr. Barrett, the college's consultant, was less than optimistic about the school's chances, advising President Murray "not to even go to the trouble of paying that year's North Central continuation status fee. He didn't think it was worth the effort." Nevertheless, on the eve of the all-important final visit, school leaders were guardedly optimistic. Enrollment had inched up in the last two years since the last visit, as had contributions. Conversely, indebtedness had inched down. Again the team was led by a Catholic priest, Dr. McGannon from Rockhurst College.

After several days of intense examination, the team called Dr. Murray in for the final report. President Murray heard distressing news; the team was only going to recommend continuing status, "giving us more time to respond to several significant weaknesses they believed needed fixing." Now began a monumental struggle. Dr. Murray became a proverbial Jacob wrestling with the angel for the very survival of the school. "As I had done on the previous visit, I pulled the team leader over to one side. '"Continuation status won't help us," Murray explained. The feisty president went on to outline the problem. "Without federal aid, we're dead. Our students can't receive this aid unless we are fully accredited."

The team leader strongly responded to President Murray's pleas, by outlining some major problems which he thought hindered a recommendation of full status. The first concerned the college's poor facilities. Given the difficult financial problems of the last few years, the school had been unable to take on desperately needed building projects or keep up some basic maintenance on existing facilities. Undaunted, President Murray quickly snapped back. Alluding to his Korean War and Vietnam experiences, the aggressive ex-Marine told the team leader, "In combat we had no class rooms; in some cases the environment was as difficult as any ever endured by U.S. fighting men. Yet the detailed instruction we were given in those primitive circumstances was some of the best ever, and I can assure you, some of the most important those young men ever received.

You and I both know, Dr. McGannon, effective classroom instruction has to do with more than buildings. Where there is commitment, there is learning" (Mills, 2000, pp. 128-129).

Coming to agreement on that point, the team leader then offered another concern: the low salaries of the faculty members. Again President Murray went on attack. "What about nuns and priests at your school, I asked?" 'That's different' he told me. But I quickly disagreed with him. 'All of us here at Oakland City College have a mission, a ministry', I explained, 'just like your people.' That's when we really clicked. He called the team back together again. They went back for a two hour meeting. When they came out, we had received recommendation for full accreditation" (Mills, 2000, p. 129).

The long, difficult battle for accreditation had finally ended. After decades of hard work and the sacrifices of many men and women, Oakland City College was now poised on the verge of two and a half decades of spectacular growth with Dr. James Murray serving as OCU's president until his retirement in the spring of 2007. In almost every way, James Murray exhibited the characteristics of the charismatic leader—"being dominant, having a strong desire to influence others, being self-confident, and having a strong sense of one's own moral values" (Northouse, 2004, p. 172).

Conclusion

One great help in evaluating the very different leadership styles of Bernard Loposer and James Murray is the Contingency Leadership model of Fiedler and Garcia (1987) noted earlier. This theory argued that effective styles must match certain situations. Leaders who are more task motivated, such as the charismatic James Murray, will be effective in both favorable and unfavorable/difficult circumstances, or as Northouse (2004) put it, "in situations that are going very smoothly or when things are out of control" (p. 111). Leaders such as Bernard Loposer, who are relationship motivated, match well to moderately favorable situations, "that is, in situations in which there is some degree of certainty but things are neither completely under their control nor out of their control" (Northouse, p. 111). The Contingency model offers important clues then to why Bernard Loposer failed, and James Murray thrived. Murray's tenure situation perfectly

matched his leadership style, while Loposer's did not.

Other leadership models are helpful in assessment as well. While Bernard Loposer's leadership style was clearly a transformational one, James Murray's leadership style could not be any closer to the charismatic leadership model. The effects of such a leadership style include, among others, follower trusting in the leader's ideology, unquestioning acceptance of the leader, and follower obedience. Further, like in President Murray's case, such charismatic effects are more likely to occur "in context in which followers feel distress, because in stressful situations followers look to leaders to deliver them from their difficulties" (Northouse, 2004, p. 173).

President Loposer's work and vision, while commendable, failed to rescue Oakland City College from the crisis the small vulnerable school faced in the early seventies. The gifted man seemed to have been in the right place at the wrong time. Later, Loposer would find success with his leadership style at a state university in the state of Washington. Conversely, President Murray's strong sometimes over-commanding approach would help raise the school to one of its highest zeniths in its history. In the early 1990s the college moved to university status. Twenty-eight million dollars in renovation occurred in the last few years of his presidency without any indebtedness. The school's enrollment would come to top two thousand students and the university would witness the construction of nine new buildings on campus.

Kanter (1969) noted, in her study of successful utopian communities, that communal groups who had a strong charismatic leader, such as the Harmonists, lasted much longer than groups who struggled to survive under more transformational leaders such as Robert Owen and the Owenites at New Harmony. As Northouse and others have pointed out, a transformational leader thrives when the institution he or she leads is on a reasonably solid footing. Charismatic leaders, on the other hand, work best in crisis situations. Fiedler's and Garcia's work suggest the same thing: leaders function best when their styles match the unique circumstances of an institution. Typically, the need for a crisis manager/leader does not usually last long. In that regard, however, Oakland City University's problems were so severe from the early 1970s that

they lingered well into the 1980s, making President Murray's long tenure sensible. It was only in the early part of the next decade that there was a turning of the financial corner. Ironically, James Murray's success as a charismatic leader type, one whose work has brought great stability to the school at which he labored so long, may have paved the way for the university leadership to choose a transformational leader to follow.

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Philosophers and Poets of the Periphery: Educational Revision, Cultural Resistance and Community Resilience in French Hip-Hop

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Abstract
Hip-hop songs in France are influenced and made meaningful by the surrounding social constructs of the songwriter, and from this perspective French rap cannot be labeled as mere "entertainment." This essay examines the cultural place of hip-hop songs in France and how such songs addresses issues of oppression. The essay further argues that because young people of colour are the primary creators of the genre, hip-hop often questions the notion of what it means to be "French" as it defends, educates and empowers ethnocultural youth, giving them relevancy in a segmented society that often denies their presence.

So, you're a philosopher? Yes, I think very deeply. In about 4 seconds, a teacher will begin to speak.

"*My Philosophy*" by KRS-One and BDP

Introduction

When tourists visit the beautiful monuments and museums of Paris, few are aware of the impoverished conditions and lack of opportunities plaguing many of the residents within the city's diverse and multicultural suburbs. With a dropout rate far exceeding the national average, high unemployment and little hope, young people of colour from the peripheral communities surrounding Paris have few prospects for success. Feeling frustrated, some of these youth are employing an age-old tactic:

resisting via rhyme and prose. However, unlike previous generations, this contemporary manner of *résistance* combines poetry with a "rapped" lyrical delivery in order to testify and signify about life's troubles. In short, "rap" in France is synonymous with "resistance." Despite the marginalisation that nourishes the existence of French hip-hop, little academic research exists on this evolving subject. Therefore, this paper situates rap music in France by briefly discussing examples of educational revision, resistance, and cultural resilience as demonstrated in a few popular songs. Because young people of colour are the primary creators of the genre, hip-hop often questions the notion of what it means to be "French" as it defends, educates and empowers ethnocultural youth, giving them relevancy in a segmented society that often denies their presence.

Power of Prose

France has long produced many of the planet's greatest writers. For centuries, French scribes have mused about love and life, as well as using their pens to resist against the aristocracy. Whether it was Molière, Voltaire or Sartre, published works transcended their pages and motivated social and political change. Vicherat (2001) posits that because writers in France have been famous for centuries in terms of resistance, it makes sense that today's rappers also embrace the poetic word. Moreover, since the time of the pro-African *Négritude* literary movement of Léopold Senghor and Aimé Césaire, Francophones of colour have been embracing the power of prose as a means to rebel against colonialism. Indeed, for centuries people of African descent have used songs and verse in order to clamour for social change. Asante (1987, p. 116) states that enslaved Africans in the New World used music as a subversive act of defiance through the use of lyrical expressions in songs and spirituals as a means to resist against various social codes during slavery and beyond. Although contemporary rap songs may not be quite as subversive as the old spirituals, they employ the same basic elements of rhetorical defiance and linguistic code switching.

In regards to linguistics, one of the great advantages for hip-hop in France is the emphasis of rapping in French, and it is a

good language in which to rhyme due to its poetic diction and repeated word-ending inflections. Beyond the obvious, this phonological choice is favourable due to on-going insistence by State institutions to promote French over the proliferation of other languages. Due to legislation that forces media outlets to show a preference to French content, hip-hop has greatly benefitted. Yet, rapping in French is not quite as mainstream linguistically as one might imagine. Similar to their American counterparts, French hip-hop artists employ a localised variety of street slang (known as "*verlan*") into their prose. Although the use of *verlan* might disappoint language purists, it provides authenticity to the artist. Marti (2005) maintains that for youth of colour in France, using *verlan* is a way of demonstrating linguistic distinctiveness from the majority culture whilst honouring their community roots.

Development of Hip-hop

Hip-hop was born out of dance-hall gatherings held by children of Caribbean immigrants in New York City in the 1970s. This new rhythmic style was soon recognised as music in its own right, later evolving into a type of sound that rallied for social justice and community improvement (Kitwana, 2002). Today, rap music rakes in millions of dollars in commercial sales as well as stimulating and numerous cultural trends in the United States and elsewhere.

Hip-hop music arrived in France via concerts in Paris given by popular American artists in the 1980s. One of the biggest stimulators giving birth to "*le rap français*" was visits by Africa Bambaataa. One of the innovators of hip-hop in New York, Bambaataa was one of the first American DJs to gain international acclaim, and he was the founder of the International Universal Zulu Movement. Followers of this movement used hip-hop to discuss social problems whilst also promoting the values of "peace, love, respect, unity and having fun" (Boucher, 1998; Vicherat, 2001). These notions stimulated ethnocultural youths in France in ways not seen previously. Until this point, people of colour had been virtually non-existent in French pop-culture, and the societal malaise that they faced in terms of acculturation and exclusion was ignored by all politicians, no matter their ideological affiliation (Marlière, 2008).

Despite this enthusiasm, hip-hop was slow to gain popularity in France. Although numerous "underground" artists were producing popular records, it was not until the arrival of MC Solaar that the genre became widely-recognised commercially (Boucher, 1998; Milon, 1999). Similar to his early American contemporaries (e.g. Sugarhill Gang), MC Solaar's "*radicool*" lyrics were simplistic and avoided controversy and his popularity stimulated growth of the genre (Martinez, 2008). Today, hip-hop is an integral segment of the French music scene and the national hip-hop radio network *Skyrock* has the highest listenership percentage amongst the youth demographic in France.[1]

As MC Solaar faded away in late-1990s, underground artists grew in prestige as rap became more socially entrenched. For example, a "hardcore" sound became the principal lyrical motivator and the focus of the music focused less on fun, and more on anger and frustration (Marti, 2005; Martínez, 2008). Hip-hop songs in France soon came to represent the very lives experienced by the rappers themselves, with songs evolving into "rapped manifestos" that discussed socially-charged topics such as racism and despair. Many lyrics at that time (and now) graphically described everyday life as faced by youth of colour from the disadvantaged suburbs surrounding Paris in ways that no music variant had done before (Prévos 1996, 2002; Marti, 2005). The principal theme for "hardcore" rappers in France was to be aggressive in presenting the sentiments of the "least socially integrated" segment of the French population; people of colour living in the suburbs of Paris and other cities (Prévos, 1996, p.719). This same type of approach was previously used in the United States, as groups such as Public Enemy brought issues faced by African-Americans to the centre of hip-hop discourse during the late-1980s. The subjects rapped by these American groups (e.g. racism, police brutality) received much attention by mainstream media in the United States—little of it positive. Yet, despite negative musings by politicians and others, strong album sales demonstrated the desire of listeners to hear the messages conveyed (Perry, 2004). The same would be true concerning hip-hop in France.

Forman (2001), Perry (2004) and Chang (2005) state that the most important component for hip-hop artists is the concept

of "keeping it real." Thus, the formation of identity in hip-hop is nourished by the spatial social circumstances of the artist, and these constructs serve as its base. In France, the "space" and "construct" in hip-hop are the suburbs surrounding Paris and other cities.[2] The French concept of "*banlieue*" (suburb) is the exact opposite of the North American definition. In the "*banlieues*" of Paris, immigrants and others live in small apartments located in large high-rise complexes known as "*cités,*" located far from the city-centre. These "*cités*" were constructed to house arriving migrants from French colonies in Africa and the Caribbean during the decades following World War II when people were needed in France to labour in menial jobs. Though difficult to know the exact numbers due to the lack of statistical data in officially Secular France, Wieviorka (1996) and Kokoreff (2008) state that the populations of many communities surrounding Paris are majority-minority and that they all suffer from a plethora of social problems, such as underfunded schools, high unemployment, a lack of basic services, and an elevated crime rate; all of which lead to intense police scrutiny and suspicion. Little opportunity exists for upward mobility amongst "*banlieue*" residents, despite close proximity to Paris via the RER.[3] Thus, from a spatial point of view, the suburbs are disconnected from the elegant city and suburban youths are particularly vulnerable to deviance and other social problems. This disconnect is more than just geographical, as it also affects self-identification with France. Wieviorka and Marlière (2008) state that many people of colour from the suburbs feel ignored by mainstream society and believe they have no hope of becoming fully "French" despite their efforts to integrate. Moreover, "*banlieue*" youth are in crisis due to their lack of employment. Amongst others, Ollivier (2007), Kokoreff (2008) and Marlière posit that estimated jobless figures amongst ethnocultural youth range anywhere from 30 to 85 percent, depending on the suburban municipality. It is from this uneven environment that hip-hop draws its artists and thematic matter. Kokoreff and Marlière state that a constant heavy-handed police presence in the "*banlieue*" creates suspicion whilst encouraging deviance. This type of mentality is repeated throughout the song "*Cours plus vite que les balles*" ("Run faster than the bullets") by Ministère AMER, a mid-1990s track whose lyrics depict

suburban youths fleeing aggressive police agents, as echoed by the line: "*Cours plus vite que les balles, c'est la peine capitale ou le pierre tombale*" ("Run faster than bullets, or it's capital punishment or a gravestone.").[4] Countless other releases from the mid-1990s provocative "*[Nique la] Police*" ("[Fuck the] Police") by NTM to the recent 2009 song "*Moi hamdoullah, ça va*" ("I'm OK, praise God") by La Fouine also feature lyrics highlighting the unevenness concerning residents and police in the Paris suburbs.[5]

Rapped portraits that describe the type of everyday existence between police and "*banlieue*" youth have not amused French politicians, and this type of "keeping it real" rhetoric made Ministère AMER the target of government censorship throughout the 1990s (Boucher, 1998). The first outcry against the group ensued after the release of "*Brigitte, femme de flic*" ("Brigitte, cop's wife"), a song whose (intentional) misogynistic lyrics discuss the relationship between a wife of police agent and young men from the suburbs.[6] More controversy emerged following the success of the critically acclaimed film "*La Haine*" and its soundtrack, where "hardcore" groups appeared prominently. This time, government ministers were upset with the Ministère AMER song "*Sacrifice de poulet*" and its lyrics: "*Ce soir j'ai la santé, je vais sacrifier un poulet*" ("Tonight I'm feelin' good, I'm going to kill a cop").[7] In both of the above examples, the then-Minister of the Interior (Charles Pascua) called for the banning of Ministère AMER's albums. Furthermore, by circumventing the principles of free-speech, the government levied several censorship fines on the group for so-called indecency (Boucher, 1998). Despite this negative attention, enthusiasm for "hardcore" releases increased substantially.

Paradoxically, many "hardcore" groups also use hip-hop in a positive manner, warning listeners to avoid the vices of the street. For example, lyrics throughout NTM's 1999 release "*Laisse pas traîner ton fils*" ("Don't let your son go"), advise parents and others to take an interest in the lives of adolescent boys as a way to navigate them away from the "*banlieue*" stereotype of societal failure and expected deviance, as shown here:

Laisse pas traîner ton fils
Si tu veux pas qu'il glisse
Qu'il te ramène du vice (….)
Que voulais-tu, que ton fils apprenne dans la rue?

Don't let your son go
If you don't want him to slip away
Or else he'll bring you trouble (….)
What do you want, that he learn from the street?[8]

Contrasting lyrical elements such as these are quite common in French hip-hop. The contradictory navigation between the use of rap as resistance against societal institutions and using it to prevent listeners from failure is found in songs by most groups (Éreau, 2008). Although hip-hop lyrics often discuss the realities of the street, there are many more examples where they are employed as a manner in which to revisit history.

Education and Historical Revision

In France, it is often said that the school you attend and the degree you hold determines your status and place in French society. Most of the country's political élite of all ideologies are graduates of a small number of prestigious universities, and nearly all of these institutions are located within the sophisticated confines of Paris, located far from the economically disadvantaged communities the periphery. Throughout the suburbs, a low educational attainment amongst youth of colour is frequently the norm, and a life of despair is often the subsequent result of this lack of scholastic credentials (Silverman, 1992; Ollivier, 2007; Kokoreff, 2008). For example, in many municipalities located within the diverse and socio-economically depressed *département* of Seine-Saint-Denis just north of Paris, less than 30% of all ethnocultural youths finish high school, and even the lowest jobless figures delineate that these young people are unemployed at a rate that is triple the national average (Kokoreff). Moreover, in regards to those suburban students who do go on to earn secondary diplomas, many are denied access to France's exclusive universities, perhaps out of lack of preparation for the rigorous entrance exams that determine one's eligibility for admission, or an absence of familial

connections, or due to systematic racism (Kokereff,). No matter the reasoning, without formal degrees from the right schools in France, those few youths of colour who have managed to navigate and succeed against the odds are often denied the best employment opportunities.

Another issue in terms of education is the strong curriculum emphasis on French culture and history at the expense or outright denial of the non-Western experiences that are also tied to French history (e.g. colonialism).[9] Early hip-hop artists in the United States addressed this subject when they questioned the political and cultural systems that separate African-Americans from the majority culture. In regards to educational invisibility, the 1989 song "You must learn" by KRS One discussed the one-sidedness of American schools in terms of negating African history in favour of European, as its lyrics sought to celebrate historical contributions made by people of African heritage throughout time:

> What do you mean when you say I'm rebellious,
> 'Cause I don't accept everything that you're telling us? (….)
> It seems to me that in a school that's ebony,
> African history should be pumped up steadily.[10]

Many French rappers also imitate and emulate this strategy, and themes discussing the historical ignorance of ethnocultural minorities and the questioning of Eurocentric pedagogical perspectives are a frequent refrain. As Martinez (2008, p.152) highlights, one of the best tracks that revisit French history is the 1993 release "*À qui l'histoire*" ("Whose history") by the group Assassin. Lyrics from this song question the very legitimacy of the educational system in France by arguing that schools should represent everyone in their curricula, as shown here:[11]

> *Aujourd'hui nous allons parler du système éducationnel*
> *Le fameux, l'unique, fidèle à ses modèles,*
> *Mais la science de connaître, de savoir apprise sur le banc des écoles*
> *N'est pas exhaustive dans toutes ses formes.*
> *(…) le mixage des cultures dans les grandes agglomérations*
> *Doit être pris en compte au niveau de l'éducation (….)*

Commençons par étudier la façon dont les différents peuples vivent.
Le système scolaire doit être remanié
L'Histoire de l'Humanité est un sujet facile à manipuler (….)
Ton histoire n'est pas forcément la même que la mienne, connard (….)

Today we're going to talk about the educational system
The one that's famous, unique and loyal to its models
Yet the science of knowledge learned in school chairs
Is not complete in all of its forms.
(…) the mixing of cultures in cities
Needs to be represented in terms of education (….)
Let's start by studying the way that different people live.
The educational system needs to be reorganised
Human history is an easy subject to manipulate (….)
Your forced history isn't mine (….)

The above excerpt demands that school lessons reflect and celebrate the true nature of France in all of its diverse forms. This is especially important for schools located in the "*banlieues*" of Paris where ethnocultural minorities make up a majority of students. Martinez (2008) posits that history is a subject that is easy to manipulate in France and songs such as this one question that Eurocentric convolution. The theme of historical manipulation is further echoed in later lyrics that give explicit examples demonstrating how the State favours the majority culture by not teaching the true legacy of France's colonial past:

Pourtant ton histoire fait que je me retrouve sur ton territoire.
Donc j'attaque, et me cultive pour savoir pourquoi je suis là,
Mais l'État ne m'aide pas, il ne m'enseigne pas ma culture!
Nous cacher le passé n'est pas bon pour le futur.
Comme une bombe qui tombe sur une institution,
Tous les jeunes à l'école doivent dire Non à cette éducation (….)
La révolution dans l'éducation, car le système scolaire ne tient pas compte de toutes les civilisations,
En manipulant le peuple dès les plus jeunes générations.[12]

Consider that your history made me a part of your territory.
So, I attack and cultivate myself, in order to find out why I'm here,
But the State doesn't help me, it doesn't teach my culture!
Hiding our past isn't good for the future.
Like a bomb that falls onto an institution,
All schoolchildren need to say No to this education (….)
A revolution in education, as the educational system doesn't recognise all civilisations,
By manipulating people from the youngest generations.

This excerpt makes the case that a realistic cultural approach to teaching history would promote cultural appreciation and harmony amongst everyone. French colonialism in Africa, the Caribbean and Asia produced immigration from those areas to France over the course of time. Therefore, contemporary France is a pluralistic society, and these lyrics demand that the various histories, cultures and civilisations within it be given legitimacy. Martinez (2008) argues that songs such as "*À qui l'histoire*" seek to expedite pedagogical change by lyrically encouraging listeners to take a revolutionary stance and reject the current curricula instead of being further manipulated. Similar to early-American hip-hop artists who rapped about "dropping science" concerning educating listeners in an intellectual manner, this song demonstrates how hip-hop is used as a teaching forum in order to reach the "*banlieue*" whose cultures are ignored by current school lessons.

Other groups take a more direct approach in order to discuss African history in a realistic manner. The group IAM, hailing from the southern French city of Marseille, have built a career out of epic storytelling in their songs by frequently discussing the tragic history of Europe's contact with Africa. The educational methodology used by IAM differs greatly from the radical portraits put forth by both Assassin and Ministère AMER in their songs. Most releases by IAM centre on the group's "Pharoahist" pro-Africa spiritualist philosophy (Prévos, 2002) where references to ancient Egypt and a mystical interpretation of Islam often serve as themes.

Perhaps the best illustration of this type of African historical revision can be found in the song "*Les tam-tams de l'Afrique*" by

IAM. The structure employed in this track is thematically complex, lyrically educating listeners of the horrors of the Atlantic Slave Trade (the first release to do so). Although its lyrics commence with a negative, yet realistic, depiction of Europe's contact with Africa, the song also represents hope in spite of the terrible conditions endured by slavery. Martínez (2008, p.161) argues that the *Négritude* poets often commenced their prose with narrative descriptions of suffering and injustice only to end on a crescendo of themes in terms of triumph and hope for the African people. The song "*Les tam-tams de l'Afrique*" follows this model by employing the same thematic arrangement as it ends.

Other hip-hop artists utilise a similar structural rubric (despair, hope, triumph). For example, the song "*Code Noir*" ("Black Code") by Fabe contains lyrics that describe the negative conditions existing in Martinique during slavery and beyond. In fact, the very title for this song invokes a historical episode representing racism and discrimination. In the late 17th century the French government adopted the "*Code Noir*," a set of rules designed to regulate and legislate slavery from a legal point of view. This included a list of codes detailing how slaves were to be treated by their owners as well as by the State, none favourable towards the enslaved themselves. Lyrics from "*Code Noir*" first discuss the mistreatment of Africans by their European masters whilst later concentrating on the pride and strength possessed by people of African descent despite tragic circumstances. Similar to what was observed in songs by other artists, "*Code Noir*" also questions the authenticity of French history, as illustrated here:

Leur histoire faut pas s'y fier.
Pour raisons racistes leurs écrivains l'ont falsifiée.
C'est jamais à l'école française que j'aurais appris
que les premiers hommes sur terre venaient d'Éthiopie
Ils apprennent aux Noirs à être Blancs et jamais l'inverse,
Ask yourself "Why is that?" comme KRS.
Est-ce parce que dans leurs messes, ils nous ont oubliés?
Ou qu'ils veulent encore nous aliéner pour régner.

Their history, we mustn't be proud.
For racist reasons their writers falsified it.

It was never at a French school that I would have learned
That the first people on Earth came from Ethiopia.
They teach blacks to be white and never the reverse,
Ask yourself "Why is that?" like KRS.
Is it because in their masses, they have forgotten us?
Or they still want to alienate us to conquer us.[13]

`French hip-hop is often motivated by the Afrocentricity that originated in American rap during the late-1980s and early-1990s. In the case of "*Code Noir*," a clear reference is made to KRS-One, an artist who consistently discusses historical revision in his songs. Moreover, similar to the repetitive chorus from Public Enemy's song "Fight the Power" that instructed African-Americans to "fight the powers that be," Fabe's song also contains a repetitive forceful refrain:

Code noir, crime contre l'humanité!
Esclavage, crime contre l'humanité!
Déportation, crime contre l'humanité!
Exploitation dans les plantations,
Demande aux békés.

Code noir, crime against Humanity!
Slavery, crime against Humanity!
Deportations, crime against Humanity!
Exploitation on plantations,
Ask the whites.[14]

Themes that support notions of African Pride and a correct historical description of Africa's relationship with France serve to counter the positive connotations and images put forth by school curricula. Despite the praise lavished on French culture for its achievements over many centuries, that very same construct has also been responsible for injustice and inhumanity regarding its treatment of Africa and Africans. To this day in the Paris suburbs, people of ethnocultural descent are less educated and more likely to be unemployed than those from the majority culture (Kokoreff, 2008). The emotional impact of these types of social dichotomies with French majority society is frequently omnipresent in the lyrics of hip hop releases, and rap music

continues to focus on the uneven historical and cultural realities faced by people of colour in France. That said, hip-hop is also used as a means in which to uplift people living in the disadvantaged suburbs.

Rapping the Positive

One of the most popular educationally-themed rap singles is the 2008 release "*Banlieusards*" ("Suburbanites") by Kery James, a rapper well known for his "conscious" thematic delivery. Similar success, challenging listeners to "stand up and be proud" ("*Lève-toi et marche*"). With its recurringbattle cry of "*on n'est pas condamné à l'échec*" ("we're not condemned to fail"), the song immediately caught the attention of many "*banlieue*" youths and slowly became a universal call to action. When "*Banlieusards*" was first released, it became an instant hit (Éreau, 2008). The following excerpt demonstrates the release's recurring message:

> *Il est temps que la deuxième France s'éveille (….) il est temps qu'on fasse de l'oseille. Ce que la France ne nous donne pas on va lui prendre. Je ne veux pas brûler des voitures, mais en construire, puis en vendre. Si on est livré à nous-mêmes, le combat, il faut qu'on le livre nous-mêmes. Il ne suffit pas de chanter, « regarde comme ils nous malmènent »; Il faut que tu apprennes, que tu comprennes et que t'entreprennes avant de crier « c'est pas la peine ! Quoi qu'il advienne, le système nous freine ! ». À toi de voir!*
>
> It's time that the 'second France' wakes up (….) it's time that we make our own mark. Whatever France does not give us, we will take. I don't want to burn cars, I want to manufacture and sell them. If we are left to ourselves, we have to take on the fight ourselves. It isn't right to say 'watch how they treat us,' we have to learn, understand

> and undertake before yelling 'it isn't worth it anyhow, the system holds us back.' It's up to you.[15]

In this example, listeners from the "other France" are told to redirect their anger in a positive way and to refrain from committing the types of vandalism that often occur during protests against the police (e.g. burning automobiles). The lyrics further demand that suburban youth stop blaming others for the failure that they see around them and take control of their own destinies by gaining courage, working hard and fighting back. Lastly, the song underlines the notion that if the "system" is restrictive, the most effective manner in which to respond is by resisting creatively and educationally. There are countless other hip-hop releases containing similar themes as "*Banlieusards*," few of which ever get noticed by the mainstream media.

Summary

Hip-hop songs in France are influenced and made meaningful by the surrounding social constructs of the songwriter, and from this perspective French rap cannot be labelled as mere "entertainment." There are educational, historical and cultural stories to tell, and those tales are rooted in realistic circumstances, articulating what would otherwise go unnoticed in school textbooks or the media. Because institutions of majority society silence them, rap music provides social agency and legitimacy to "*banlieue*" youth. Yet, French hip-hop is not just a type of music that focuses on the alienation felt by youths of colour living on the margins. Amongst others, many rappers use their visible platforms in a positive manner to try and reverse negative stereotypes by encouraging ethnocultural youths to succeed educationally in the classroom or to resist with the mind (Éreau, 2008).[16]

No matter their style, French hip-hop artists repeatedly discuss "real life" problems in their lyrics; outlining and conceptualising the sentiments of ethnocultural youth in France in a way that no other musical genre has done. Social dichotomies with the majority culture are constantly repeated and analysed, and songs juxtapose themes of hopelessness, racism, rejection, educational exclusion, police harassment (etc.) and the

rage that follows. Hip-hop lyrics urge listeners to resist, be proud, and to reject systematic pre-assigned stereotypes in the hopes that everyone, regardless of background, can truly benefit from the cherished ideals of the French Republic. However, as long as people of colour continue to be discriminated against, or be misrepresented by reports put forth by media outlets (often emphasising deviance), or be underrepresented in government, universities, and be forgotten in school curricula,[17] French hip-hop music will continue to have necessary relevancy.

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[1] Current radio ratings (summer and fall 2011) for the 15 to 30 year old demographic group according to French national surveys and Infodisc: www.infodisc.fr.
[2] Whereas in the North American context "the suburbs" are often assumed to be areas with larger houses, better school districts and a lower crime rate than within cities, in France the opposite is true: The cities are elegant and wealthy, and the suburbs are considered as social pariahs by many within French majority culture.
[3] The RER is the rail system that connects Paris with its suburbs.
[4] "*Cours plus vite que les balles*," by Ministère AMER (1994), from the album 95200, Paris: Musidisc. English translation by the author of this paper.
[5] "*Police*" by Suprême NTM (1993), from the album *J'appuie sur la gâchette*, Paris: Epic Records; "*Moi hamdoullah ça va*," by La Fouine (2009) from the album, *Mes repères*, Paris: Jive Epic Group.
[6] "*Brigitte, femme de flic*," by Ministère AMER (1992), from the album *Pourquoi tant de haine*, Paris: Musidisc.
[7] "*Sacrifice de poulet*" by Ministère AMER (1995), from the soundtrack to the film *La Haine*, Paris: Virgin Records. English translation by the author of this paper.
[8] "*Laisse-pas traîner ton fils*," by Suprême NTM. (1998), from the album *Suprême NTM*. Paris: Epic Records. English translation by the author of this paper.
[9] On 23 February 2005, the French National Assembly passed a law forcing educators and school curricula in France to emphasise, acknowledge and recognise the "positives" of French colonialism. The law was watered down and repealed the following year.
[10] "*You must learn*," by KRS One and Boogie Down Productions (1990), from the album *Ghetto Music: Blueprint Of Hip*, New York: Jive Records.
[11] Lyrics of "*À qui l'histoire*" by Assassin, taken from Martínez (2008:152).
[12] *Ibid.*
[13] "*Code Noir*," by Fabe. (1998), from the album, *Code Noir*. Paris: Double H Productions. English translation by the author of this paper.
[14] *Ibid.*
[15] "*Banlieusards*," by Kery James (2008), from the album *À l'ombre du show-business*, Paris: Up Music. English translation by the author of this paper.
[16] To name but one example, the rapper Kery James founded ACES (*Apprendre, Comprendre, Entreprendre et Servir*), an organisation of his creation that provides after-school support for students of colour in schools throughout the Paris suburbs.
[17] For example, in both the French Senate and National Assembly (consisting of 555 elected officials representing metropolitan France), if one excludes deputies and representatives from the overseas Caribbean and South Pacific "*départements et territories*" (consisting of 15 representatives out of 22 districts), not a single person of colour was elected in the 2007 "*élections legislatives,*" including in suburbs that are clearly majority-minority in terms of population.

Positive Psychology and Educators

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Abstract
This study examines the practice of positive psychology and how this view might help educators cope with teacher burnout and teacher job dissatisfaction. Through the study and practice of positive psychology, educators may come to find useful techniques that promote mental wellness, realistic optimism, job satisfaction, and motivational responses that will help prevent teacher burnout.

Introduction Burnout and Job Dissatisfaction among Teachers

Although most educators believe that their job is extremely rewarding, there are times when they may feel overwhelmed with apathetic students, parental complaints, mandated requirements from school administration and state officials, and limited time to complete newer ideas and educational endeavors. These realities often lead to the condition commonly referred to as teacher burnout. Maslach (1993) described this circumstance as "a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity" (p. 20). Brouwers and Tomic (2000), in their longitudinal study of teacher burnout, believed the phenomenon "of dramatic importance in education" (p. 239). They found that classroom management skills were essential in dealing with the condition. They specifically noted in this regard,

> The ability to control students in a classroom is a critical factor in any educational setting. After all, if teachers do not react adequately to students when their behavior is disruptive, instructional time is lost for all students. In order

> to reach instructional goals it is necessary for teachers to deal adequately with disruptive behavior in the classroom. It may therefore be assumed that teachers perceive attaining a comfortable classroom environment as an invaluable outcome of their efforts. (p. 242)

Hastings and Bham (2003) proposed that a wide variety of factors brought about teacher burnout. Their study, however, like Brouwers and Tomic, focused on student behavior as an essential cause of burnout. They further examined the psychological tools teachers might individually possess that could help them cope with student behavioral problems. Farber (2000) also noted the complexity of the teacher burnout phenomenon, suggesting there were three types of this condition.

- Wear out, where the individual gives up.
- Classic, where the teacher works harder and harder to overcome stress.
- Under challenged, where the teacher becomes bored.

While not every teacher reaches the burnout stage, many have reported experiencing a large degree of job dissatisfaction. Mertler (1992) discovered nearly twenty-five percent of the teachers he surveyed were dissatisfied with teaching, and two-thirds reported they would not go into teaching if they had to choose again. In his 2002 study, Mertler also observed that "The morale of teachers can have far-reaching implications for student learning, as well as the health of the teacher" (p 44). The researcher went on to call for educational leaders to find ways to "improve the levels of motivation" for the teaching profession (p 51). Most educational leaders, as seen by the studies above, have looked to better classroom management as the top possible remedy to teacher burnout. Others, such as Craig Mertler, have pushed for incentive pay systems to stem teacher dissatisfaction.

Another element which may lend itself to teachers developing a pessimistic view of their profession involved the general attitude placed on work. In the past, most studies examining the level of workplace satisfaction have focused on

negative elements (Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002). More specifically, Turner et.al. noted that these studies generally centered on, "Stress and burnout, violations of psychological contracts, workplace violence, job insecurity, and downsizing" (p. 715). In the realm of teaching satisfaction, many of the same negative elements seem to apply. When teachers speak of the world in which they wish to teach, such negative concerns arise. On the other hand, it may be vital that educators move toward the more positive elements of job satisfaction—to feel empowered, motivated, and overall positive about themselves and their position within the microcosm of a school.

Positive Psychology and Educators

This study examines some of the basics of positive psychology to see what this view might provide in terms of solutions for responding to teacher burnout and teacher dissatisfaction. Positive psychology holds that older models of psychological understanding were often too grounded in a negative skepticism. Sheldon and King (2001) observed that positive psychology was an "attempt to urge psychologist to adopt a more open and appreciative perspective regarding human potential, motives and capacities" and that traditional psychological models trained "one to view positivity with suspicion" (p. 216). A relative new approach stressed initially by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), positive psychology, among other areas, has looked at the "work settings support[ing] the greatest satisfaction among workers" (p. 5). Pajares (2001) more specifically examined the application of positive psychology as a way of better motivating the academic performances of students. Since achieving students tend to have fewer behavior problems, his study hinted at the positive effects of using this approach to help limit teacher burnout. Korthagen (2004), in his study on what makes up the essence of a good teacher, speaks of the good teachers' core qualities reflecting many aspects of positive psychology. Thus, positive psychology bears a closer examination as to what it might bring to the educator's table.

Realistic Optimism

An important element of positive psychology, perhaps the core, is the feature of realistic optimism. A typical aspect of

mental health would be the ability to interpret surrounding environments into a rational and consistent reality (Schneider, 2001). However, reality most often carries a connotation of negativity. If someone is being realistic about matters, it oftentimes denotes a focus of possible negatives. This view lends itself to the idea of reality requiring a pessimistic vantage point. Optimism and reality, however, are not binary opposites, regardless of popular belief.

The mindset of optimism within the realm of reality is perhaps best described in the studies of Scheier and Carver (1993). They noted that optimism is not just acknowledging positives, but rather optimism is a disposition through which positives are expected. Remaining mindful of both the definition of reality and optimism, realistic optimism is perhaps best defined with the help of DeGrandpre (2000) as "the tendency to maintain a positive outlook within the constraints of the available measurable phenomena situated in the physical and social world" (p. 733). Schneider believed that realistic optimism is the focus and enhancement of positive experiences. Further, realistic optimism actively incorporates aspiration and the search of positives while acknowledging the unknown. In Schneider's view, as opposed to prior approaches to optimism, realistic optimism involves an individual's conscious attempts to create positive experiences rather than hoping for positive outcomes to transpire. Schneider described three forms of realistic optimism. Each stands as principles that might better lead teachers to form more positive outlooks regarding their work

- Leniency for the past.
- Appreciation for the present
- Opportunity seeking for the future

Regarding the latter, an opportunity-seeking mindset can "encourage a mindful learning perspective by focusing on dynamic and changeable properties of actions and environment" (Schneider, p. 256). This notion seems to hold potentially important meaning for teachers.

Realistic Optimism also calls for finding positive points of reference in difficult situations (Ashford and Kreiner, 1999). For educators, new approaches and ideas in education are often

looked upon in a negative fashion. These new ideas, while making some sense on paper, are often difficult in carrying out and add the kinds of pressures which can cause teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction. How might positive psychology and realistic optimism speak to this?

As many educators have assumed set scripts for teaching and material choices, minus unexpected minor adjustments, the emerging requirement of technology typically serves as more of an annoyance and stress creator. As the IT person for my school, I have experienced much frustration at the other end of technology integration. I often discover the attitude from some seasoned educators toward the need to integrate technology into classroom curriculum is less than welcoming. Even when presented with the assertion that technology can assist educators in increasing student achievement, the idea is frequently met with pessimism. One possible step in a more positive direction would be to utilize technology to initially educate teachers of their own personal strengths. Peterson (2006) spoke of the Values in Action Inventory of Strengths as having the potential to serve as an intrinsic motivator for individuals while simultaneously producing feelings of fulfillment, invigoration, and discovery. After addressing individual educator strengths, the implementation of various technologies can assume very specific forms that setup the educator for success. The wave of positivity, according to Peterson, can be tracked as follows:

1. Developed meaningfulness of the person and desired productivity.
2. Establishment and understanding of realistic optimism.
3. Successful execution of desired productivity.
4. Secondary wave of meaningfulness.
5. Job satisfaction and overall well-being improvement.

The aforementioned process not only becomes residual, it has the potential to become habitual and contagious. As students may notice the process by which an educator goes about imparting curriculum in a similar fashion the student may too begin to unknowingly demonstrate positive habits of self-education.

Conclusion

Schneider (2001) has asked the important question concerning how "we tell the difference between realistic optimism and optimistic thinking that is likely to be unrealistic or self-deceptive" (p. 257). Her question is an essential one as positive psychology and realistic optimism has its critics. Some detractors argue that the views found in positive psychology may create illusions and self-deceptions. Within its system, however, positive psychology has a number of processes for avoiding such problems. Getting to the nuts and bolts of practicing realistic optimism, Schneider noted, for example, several practices which must be carried out to make this view functional. The process requires discipline.

> It should come as no surprise that being realistic requires monitoring experience to find out what is really going on in the environment. Realistic optimism relies on regular reality checks to update assessments of progress, fine-tune one's understanding of potential opportunities, refine causal models of situations, and re-evaluate planned next steps. This involves attention to both environmental and social feedback about whether beliefs fall outside the range of plausible possibilities. (257)

Over the last decade, teaching has become an even more daunting profession. National and state assessment systems, an increase in poverty and single-families, among other elements, have certainly added to the pressure of teaching. More and more teachers may therefore begin to experience burnout or some level of job dissatisfaction during their careers. On the other hand, an educator's attitude toward teaching is important to student achievement. Teachers who experience burnout or job dissatisfaction are less likely to provide what students need. Korthagen's (2004) work clearly suggests that one possible response to this problem is the application of positive psychology ideas to the teaching world. Echoing the work of Seligman, Korthagen noted,

> For too long psychology has focused on pathology, weakness, and damage done to people, and hence on treatment. They say that, although their focus has been successful in some limited areas, treatment is not just fixing what is broken; it is nurturing what is best. One can easily relate this certain approaches toward the improvement of education. (p. 86)

The information discovered in this study suggests the great potential for applying positive psychology principles to teaching. Through the utilization and understanding of some fundamental principles of positive psychology, the task of teaching may prove to grow more doable, more fulfilling and less exasperating. Information, curriculum development and training regarding this view, however, will be necessary to implement such ideas in the classroom. Sandra Schneider's article, "In Search of Realistic Optimism: Meaning, Knowledge, and Warm Fuzziness" and Fred Korthagen's "In Search of the Essence of a good Teacher: Towards a more Holistic Approach in Teacher Education," seem to be a good place from which to start. Paul Wong (2011) also presents the most recent ideas regarding this field in his article, "Positive Psycholgy 2.0: Towards a Balanced Interactive Model of a Good Life."

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Using Literacy Blogs: A Community of Learners Reflecting on Their Learning

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Abstract
This paper offers strategies used to promote an online class as a key component of an effective online graduate reading methods course. This work further examines how a professional online learning community was constructed in which all graduate students received responses from their peers and comments from the instructor. The study found that the graduate students had many opportunities for reflection as well as more time and energy to build a literacy community throughout the course.

Introduction

Researchers suggest that online instruction is welcomed by students because it provides students with convenience and autonomy (Tallent-Runnels, et al., 2006). Online classes may also allow a student to earn a degree while still working. Students often build on ideas by answering questions and describing personal experiences to topics via a discussion board that stems from the course readings. In this respect, the online course is socially interactive because students and instructor find ways to build a relationship with each other through dialogues. Discussion forums and blogging are also excellent strategies for engaging students in clarifying and extending their mental modes or concepts, building links, and identifying relationship. Students participating in an online discussion forum can build bonds with each other, foster social connections, and open dialogues otherwise not covered in other types of discussions.

Purpose of the Study

This study reviews the nuts and bolts of implementing a graduate reading methods course taught through an online

learning environment at one particular university's school of education. This online class centered on enhancing the sense of learning community and encouraging graduate students' participation in online discussions. More specifically, the class was designed

1. To provide an effective discussion board blog for in-depth discussion of the topics and to demonstrate students' growth in terms of the depth of their critical thinking as the course progresses.
2. To address the longer wavelength of online exchanges for reflecting, interpreting, critiquing, extending, and supporting the ideas with personal experiences.
3. To create a class community for building positive relationships—a strong component of the online interactions.

It is hoped that the example put forth here will benefit other instructors who wish to develop effective online courses.

Review of Related Literature

The Internet continues to generate new trends that not only foster individual reflection but also cohesive community development. Current research in computer-mediated communication environments such as blog, wiki authoring, and discussion board has revealed interesting trends in the way individual identity is revealed, language is interpreted, and interactions have transpired (Calvert, Mahler, Zehnder, Jenkins, & Lee, 2003; Crystal, 2001; Greenfield & Subrahmanyam, 2003; Herring, 2000).

Because blogs seem so popular with students, educators, teachers, administrators, and policy makers, it is hard to ignore the implications for educational technology. Blogging can enhance learning environment, and it can be an important addition to educational technology initiatives. It promotes literacy through reflection, allows collaborative learning, provides anytime-anywhere access, and remains fungible across academic disciplines.

Research findings have showed that in both face-to-face and online formats the quality of interaction among students and

between students and their instructors is a critical factor which contributes to students' higher level thinking (Lewis & Abdul-Hamid, 2006). Research suggested that the online learning environment generated a deeper learning of the course topics because students had more opportunities to participate in discussions and to get feedback from their instructors than in the face-to-face formats (Davidson-Shivers, Tanner, & Muilenburg, (2000) and Rennie & Mason, (2004). Rohfield and Hiemstra (1995) found that students gained more when the instructor assumed "the responsibility of keeping discussions on track, contributing special knowledge and insights, weaving together various discussion threads and course components, and maintaining group harmony" (p. 164).

A key difference between face-to-face and online formats, of course, is that the online discussions are asynchronous, providing time for reflection and an answer forum requiring written responses that become part of a course archive.

Developing and Teaching an Online Graduate Course in Literacy Education

Following the ideas gathered by reviewing recent scholarly literature on the subject, the graduate reading methods course this study examined provided an effective discussion board and forum for in-depth discussions of the topics and allowed graduate students to develop relationships with their peers and their instructor. This course offered by a mid-western university carried out interactive online meetings with on-line discussions and independent work to explore current trends in literacy teaching, learning, and research. Students had opportunities to hear directly from a globally diverse group of students in the field while they were developing a variety of perspectives.

Throughout the course, students experienced and learned about new technologies, such as blogging, and made use of blogging as a tool for learning and reflective thinking. Students also viewed and read blog sites and used articles and other resources to help build a theoretical understanding of literacy. They could also make use of the various resource pages on the blackboard site of the class home page for supplemental resources and other electronic texts. Online conversations each

month were structured around course readings/blogs on a literacy topic.

The instructor introduced the topic/blog and provided guided questions to focus students' thinking about course content via discussion boards. Students created at least five thoughtful posts via discussion boards thread. These took the form of focused comments and questions, practical experiences and connections, or issues that came to mind from engaging with the class readings.

Several students used the discussion board to get their work out onto the blackboard and have shared their work with their instructor and colleagues. They also made comments at least once on each of their colleagues' posts/blog sites.

Reflective Blogging and Online Discussions

One of the more interesting items to come from this course was the positive educational outcomes caused by blogging and online discussions. Students were encouraged to dialogue, critique, compare, negotiate, hypothesize, and problem solve through a discussion board. The instructor asked them to create a thread to a discussion board that gave information about the bloggers that they admired. In another assignment the instructor asked them to write a 50-100 word review about one of the best blogs they had read and create a thread that others could click on to read their review. For each block of readings, the researcher introduced a chapter or topic, asked students to read supplemental readings posted on the blackboard section of the course document, provided some guided questions, and focused students' thinking about course content. The instructor provided a fresh way of eliciting genuine student responses, which was the key to fruitful reflections.

Regardless of whether students were expressing their ideas through a discussion board or a thread/blog, the right questions seemed to help make reflection a healthy habit instead of a boring assignment. Students' work was routinely critiqued by their peers, and they developed a natural inquisitiveness which helped them to want to know about what other students had written. Some students became noticeably more involved with what they were writing about. The students were challenged to think carefully about what they would write as it would be shared

with a much larger community beyond the instructor. Students were choosing to spend more time on the class blog site because they saw opportunities when the learning moment was shared with others. Their excitement stemmed from being able to communicate what they knew for a real purpose and audience. They learned how to critique in a positive and constructive way.

http://www.graves.k12.ky.us/schools/wingo/meoldham/
This is the link to my webpage.
Assignments for the Week of
March 22, 2010

Read Every Night!!

(Figure 1). One of the graduate students had done some very interesting work using blogs with a kindergarten class while allowing other students to comment on her blog!

It is important to understand to what degree students who used blogging and online discussion may have arrived at a more reflective level of thinking regarding article reading assignments. In order to examine this element, the instructor used a three point rubric to determine the depth of knowledge or depth of reflective thinking achieved during blogging and online discussions about article reading assignments during the online class.

- A score of 1 was given when students simply described the classroom practice, summarized the article, agreed with peers, or stated their beliefs.
- A score of 2 was given if their reflection was more than an observation.
- A score of 3 was assigned when students elaborated on ideas gathered from other courses as well as ideas from other leadership projects or presentations and made

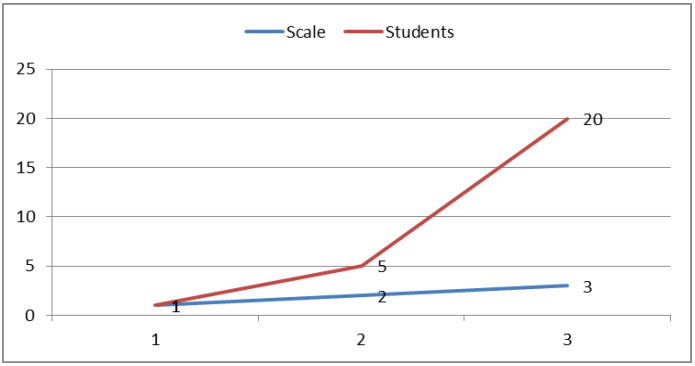
inferences about the ideas in the article or critiqued current practices using these ideas.

Results

The results suggested that 50% of the students went beyond the description of classroom practice and demonstrated they were thinking beyond the superficial, descriptive level. Thirty three percent of the students contributed information related to the topics raised in the readings, asked questions, but did not show the depth of critical thinking of level 3 responses. Only 17% of the students reflected on practices using the article ideas or simply described classroom observation summarizing the ideas in the article (Figure 2).

These results suggested that students benefitted from back and forth discussion with their instructor. The online discussions helped them to further reflect, clarify, and extend their understanding. The opportunities for the instructor to extend and direct students' conversations were greatly increased with online learning as well. The students in the online course were very reflective in their learning practices, spent more time collaboratively preparing for the course, as well as being involved in class discussions. In the discussion board conversations, several graduate students asserted the importance of blogging and said that reflecting with peers and receiving comments from the instructor were extremely valuable. The information helped them feel like valued members of the academic community. They reported being more collaborative minded in their learning with classmates. These same kinds of student understandings had also been noted by Peterson & Slotta (2009).

Because the format in the online class was similar to a personal diary or log, where an autobiographical reflection was prevalent, blogs provided an arena where self-expression and creativity were encouraged.



(Figure 2). The depth of knowledge of literacy topics as demonstrated by students' online reflections was profound.

One student especially related how students might take advantage of the opportunities a blog presented so that students might come to better understand the pedagogies used in the online classroom. In her e-mail, she wrote,

Blogs promote self-expression, a place where we can develop highly personalized content. Yet blogs connect with an online community—we can comment and give feedback to class peers, and we can link to our colleague bloggers, creating an interwoven, dynamic organization. In the online classroom, we can have a personal space to read and write alongside a communal one, where ideas are shared, questions are asked and answered, and social cohesion is developed.

Implications for Reflective Blogging

The students in this particular graduate online course clearly perceived the vehicle of blogging and online discussions as a way to get their work out onto the blackboard and to share with a much wider audience and not just their public school colleagues. Moreover, they used blogging to document, reflect, plan, mentor, analyze, and communicate with class peers providing each other guidance and support. The students also often commented on the value of the daily discussions online about topics that stemmed from the course readings.

The instructor found this blog was not only an effective form of communication, but was also an excellent way to archive

knowledge, thus creating an institutional history. The course provided an excellent opportunity for students to advance literacy through dialoguing. The characteristics of a discussion board, such as the personal space it provided and the linkages with an online community, created an excellent computer mediated communication context for individual expressions and collaborative interaction in the form of dialogues. Another advantage to the online set-up was that the students were able to access it anytime-anywhere. These same kinds of advantages regarding online usage for teaching have previously been noted by other researchers as well (Henning, 2003; Herring, Scheidt, Bonus, & Wright, 2004; Kumar, Novak, Raghavan, & Tomkins, 2003).

The instructor found that the highly interactive format of the reflective blog was well suited for adaptation to online instruction. There was a pedagogical advantage in blogging because both the students and the instructor had greater accessibility to all students' thinking about the topics, and there were greater opportunities for students to be more self-confident and assertive. In the asynchronous online class, all students as well as the instructor, took advantage of connectivity through peer reviewing, brainstorming, reflecting, and critiquing current practices that stemmed from course readings. In the online version of the course, there were greater opportunities for reflections and a greater sense of ownership and commitment to students' ideas because their contributions to the learning conversations were written.

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Barriers to Successful Inclusion: A Review of the Literature

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Abstract
The practice of inclusion is presently the core elements of teaching children with disabilities. Given the importance of inclusion, it is essential that educators understand and address those elements that hinder the implementation and continued support of effective inclusion instruction. This review of literature seeks to explore, through an extensive study of pertinent research, the nature of the barriers which might hinder effective inclusion and also discern what research suggests might be done to address these problems.

Introduction

Inclusion, "the process and practice of educating students with disabilities in the general education classroom" (National Information Center for Children and Youth with Disabilities, 1995, 2-3) has become an expected part of the education process. Prior to inclusion's establishment, mainstreaming was the common method for educating students with handicaps (Idol, 2004). Two events, however, brought inclusion to the forefront. The Education for all handicapped Children Act of 1975 set the parameters for inclusion as we know it today. These parameters were then "clarified through the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), passed in 1990 and renewed in 1997 and 2004" (Idol, p. 78).

Dipaola and Walther-Thomas (2003) noted an ideal inclusion process where "special education is viewed less as a place and more as an integrated system of academic and social supports designed to help students with disabilities succeed within the least restrictive environment." This vision, carrying the core spirit

of inclusion, was to be accomplished for most students with disabilities "in the general classroom." (p. 5).

Burstein, Sears, Wilcoxen, Cabello, & Spagna (2004) pointed out a feature that they believed to be at the heart of the inclusion process. "The literature suggests that successful inclusive schools provide a unified educational system in which general and special educators work collaboratively to provide comprehensive and integrated services and programs for all students." (p. 105). This notion of cooperation between the regular teacher and the special education teacher, however, has not easily or completely been obtained.

School structure can be very rigid and resistive to change (Evans, 1993). Pechman and King (1993) noted, in this regard, that "old habits and ingrained attitudes about schools and teaching, entrenched bureaucracies, and outmoded leadership styles die hard" (p. vi). In 1999, Buell, Halllam, Gamel-McCormick & Scheer examined resistance to educational change as it impacted the move to classroom inclusion. They focused primarily on the problem of collaboration between what they called the general teacher and the special education teacher. They found that "a lack of personnel prepared to provide quality inclusive services to students with disabilities and their families is one of the primary barriers to serving students in the least restrictive, most inclusive environment" (p. 144). The researchers went on to argue that part of the problem involved the inclusive movement "not always embracing general educators in the process" (p. 144).

Conversely, research also indicated that general teachers, on their end, have been resistant to working with special education teachers in maximizing the inclusion process. What was interesting in this research concerned the finding that general teachers often embraced the principles of the inclusion idea (Idol, 2004). However, when directly faced with collaboration, especially co-teaching with special education teachers in the general teacher's classroom, many general teachers seem resistant to working with inclusion students or special education teachers. Weiss and Lloyd (2002) further observed in this same regard that the lack of special educator teacher identity in co-taught classrooms dominated by general teachers inhibited the effectiveness of co-teaching practices.

Research also indicated that addressing the kinds of barriers to implementing and maintaining effective inclusion, as noted above, may rest with the principal. Studies suggested, however, that addressing barriers to the implementation of effective inclusion through strong principal leadership has also been plagued with its own set of problems. Praisner's research (2003), for example, indicated that only 1 in 5 principals out of four hundred and eight surveyed held a positive view of inclusion.

Given the importance of inclusion, it is essential that educators understand and address those elements that hinder the implementation and continued support of effective inclusion instruction. This review of literature seeks to explore, through an extensive study of pertinent research, the nature of the barriers which might hinder effective inclusion and also discern what research suggests might be done to address these problems.

General Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusion

Early studies on the general teacher's attitudes regarding inclusion indicated a number of problems. McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, & Lee (1993), for example, found that general teachers' responses to children with disabilities in inclusion classes were more negative than responses toward non-disabled students. Studies by Maag & Katsiyannis (1996) and Kauffman (2001) further indicated that children with Emotional/Behavior Disorders (EBD) often did not receive needed instructional support from their general teachers. Schumm & Vaughn (1992) found that though regular educators were expected to provide services to all students, including those with special needs, most general teachers had little training for doing so. The general teachers in this study also did not willingly accept responsibilities for these students.

Earlier research studies suggested general education teachers also tended to view the adaptation of regular instructional materials to suit the learning needs of children with disabilities to be costly in terms of teacher effort. They further believed such changes would demand substantial modification in the curriculum (McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, Haager & Lee 1993). Siperstein and Goding (1985) discovered regular teachers' initiations and responses to the students with disabilities were more negative and corrective when compared to

their conversations with children without disabilities. Problems were also noted in research when perceptions of both special education and general teachers were included in specific studies on inclusion.

Buell, Hallam, Gamel-McMormick & Scheer (1999) reported in their study of the confidence levels of special education teachers and general education teachers, that the latter "do not feel as confident in their ability to fulfill the tasks needed to support inclusive education" (p. 153). More specifically, general education teachers reported a lack of confidence for teaching an inclusive classroom in the following areas:

- Adapting materials and curriculum
- Managing behavior problems
- Giving individual assistance
- Writing behavior objectives

The same study revealed that many general education teachers believed they needed more specific training to respond to these "lack of confidence" areas. More recently, Idol (2006) found that general education teachers wanted to see more inclusion development in the following areas.

- Learning to make more appropriate instructional and curricula modifications
- Having more consulting teachers, instructional assistance, cooperative teachers, and teacher assistant teams available
- Receiving more professional training for instructional assistances
- Visiting other schools where inclusion is practiced
- Using cooperative, heterogeneous learning groups

Moore and Keefe (2001) discovered that the concerns of both elementary and secondary special education and general education teachers were similar when it came to inclusion. These concerns included the following.

- adequate planning time
- administrative support

- available resources
- professional development opportunities
- teacher willingness to participate in inclusion

More recent research also indicated some confusion over the exact roles of special education teachers and general teachers in terms of inclusion. While Idol (2006) claimed that general teachers in his study were moving toward an acceptance of the "inclusion of students with disabilities in the general classroom" and that "educators also had generally favorable impressions of the impact of students with disabilities on other students in their classes" (p.91), Hastings & Oakford (2003) found that many general teachers in their study were not prepared to teach students with disabilities and, consequently, did not provide instructional adaptations for these students because they do not feel that they had the responsibility to do so. Boling's findings (2007) indicated many general teachers still held the belief that special education students needed a specialist (special education teacher) to deal with students' learning difficulties and providing and following up with the needed accommodations in the inclusion setting.

Two of the more common ways of integrating general and special education teachers in the inclusion process is the practice of collaboration and of co-teaching. While the two processes are sometimes seen as one and the same, co-teaching can be better understood as one of the three components of collaboration and will be addressed separately.

Keefe and Moore (2004) pointed out that collaboration between special and general education teachers is essential to the success of inclusion. This practice, however, as research indicated, carried its own set of problems.

Collaboration and Inclusion

Collaboration with respect to inclusion can be defined as a deliberate act of two teachers working together with a common focus of providing successful learning experience for every individual student in the classroom. Different studies have asserted the importance of collaboration and coordination among teachers as the main ingredients for the greater academic and social success for the children with disabilities (Walther-Thomas,

Bryant, & Land, 1996; Idol 2006; and Cater, Prater, Jackson, & Marchant 2009).There had been a number of studies on different interaction models to promote dialogue, collaboration and problem solving among school professionals. Such studies have looked at collaborative consultation (Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb & Nevin, 1994), cooperative teaching (Bauwens, Hourcade & Friend, 1989) and co-teaching (Walther,-Thomas, Bryant, & Land, 1996). As noted earlier, co-teaching, though being one of the models of collaboration, is sometimes identified in many studies as collaboration.

Various studies, including Fishbaugh (1997) and Pugach & Seidl (1995) have recognized three models of inclusive teaching.

- the consultant model in which the special education teacher provides expert advice to general education teachers on the curriculum adaptation, skills deficit remediation, and assessment modification
- the coaching model in which both general and special educator take turns to tutor each other on curriculum and pedagogy
- the teaming or collaborative model in which both special and general educator shared the responsibility of teaching the class in the area of planning, implementation and assessment

The first model tended to be the more popular one, as it saved school systems money. Specifically, the model allowed school leadership to hire only few special educators to provide expert counsel to the general educators on the appropriate methods to teach children with disabilities. Studies, however, have suggested that the third model was the best approach for leading to better students' achievement both socially and academically (Friend & Cook, 1994; Pugach & Seidl, 1995).

Cater, Prater, Jackson & Marchant's (2009) study concerning the educators' perceptions of collaborative planning processes for students with disabilities emphasized the importance of professional collaboration in planning accommodations and interventions that addresses the needs of diverse learners. The study further noted that a sharing of common philosophies among both special and general education

teachers regarding the education of students with disabilities was an important aspect of successful collaborative planning. Among all the teachers that participated in the study, only those teachers that have shared vision on educating the children with the disabilities completed the process together. The teachers who did not have similar philosophies completed the process separately. The sharing of resources, decision making responsibilities and the assuming of joint outcomes among co-teachers was observed by Cater, Prater, Jackson and Marchant to be the vital aspect of collaboration.

Overall, research suggested the effectiveness of collaboration seemed to require planning time, administrative support and deliberate efforts from the co-teachers involved. In short, team work was essential (Cater, Prater, Jackson & Marchant, 2009; Meadan & Monda-Amaya, 2008; and Hunt, Soto, Maier & Doering, 2003). Interestingly, the success of collaboration seemed less dependent on school structure. The framework and support for successful collaborative planning could either be based on the policy of the whole school district or individual schools within the district (Cater, Prater, Jackson & Marchant, 2009).

Co-Teaching and Inclusion

Cook &Friend (1995) described co-teaching as the delivering of substantive instruction by two or more professionals to a diverse or blended group of students in a single physical space. Specifically, these researchers articulated six co-teaching approaches which form the theoretical basis for the success of the co-teaching collaboration model:

1. One teach, one observe
2. One teach, one drift
3. Parallel teaching
4. Station teaching
5. Alternative teaching, and
6. Team teaching

Theoretically, it is expected that co-teachers will have sizable time of planning to deliberate which of the approaches fits

different situations while class instructions and disciplines are proportionately shared among the two teachers.

Various studies have demonstrated that joint planning and open and effective communication is basic for the success of co-teaching practice in the inclusive classroom including, Friend, & Cook (1994); Pugach & Wesson (1995); Austin (2001); Idol (2006); Kohler-Evans (2006); Scruggs, Mastropieri & McDuffie (2007); and, Cater, Prater, Jackson, & Marchant (2009). Scruggs, Mastropieri, & McDuffie, (2007), in their important meta-synthesis of thirty two recent studies on co-teaching in the inclusive classroom, indentified several advantages of the practice.

- Students and teachers alike reported both social and academic benefits from co-teaching.
- Both students with disabilities and without disabilities perceived co-teaching positively as a result of better opportunities to receive assistance from two teachers who may have different styles of explaining the lesson.
- Co-teaching reduced student-teacher ratio which provide a better advantage of one to one teaching which offer individualized attention to the academic needs of each student in the classroom.
- Students are receptive to co-teaching and encouraged student participation, acceptance of differences and cooperation with teachers and each other.

Despite the highlighted benefits of co-teaching for inclusion as noted by the above study, the majority of the studies on this topic, such as Austin (2001); Wilson, & Michaels (2006); Idol (2006); and, Murawski & Dieker (2008), have consistently pointed out three inadequacies that may hinder the effectiveness of the co-teaching in the inclusive classroom.

- deficiency in teacher preparation programs that are relevant towards the current trends in the inclusive classroom
- lack of school administration's support of co-teaching
- absence of mutual planning between the co-teachers

Other problems with co-teaching in the inclusion setting have also been observed. Austin's (2001) study regarding teachers' beliefs about co-teaching examined the perceptions of teachers through the use of a survey instrument for 139 teachers and unstructured interviews with 12 teachers. A majority of the teachers that participated in this research agreed on the benefits of co-teaching but, oddly, were still pessimistic regarding the efficacy of the practice. The interviews also revealed an even more interesting element. Though the teachers tended to strongly believe that co-teaching was socially beneficial for all students, the sharing of responsibility was still lacking between the two teachers teaching the same students in the same classroom. Specifically, general teachers, while recognizing the benefits of co-teaching in the inclusion setting, were often uncomfortable having special education teachers in "their" rooms. This, in turn, often led to a lack of mutual planning between the two sets of teachers.

The prevailing tendency of a power struggle between special and general education teachers in inclusive classroom, as it emerged from the Austin study, appeared to be an essential impediment to successful co-teaching. Kohler-Evans (2006) likened the relationship between co-teachers to a marriage relationship and argued for better chemistry among the paired teachers for the success of co-teaching practices. Weiss & Lloyd (2002) investigated inclusive co-teaching in secondary classrooms by interviewing and observing special educators in both co-taught and self-contained classrooms. They observed the struggle of special education teachers in gaining legitimacy as a teacher in co-taught classroom. The study found a wide gap between the theoretical descriptions of co-teaching and the implementations of the process. They believed a lack of identity for the special education teacher in co-taught classroom inhibited the effectiveness of co-teaching practices.

As the research review above indicated, many difficult barriers seem to stand in the way of making the process of inclusion effective. This literature review also suggested, however, how these barriers might be best responded to. Among many other researchers, DiPaola and Walther-Thomas (2003) strongly believed principals could indeed play a key role in making inclusion more effective. The latter point should be of

some concern as an extensive research study by Praisner (2003) indicated that only 1 in 5 principals out of four hundred and eight surveyed held a positive view of inclusion. Praisner went to assert however that it was essential "to insure the success of inclusion . . . that principals exhibit behaviors that advance the integration, acceptance, and success of students with disabilities in general education classes" (p.35).

The Principal's Potential Roles in Implementing Inclusion

In a major funded study, Seashore-Louis, Washlstrom, Leithwood & Anderson (2010) asserted that a strong positive link existed between school leadership and student learning outcome. Studies in the field of education have also pointed out the important role school administrators, especially principals, can and should play in enhancing the performances of students in the inclusive classroom (McHatton, Boyer, Shaunessy, Terry & Farmer, 2010; Idol, 2006; Burstein, Sears, Wilcoxen, Cabello & Spagne, 2004; McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, Haager & Lee, 1993; Downing, Eichinger & Williams,1997; Cook, Gerber, & Semmel, 1997; Garvar-Pinhas & Schmelkin, 1989; and Darling-Hammond, 1996. Jacobs, Tonnsen & Baker (2004) lamented, however, that despite "evidence that in effective schools the principal is a key element in improving instruction, the role of the principal in addressing issues related to students with disabilities is rarely addressed in the leadership literature" (P. 7).

Burstein, Sears, Wilcoxen, Cabello & Spagne (2004) argued that successful inclusion often involved a change in a school's culture and that it was not necessarily any outside force which could best facilitate this change but rather teachers, parents and principals within the school's own culture who could effectively negotiate this change process. Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff & Harniss (2001) found that support from both general teachers and building level principals were critical in making inclusion successful. DiPaola and Walter-Thomas (2003) strongly emphasized the same argument concerning the principal's role, noting, if principals have the attitude that a school's mission "is achieving academic success for all [students, they] communicate this value to their internal and external audiences" (p.6).

While the principal is often seen by many educators as the key to addressing inclusion problems, a review of the literature

also suggested a shortage of principal who processed the qualifications to lead such innovation. DiPaola and Walter-Thomas (2003) emphatically stressed that schools need to find and hire qualified principals who understand and are committed to the need to make inclusion more effective.

> It is difficult for individuals with little or no prior experience in schools to understand and appreciate the diverse needs of students. Even those with prior school experience who have little formal preparation for the role of principal rarely have adequate understanding how to plan, coordinate, and deliver services to meet the needs of students with disabilities. (p. 14)

DiPaola and Walther-Thomas suggested that support, research and more training might be keys in improving this situation. "University preparation programs, professional organizations, education researchers, state agencies, and local communities must work together to ensure that administrators develop essential leadership needed to advocate effectively for the educational rights of diverse learners." These researchers also added, "State licensure requirements must include these elements" (p. 21). In this same regard, Laskey and Karge (2006) found that principals needed more training in special education needs to effectively perform their duties as principals who are able to support inclusion. Again, it makes Praisner's research (2003), that only 1 in 5 principals out of four hundred and eight surveyed even held a positive view of inclusion, more disturbing.

Demands from state and national levels regarding assessment do not help the situation. Dipaola and Walther-Thomas (2003), in particular, examined the tremendous pressures upon principals to meet the high academic standards mandated by states and by the federal government and, at the same time, to implement and support effective inclusion practices.

Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, & Ahlgrim-Delzell (2006) study of secondary principals' knowledge of special education indicated that most principals have little or no formal coursework in special education (in both undergraduate and graduate programs) and little or no in-service training in special education.

Despite these results, principals reported being well-informed and knowledgeable of special education issues. They did report less knowledge of what was termed “current issues” (p. 164).

The dichotomy between these principals’ self-reported lack of formal and informal training in special education and their belief that they had a good fundamental understanding of special education as a whole (excluding current issues, e.g. functional behavior assessments [FBAs]) is an interesting phenomenon. The researchers concluded that the principals felt that the professional trainings they had attended as school leaders in the area of special education and their daily experiences working with special education teachers and students filled in for their lack of college preparatory programs. Also, while most principals reported few in-service workshops on special education, the prevailing attitude regarding workshops was that they were less than effective.

One could assume this latter lack of training would leave the principals with no other knowledge about special needs students than their on the job experience working with special education issues. In this regard, Lasky & Karge (2006) noted that the attitudes of many principals towards teachers who worked with children with disability depended more on their special education academic qualifications rather than their years of experiences.

As noted previously, many educators believe co-teaching to of special education teachers with general education teachers to be at the heart of successful inclusion. Thus, it also becomes important to understand what positive roles principals might play in supporting the co-teaching process and inclusion in general.

Co-Teaching, Inclusion and the Principal

It has been found that a well-structured collaboration effort, one that is that is supported by school administrations, can lead to the academic improvement of children with disabilities (Burnstein, Sears, Wicoxen, Cabello, & Spagna, 2004). Given this knowledge, however, research indicated that developing an effective co-teaching process often seemed to have been a struggle. Much of the difficulty may have revolved around a disconnect between the general teachers and the special education teachers. All the teachers who participated in a study conducted on co-teaching carried out by Cater, Prater, Jackson,

& Marchant (2009), for example, agreed that a lack of meeting time among the co-teachers stood as the biggest impediment to successful collaboration in inclusion. They further noted that the involvement of school administrators, especially principals, through either direct participation in some of the planning sessions or requesting some kind of notes and ideas generated from these planning sessions to be forwarded to the administration, might have encouraged the general teachers to be more involved and committed to the meetings.

Cook, Semmel, & Gerber (1999) found many principals holding misconceptions concerning the effectiveness of co-teaching. The study investigated the views of 49 principals and 64 special education teachers regarding inclusion. Interestingly, all the principals that participated in the study held positive views of inclusion. However, they all felt that inclusive classrooms with consultative services, rather than co-teaching, were the most appropriate placement option for the special education students. It was also noted that many schools were likely implementing inclusion reforms without requisite resources or a special education teacher to co-teach in inclusive classrooms. The study contended that generally, principals lacked the understanding of the academic danger of not having a special education teacher co-teaching with a general education teacher in the inclusive classroom. Cater, Prater, Jackson, & Marchant (2009), noted that not all general teachers held perceptions regarding students with disabilities that qualified them to work in a co-teaching environment with a special education teacher Consequently, the principal's role in overseeing the pairing of co-teachers that teach in inclusive classrooms seemed especially vital to the success of inclusion.

Praisner (2003) discovered that principals who had more exposure to special education concepts and who had had positive interactions with students with special needs had a more positive attitude toward inclusion. In addition, those principals with more positive attitudes towards special education had higher numbers of students in less restrictive environments. Praisner also suggested that principal training which exposed them to special education concepts and positive experiences with students with special education labels were largely responsible for positive attitudes toward special education in

general and inclusionary practices such as co-teaching specifically.

Discussion and Recommendations

Research, as noted, indicated that a great majority of teachers, including general education teachers, believed in the philosophy behind the practice of inclusion. The great majority also thought there was important social value to the practice. Co-teaching, where general teachers and special education teachers work together with students with disabilities was also viewed by a host of educators as the best practice for achieving effective inclusion. A review of literature, however, also indicated that a number of barriers hindered the inclusion process. Primarily, they included a resistance on the part of general teachers to co-teaching with special education teachers and a lack of support and understanding from principals regarding inclusion.

Research found in this review of literature indicated tension in co-teaching seemed most often to center around what Scruggs, Mastropieri & McDuffie (2007) labeled “turf.” This tension concerning control tended to make special education teachers feel subordinate in the inclusion process. Conversely, general teachers felt uncomfortable having another teacher in their “room” and having to change their teaching material and methods. One special education teacher interviewed by Yoder (2000), noted of this problem, “Anytime you walk into another teacher’s classroom there’s going to be some type of negotiation that needs to occur for both of you in terms of just territory and what’s asked of you’ (p. 150). Another special education teacher reported that she had to raise her hand to speak in the general classroom where she co-taught (Scruggs, Mastropieri & McDuffie).

Mastroppieri, Scruggs, Graetz, Norland, Gardizi, and McDuffie (2005) believed that there were several “interacting factors, rather than a single curable factor” that drove increasing tension between general and special education teachers when working in an inclusion setting. (p. 268) These factors included the following.

- A lack of mutual trust between general and special education teachers
- A lack of agreed upon structure
- Compatible perspectives regarding effective teaching
- Teacher content knowledge
- Common planning time
- Administrative support

While the barriers to successful inclusion may indeed be complex, this review of literature further suggested that principals can play a key role in bringing general and special education teachers together in the inclusion process. In general, principals have a major influence on the climate of their school and a positive attitude towards those with disabilities would likely transfer to the faculty and staff of the school. On a practical level, principals who support efforts to improve service provision for disabled students are more likely to provide professional development opportunities on special education for the teachers in their school.

Regarding the administrative support of co-teaching, this review of literature suggested that principals need to especially understand what role each co-teacher will play during classroom instruction. This understanding might help the principal to objectively evaluate each of the co-teacher's performances and activities based on the specified roles each of them played during the classroom instruction.

In general, the findings of this research review suggested a number of things principals might do to enhance co-teaching.

- Principals need to have a framework in place that will guide the school leadership in pairing co-teachers together.
- Principals need to ensure classroom implementation of academic and behavioral interventions for students with disabilities by monitoring instruction.
- Principals need to create and be involved in the deliberate process of improvement by spending more time and money in providing professional development training for the teachers in the areas of co-teaching, inclusion, and special education.

- The criteria that principals develop for teachers' evaluation need to encourage effective co-teaching in inclusive classrooms.
- The pre-evaluation conference arranged and developed by the principal needs to include a focus on the instructional planning among the two co-teachers.

Patterson, Marshall & Bowling (2000) have pointed out that the issues surrounding the implementation of special education practices such as inclusion are both complex and ever-changing. Most recently, Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain & Shamberger (2010) noted many of the same problems. While this research offering a review of literature concerning inclusion found the above notion of complexity to be a correct one, literature on the subject also indicated that principals can play a key role in helping to schools to address these problems. Here, principal training may hold the ultimate key to the addressing these problems. As DiPaola and Walther-Thomas(2003) stated, "All school personal—school leaders in particular—must be prepared to advocate effectively for educational rights of all students if school reform is to be realized" (p. 21). Conversely, as Jacobs, Tonnsen & Baker (2004) noted, "A lack of knowledge on the part of school principals may well contribute to the way students with disabilities are served" (p. 7). Effective preparation of principals to meet inclusion needs can only be accomplished through well-thought-out, systematic training. A point this research makes stand out even more.

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Ministerial Education: Preparing Senior Ministers for becoming Effective Managers

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Abstract
The business world has long been aware of the need to maintain and enhance effective management and leadership skills. The ministry has been much more reluctant to do so. This may be especially true in terms of how ministers are prepared to be effective managers and leaders in ministry education. This work examines the present state of ministry education as it pertains to preparing ministers to be effective managers and goes on to make recommendations for addressing the problem.

Introduction

As this country moves further into the 21st Century, effective management and leadership skills will be even more important within most organizations (Griffin, 2008). With the world shrinking and technology expanding, leaders have to move quickly and adapt to change effectively and efficiently. Whitesel (2007) underscored that this thinking pertained to ministry as well as corporate America. In no area of ministry does it affect more than how we are educating our ministers. Unfortunately, clergy are being taught with educational curriculums that have changed very little for decades (Whitesel, 2001; Easum, 1992; Cooper, 1996). Carol Childress noted, in this regard, "at the five-year point, seminary grads understand that the subjects they were taught in seminary, while valuable for creating sermons, exegeting scripture, and so forth,…have not equipped them to deal with leadership and the other issues facing pastors" (in Cole, 2000). Most of the on-the-job education for ministers comes in the discipline of management/administration. With 50% to 70% of a pastor's time spent in administrative work and less than 2% of their education in this area, it is clear to see why the

Barna Research group reported that the role of clergy is “one of the most frustrating occupational groups in our nation” (Soulsman, 2002, p. 3; Stewart, 2011; Thomas, 2005, p. 33). Stewart revealed that only one respondent reported that they felt prepared for their ministry, and 97% of the dissatisfaction with the profession resulted from a lack of management skill preparedness.

With no significant growth in Christianity over the past several decades, ministries will have to do things differently in the future (London & Wiseman, 2003, pp. 26-27). Ministers need to be effective managers to keep their small business competitive and alive. Minister attrition is not just a problem for the minister; it is also a problem for congregations and American culture. This country was founded upon religious freedom and we are currently the most religiously diverse country in the world (Eck, 2001). Faith is the cornerstone of American culture. Since ministers are the CEO’s of their churches and a 50% retention rate for ministers, the profession is experiencing what is a potential epidemic. But what are the effects on moral and spiritual values within this country when 50% of the CEOs and role models are leaving the profession?

Soulsman (2002) believed “The well-being of pastors is a serious issue confronting the nation’s 159 million Christians. Pastors are considered the lifeblood of Christianity for their preaching, pastoral care and work as church administrators” (p.3). If pastors do not receive the support and tools needed for success, they will not be able to effectively and consistently support their congregations. This lack of tools and support is manifested in behaviors related to stress. “Doctors, lawyers and clergy have the most problems with drug abuse, alcoholism and suicide” (Croucher, n.d., p. 1). Jerdon (1980) (as sited by Croucher, n.d.) goes on to say, “in a sample study of 11,500 parish ministers three out of four reported severe stress causing anguish, worry, bewilderment, anger, depression, fear, and alienation” (p. 1). In what is undoubtedly a cyclical effect, the pastor struggles to handle the professional pressures inherent for clergy. The congregation suffers and deteriorates because of a dearth of pastoral guidance and leadership. In addition, the pastor becomes focused on the congregation and doesn’t nurture his familial relationship which continues to erode the

support network available to the pastor. *Pastors at Greater Risk* states that 80% of ministers studied believed that the ministry affected their family negatively; 70% believed that they have lower self-esteem now than when they started the ministry; 70% do not have someone they consider a close friend; 94% feel pressured to have an ideal family; and 40% reported serious conflict with a parishioner at least once per month (London & Wiseman, 2003).

The problem arises when the ministers arrive with little on-the-job training and, in the case of most first-career ministers, no practical work experience. Few second career ministers come with an understanding that they will be running a small not-for-profit business with all the stress and complications that come with that job. Not only are they responsible for the day-to-day operations, they are also responsible for the spiritual needs of their current congregation, which includes energizing church membership by "spreading the word."

What do Ministers do?

Studies by Douglas and McNally (1980), and Kuhne and Donaldson (1995), show that ministers work over 56 hours per week. London and Wiseman (2003) reported pastors working fewer than 50 hours per week are 35% more likely to be terminated. "One informed estimate indicates that a pastor is fired or forced out every six minutes in the United States. . . . (A)pproximately 60 percent of pastors function completely, even effectively, but at least one-fourth have been forced out of one or more congregations, and many more are severely stressed and vulnerable" (Rediger, 1997, pp. 6-7). *Pulpit & Pew* also researched this topic in 2002 and found that one-half of all pastors in the survey reported working between 35 and 60 hours per week. One quarter reported working more than 60 hours, and one quarter reported working less than 35 hours. The middle fifty percent of full-time Protestant pastors reported working between 42 and 63 hours per week. Table 1 shows the median hours per week pastors reported working for their church and the median percentage of that time per week pastors spent in the core tasks of ministry. The remainder of the work week which is not accounted for by those core tasks of ministry is taken up by other tasks specified by the pastors, such as fund raising, writing

articles, correspondence, volunteer chaplaincy, and helping to oversee other ministries as board members or advisors (McMillan, 2002).

High expectations from congregations lead the minister into working excessive hours in an attempt to fulfill these expectations and be everything to everyone. Church consultant Lyle Schaller (as cited by Oswald, 2001) has often said that 90% of what clergy do is invisible to 90% of the laity, 90% of the time (p. 6).

Why are Management Science Skills becoming more Important?

If the senior pastor is the acting CEO of the organization, they need to have an understanding of the current customer (congregation). With 50% of congregations in the United States either plateaued or declining, the pressure on ministers to grow churches and meet the financial needs of the church is enormous. According to London & Wiseman (2003), as high as 90% of American churches are in survival mode (pp. 26-27).

A study by the Barna Research Group in 2001 found that not only are church and church members in decline, but also the number of Americans considering themselves Christians is declining. The study showed that 70% of seniors (ages 74 and older) engage in religious behavior. Yet, the numbers begin to decline with the Builders (ages 60 to 73) to 63%, Baby Boomers (ages 47 to 59) to 52%, and Baby Busters at 34% (ages 32 to 46) represent the highest unchurched group.

Townley (2005) takes this a step further and links this phenomenon to a cultural change. Our dominant culture today is postmodern, not modern. Individuals today have gods, yet they are just not defined in the same as postmodern definitions. Post modernity is characterized by, among other things, the death of Christendom. Emerging post moderns are pre-Christian – or pagan. They take a little from Jesus, Buddha, Oprah and crystals…and may have no experience inside a Christian sanctuary. Postmodern individuals are spiritual not religious.

Hudson (2004) found that between 70% and 85% of unchurched people state that spirituality is important or very important to their lives. A recent survey revealed that between 40% and 60% of unchurched people reported that they pray to

God daily or weekly. These are neighbors, co-workers and teens who sit next to you at a ballgame; they would describe themselves as "spiritual" but "not religious." Most people who grew up in the church of Christendom have great difficulty understanding this distinction. Why would anyone who believes in God not want to go to church? This, however, appears to be true for more than 70 million people living in the United States. Postmodern Americans have separated the miracle of faith from the act of participating in the life of a congregation (Hudson, 2004, p. 17). Thus creating challenges for local churches not adapting to the new face of the spiritual but not religious growing American culture.

Ministry in the 21st Century

Change in technology, demographic dynamics, and social norms impact the culture within our communities and, in turn, directly affect the churches within these communities. As the culture changes, how pastors communicate and lead congregants must also change. We see this not only in the changing demographics of the religious communities and in the training of our religious leaders, but also in how we lead our organizations into the 21st Century.

Often there is a perceived dichotomy between business management and church leadership. While managers in other industries focus on improving the organization's financial standing, ministers focus on improving their organization's spiritual effectiveness. Recent research indicates that greater integration between secular and spiritual practices would increase the capabilities and opportunities for both (Killough-Miller, 2007). Businesses and society as a whole would benefit from more ethical business practices, and churches could be more effective if senior ministers understood and mastered management best practices. Many ministers leave or are forced to leave their chosen profession due to this gap. The lack of preparation and training in areas such as leadership, negotiation, and communication are often cited as seminal to the termination of clergy (Aiken, et al, 2004, p. 9; Witham, 2005, p. 90).

Existing research states that a minister must master both ministry leadership/management and pastoral leadership/management. Whether the church is large (more than

100 attendees per week) or smaller, clergy must manage church staff and volunteers. These mission critical resources must be well-managed for churches to successfully reach their goals and objectives (Sheffield, 1999). Engaging current and potential congregants is critical to the growth and health of a church.

The mastery of management and leadership skills will be beneficial to both churches and ministers. Clergy who are transformational leaders, effective communicators, strategic planners, ethical problem-solvers, and capable financial managers will be more effective and confident as they approach their roles as church figureheads (Powers, 1997, pp. 121-132), and all of these skills can be learned, honed, and mastered through effective education, preparation, and guidance.

Are Ministers prepared for their Ministry?

Carol Childress notes, "at the five-year point, seminary grads understand that the subjects they were taught in seminary, while valuable for creating sermons, exegeting scripture, and so forth, … have not equipped them to deal with leadership and the other issues facing pastors" (Cole, 2000). According to Aiken, et al (2004) a church is "far more than the women and men who…" serve as pastors. These individuals need "…a committed, well-educated, trained, and supported leadership…" for the church and its members to grow" (p.17).

The Barna Research group reported that the role of clergy is "one of the most frustrating occupational groups in our nation" (Soulsman, 2002, p. 3). Much of this frustration comes from being ill-prepared for their new occupation. Mann (2005) reports that recently ordained ministers felt unprepared and that the pressures faced by congregations and their leaders are ever more intense and complicated. Lawrence Goleman writes, "even the best seminaries only develop competent beginners in ministry, who must be honed, shaped, and polished by the pastoral experience in their first congregation or ministry site" (2006, p.18). Unfortunately, new ministers have conflict, frustration and burnout before this "shaping" takes place. According to London and Wieseman (2003), 90% of pastors feel they were inadequately trained to cope with ministry demands and 75% report they have had a significant stress-related crisis at least once in their ministry (p.20). A 1999 study conducted by

Keith Wulff found comparative numbers to London and Wiseman. Wulff reported that 63% of respondents said that seminary did little or nothing to prepare them with the practical skills needed for ministry.

The study conducted by Butler and Herman (1999), investigated the leadership and management skills of effective and less effective ministers. They found that ministers who had developed leadership and managerial skills were more effective than those who had not developed leadership and managerial skills. Of the eighteen leadership behaviors measured, effective differed from less effective on eleven of the eighteen distinct leadership behaviors. In addition, the range and variety of leadership skills characteristic of effective ministers includes some that are generally characteristic of nonprofit chief executives, such as manager, problem solver, planner, and delegator. Other characteristic skills are more ministerial and less secular, such as shepherd and servant (p. 237).

Edward Thomas (2005) in his research found that ministers, as managers, have received little or no educational training in the business management techniques needed to survive and be successful. Thomas states that church administration consists of finances, accounting, marketing, human resource management, and strategic planning, yet, finds little place in the pastor's education. Thomas (2005) also states that 50%-70% of a pastor's time is spent in administrative work (p. 33). Thomas found in his research that ministers run into problems in the areas of strategic planning processes, finances, accounting, marketing, and human resources. This is because of the lack of training in such skills and the added unwillingness of top church leadership to recognize the importance of sound administrative practices (Stanford, 1999). Senior ministers are expected to manage the business of the church; they are also expected to show leadership by inspiring a vision and building relationships with followers to help followers reach a higher, more fulfilling relationship with God. Being sent to do a job without the skill set needed for success can create disillusionment. Other ministers, while in the heat of conflict and while trying to retain their jobs or find new occupations, fail to learn the most basic leadership skills. These conditions are not conducive to on the job training in management skills.

The scope of Stewart's (2011) research focused on management sciences within formal Association of Theological Schools (ATS) accredited seminary education. Specific focus included organizational behavior aspects that, after a review of the literature, have shown to be variables relating to minister dropout.

Seminary Education and Ministry

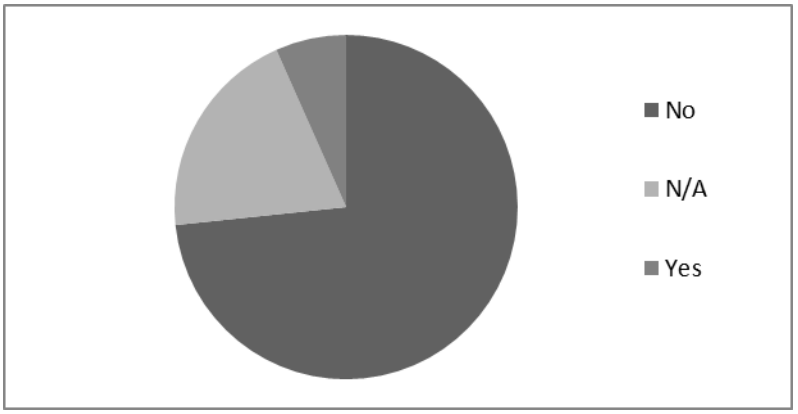
Clergy are being taught with educational curriculums that have changed very little for decades (Whitesel, 2001; Easum, 1992; Cooper, 1996). Stewart's (2011) study was designed to help increase the ministers' well-being by increasing the efficacious preparedness of pastors. Stewart gathered data using the Management Effectiveness Profile System (MEPS) questionnaire. The tool was given to 34 current and former senior ministers, and a follow-up interview was given to a random sample of participants. A review of curriculums from 15 top seminary programs in the United States was also conducted to find out what ordaining institutions were teaching and if the required courses were filling the needs of ministers in the field of ministry (Table 2). This information was divided into required classes and how many credits fell into each educational discipline. Surveys were used to gather data on what senior ministers thought were their biggest challenges within ministry and also what areas they thought were lacking in their formal education.

Traditional seminary curriculum focuses on oral presentation, pastoral care and scripture without much focus on real-life situations that come with being the CEO of a small organization (Whitesel, 2001; Easum, 1992; Cooper, 1996). There are differences between what research found to be important in the areas of "desired competencies, functional roles and effectiveness" and what clergy actually do. Much more emphasis is placed on the ministerial element in the pastor's professional life and although research concluded that 36 hours per week are spent on just administrative work, administrative elements tend to be minimized (Purcell, 2001; Kuhne & Donaldson, 1995).

Most ministers did not believe their "calling" was about being an administrator; they believed it was about teaching scripture,

inspiring people, and being present to hold the sacred space in times of challenge and in times of celebration (Stewart, 2011). Many ministers bring wonderful gifts and talents, as well as unique life experiences, to their ministry. Yet, far too often the skills that are required to run a small not-for-profit business are not taught in the educational institutions that are licensing and ordaining ministers. Fuller Institute of Church Growth 1991 Survey of Pastors, (as cited in London & Wiseman, 1993) found that 50% of ministers felt unable to meet the needs of the job and 90% thought that they were inadequately trained to cope with ministry demands (p. 22).

There seems to be a disconnect between the reality of day-to-day ministry and what is taught in preparation for entering field ministry. When the ministers are unprepared for a large portion of their jobs, they can become overwhelmed. The extra time required to accomplish what they are not trained to do, but must be done, takes away from that which they do well and, in fact, was the reason most chose to enter ministry. Of those that participated in Stewart's (2011) study, ninety-three percent of those surveyed either didn't answer (20%) or felt they were not adequately prepared (73%) for senior ministry (Figure. 1). Only one respondent reported they felt they were prepared for their ministry. The biggest inadequacies came in the skill areas of task skills (problem solving, time management, planning, goal setting, performance leadership and organizing), and interpersonal skills (team development, delegation, participation, integrating differences, and providing feedback). More than 41% of respondents reported that integrating differences (dealing with and resolving conflict) were their biggest challenges in their ministry. When specifically asked what formal training they thought was missing or in need, 61% indicated task skills as an area most needed for practical preparation for ministry. Management classes and leadership knowledge made up the majority of the 61%. After review of seminary curriculum, it is clear that management education is not a priority within ordaining institutions. Less than 2% of curriculum involves management skill education or development (Table 2).



(Figure 1). Percent senior ministers felt prepared for ministry

When asked to respond to the most challenging aspects of ministry, inadequate training was the most common theme in the data retrieved (Stewart, 2011). Respondents reported their lack of management skills as responsible for 97% of their dissatisfaction with the profession. When asked about the most rewarding parts of ministry, only 41% of respondents referred to management-related tasks (this figure includes pastoral care, visitation, and helping people).

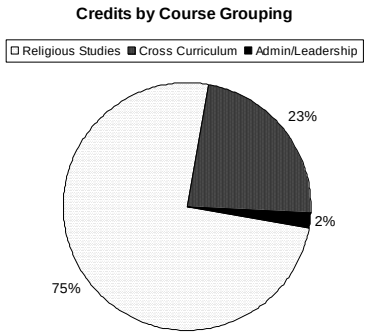
Integrating difference/conflict is a serious issue facing senior ministers (Whitesel, 2003). This finding is supported by questionnaire respondents reporting that 41% of the biggest challenges in ministry fall under conflict issues and integrating differences (Stewart, 2011). Several major studies indicated conflict in the church as a major issue for ministers (London & Wiseman, 1993; London & Wiseman, 2003; Purcell, 2001).

Wiese (2004) reported that being ill-prepared for ministry demands in areas of conflict resolution, interpersonal skills, administrative skills and cultural context for ministry were primary reasons for ministry attrition. Wiese's findings further support Stewart's (2011) research on the overwhelming number of responses to the question of why ministry is so challenging. Forty-one percent of respondents in this study specifically stated that conflict was a major problem facing their ministry. Many survey participants were powerful in expressing the difficulty of dealing with parishioners' conflict issues as well as feelings

toward denominational leadership. Respondents used terms such as "*antagonists,"* "*hypocrites,"* "*angry/controlling,"* and "*power/controlling individuals that only want to fulfill their own ego"* as descriptions of their conflict situations (Stewart, 2011). Of all respondents, only one person expressed feeling adequately prepared for the actual job of ministry.

Recommendations

Organizations training and educating ministers for senior minister positions need to revamp their curriculum and start educating ministers for the challenges of the 21st Century. Ministers are running a small not-for-profit business. They need the same skill sets as leaders in the business world. They may not be focused on maximizing profits, but they are in the business of numbers. Whether it is attendance numbers, financial numbers, budget numbers, or volunteer numbers, senior ministers are responsible for sustainability and in most cases growth (however that is defined). Table 2 and Figure 2 show that less than 2% of required courses in seminary relate to management/administrative activities (Stewart, 2011).



(Figure 2). Credits by Course Grouping

Curriculum for the training of new ministers also needs to focus on practical application of new concepts, critical thinking and problem solving. Problem solving, planning and conflict resolution skills are essential for running a church and are topics that receive little or no attention in seminary. Education before

ordination, as well as continued on-the-job training, is essential for a successful ministry.

Conclusion

Those who are responsible for shaping and designing seminary education should take these findings into consideration in order to give ministers more of the tools they need for longevity. Senior ministers are leaving ministry or being forced out of ministry at increasing rates. These are individuals who have given their lives in service to others who want and need spiritual direction and support. They have entered the seminary with a belief that they would be prepared to lead a congregation. But unfortunately for the Christian community, regardless of denomination, this is not happening. Ministers are being placed into positions of church leadership without the skills needed to effectively manage a church community. Senior ministers are facing serious issues with conflict within the church congregation as well as with denominational leadership. They feel ill-prepared for their ministry (Weise, 2004) and are being fired or forced out of ministry in record numbers (Purcell, 2001; B. Self, personal communication, March 17, 2008). Our spiritual leaders need management skills. Without these skills, we are losing them to other professions. We, as a Christian community, cannot afford to lose some of our best speakers, most loving caregivers, and our spiritual guides. Without adequate preparation for the business side of ministry, our ministers risk losing not only their livelihood, but also their connection to organized religion all together. Therein lays the tragedy.

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Teacher Effectiveness in the Charter School Classroom: A Teacher's Perspective

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Abstract
Teacher effectiveness is the foundation for any highly functioning classroom. The best way for teacher effectiveness to be measured, however, is a subject that continues to be debated. More recently in this process, because of education reform emphasis on assessment, the teacher's perspective of what it means to be an effective teacher has been vastly overlooked. The perceptions of charter school teachers regarding teacher effectiveness is even less known. To address the latter circumstance, this study used interviews, personal journals, and surveys to find out what one particular group of teachers in a charter school believed concerning teacher effectiveness. Specifically, each teacher was asked to seriously reflect on what they felt were their strengths as instructors and what they perceived to be positive factors in their classroom and their colleagues' classrooms.

Introduction

The Charter School reform movement has placed an emphasis on teachers as one important agent for positive change in the classroom. However, as the emphasis on test scores, state standards and student improvement based on mandated tests continues, less attention has seemingly been given to the teachers' viewpoints and opinions. The views of teachers concerning teacher effectiveness, however, as argued by Guskey (2002), may be crucial in the learning process and should therefore not be ignored

Teacher effectiveness in the high school classroom is evaluated in many different ways, but none seem as relevant as a teacher's beliefs about their own teaching and the characteristics that they believe make them successful as educators. As early as 1980, Centra and Potter conducted a study that took into account "school and teacher variables which influence student achievement" (p. 273). They identified several characteristics of a teacher that may have had an impact on student achievement. The study also examined teacher planning, teacher behavior and characteristics which were defined as

- qualifications
- experience
- aptitude
- knowledge of subject
- knowledge of teaching
- values and attitudes, expectations
- social class.

Also relevant to this study were areas of teacher values, attitudes and expectations as they relate to success in the classroom.

Past research by Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy (1998) and Goddard, Hoy and Hoy (2000) studied the impact of teacher self-efficacy and beliefs on student achievement. Such research has also shown that teacher beliefs about their own effectiveness and the behavior they exhibit also have an impact on the teaching strategies that they implement within their classroom as they are delivering lessons. One can easily argue that these strategies need to be identified and described from the teacher's perspective in order for other teachers to positively incorporate them into their classrooms.

Olsen & Kirtman (2002) have pointed out that in Charter schools the concept of focusing on the teacher and on what the teacher believes to be his or her greatest strengths has been proven effective. They believed this was a result of teachers not being asked to conform to one large reform emphasis, but to the mission of the individual school. Charter Schools utilize many of the reform ideas that are necessary to improve student

achievement, but at the same time they often downplay the massive lock-step reform effort that has become overwhelming to so many districts. Olsen and Kirtman identified, for example, the major problems with national and state reforms within 36 restructuring public schools in California, and cited the crux of the problem as the uniformity of the reforms. The charter school notion, however, holds that different schools, because they are unique, cannot possibly take on all the same reform ideas and implement them in exactly the same way. Charter schools, conversely, create their own reforms, basing them on the community that they are specifically trying to serve.

The Charter School Movement

The Charter School Movement continues to gain momentum today and has been looked at as one possible solution to the quickly deteriorating urban school systems in our country. This idea of reworking schools has put a tremendous amount of pressure on the teacher to perform to a higher standard. Louis and Marks (1998) conducted a study that evaluated whether or not these school reforms were helping teachers become successful in the classroom. The focus was on the idea that the government was pushing for a quick turnaround in the schools and this was detrimental to teacher improvement due to a move towards accountability testing and a departure from traditional teacher self-improvement. Louis and Marks explained, "The tensions in the arena of school reform are formidable. We point to three of them. Policy makers at state and national levels want 'systematic reform' very quickly, which often includes focusing more on the development of standards and accountability systems than on teacher and school development" (p. 561).

It may have been because of these large, sometimes district-wide reforms that schools and researchers alike started to move away from examining what experiences made a teacher successful inside the classroom, and focused instead on how the reforms affected different schools in different ways. As noted, the reforms ideas that were being set out were focused on large groups of public schools and were therefore very difficult to manage. This, in turn, may have caused the gap between teacher perceptions and school reform to widen. Teachers, however, are the primary people who create the society within a

school, and it can be argued that each school has its own culture or "society" which in turn has an effect on the teachers within.

The Role of the Teacher

Inherent differences in individual teacher characteristics and values are going to lead to different implementation of the same reform. Teachers are considered the mediators of reform, and therefore it would be far more effective to have flexibility in the reforms that are being implemented. It is not realistic to expect the same reform to work exactly the same way in different schools with different faculty. Because of this, the focus needs to be on teacher characteristics and strategies that facilitate effective reforms, and charter schools are an excellent example of this. Each school has its own governing board which creates a sense of autonomy from the big school districts. This independence works its way into the classroom and helps the teacher to utilize their best strategies regardless of whether the teacher next door is doing the same. Teachers create their own methods to effectively run their classrooms and can therefore take complete ownership of the results. Charter Schools have also given teachers the opportunity for leadership within the school and the independence to create their own curriculum. Teachers are able to plan their curriculum based on the specific needs of their classrooms, and they are asked to share strategies and ideas with other teachers. This creates a sense of independence in the classroom which leads to more ownership of the students' improvement. With this also comes a greater sense of accountability, as parents, administrators, and the community are looking for tangible results. Ross and Gray (2006) noted that schools with higher levels of transformational leadership were cited as having higher collective teacher efficacy, better commitment, and better student achievement. It is this type of leadership that may result in high self-efficacy, which, in turn, impacts the beliefs and strategies utilized by teachers.

Today there is little research on charter school educators and their perceptions of autonomy and independence when creating their own curriculum in relation to the state standards. There is also a lack of research regarding charter school educators and how they believe that they are effectively initiating

greater levels of student improvement. This study seeks to understand how charter school teachers perceive their own successes and the ways in which teachers strive to enhance student improvement.

Design of Study

Student achievement is a topic within the field of education that has drawn a lot of critics, mainly because No Child Left Behind has emphasized school accountability, placing pressure on teachers and students to perform well on state mandated tests (Schleicher 2006). The teacher should be considered the most direct link to the student, and this relationship should be examined more carefully as this will be the catalyst to student improvement. If the successes of teachers can be identified, they will provide a new set of options for underperforming schools to utilize in their efforts to help children succeed in school, and the hope is to expand teacher knowledge in both pedagogy and content knowledge. In order to examine what teachers perceive to be their strengths as related to increasing student achievement, this study utilized a case study design in which three cases were explored within a bounded system.

This study was conducted in a charter school in a Southeastern state. This state uses a Value-Added Assessment System to evaluate teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Each teacher earns a specific assessment rating, and ratings that are above zero are considered good; the higher the rating is above zero the higher the level of student improvement from the previous year. The teachers involved in this study all had positive value-added scores and were all licensed and considered highly qualified in their specific subject area. The charter school included in this study had an average student population of three hundred students and at least 90% of the student body was classified as African-American. In addition, this school was also receiving Title I funds with 84% of their students receiving free and reduced-price meals.

Methods and Sample Selection

At the time this study was conducted, thirty teachers were assigned to the school. The researcher interviewed three teachers, took notes, audio taped, and read journals kept by

interviewed teachers. Teachers were purposefully chosen based on the achievement of the charter school and their value-added score. Observations of classrooms were also conducted and field notes were taken. The interviews took place during the months of June and July 2009, and were designed to identify what charter school teachers were doing differently, if anything, to exact higher levels of student improvement and achievement than public schools. All transcribed notes were reviewed for accuracy and teachers were asked for clarification during interviews if necessary. Interviews were coded and emerging strategies and ideas were grouped. Data was validated via triangulation, as field notes were examined, along with previous literature and interview transcriptions.

Research Findings

The purpose of this study was to identify teacher characteristics believed to be successful in achieving great levels of student achievement. The teachers' perception of how they facilitated this improvement was identified and examined. Two areas of interest became apparent. First, teachers tended to focus on specific things they were doing academically to help their students and on ways that they promoted academic achievement through character development. The classroom observations were used as a first-hand look into the inner-workings of the classrooms. They provided a representation of effective teaching practices and lesson planning and allowed the researcher to get a feel for the school environment.

Overall, the teachers who were interviewed stated that they focused on lesson planning as a means to an effective lesson. The planning, in effect, drove the way the class operated over the course of the entire year. Elza, an English teacher, described the way that she takes on each new school year. "Planning is the backbone of my class. I know that if I have planned extensively, the execution and comprehension pieces will fall into place. As I start each new year, I realize more and more the effect that proper planning can have on the way my classroom runs, and ultimately on how much they will learn."

Teachers also believed that planning is often overlooked by teachers regardless of experience. It seemed as though new teachers simply needed feedback and practice with their

planning, and that veteran teachers had a tendency to fall into the same routine year in and year out. Elza continued by saying,

> In my previous school there was very little feedback for new teachers. I felt lost and frustrated because I had no idea how to plan for the entire year. When I moved to [my current Charter School] the emphasis became how we prepared for our classes. Because of this we spent a lot of time practicing and giving each other feedback.

In the given survey, 58% of Charter School teachers strongly agreed and 40% agreed that lesson planning directly affects student achievement. Of this group, 98% said that they were confident in their teaching ability, thus pointing out that the planning aspect of a class directly elicits improvement from the students.

This discussion on planning segued into a conversation about what specific strategies were being utilized in the classroom. Modeling and repetition were noted as two of the most important strategies that the teachers utilized. Mike, a 9th grade math teacher, noted,

> Every day I give a Tune-up that covers material that we have done before. After that the lesson begins with a combination of lecturing and modeling for the class. Repetition, repetition, repetition. That is what works. That and constantly helping the students. Monitoring their progress with mini-quizzes is essential to the way I run my classroom. Within one minute I can tell how many students understood the material and how many did not. This then dictates where I go next.

Perhaps most interesting in these conversations was the focus on character education and teamwork. All three teachers interviewed commented on the importance of this within the classroom. Thomas, a 10th grade Biology teacher, described his feelings on this:

> Team unity is crucial in the classroom. I always refer to my classes as teams. They have to work together to achieve

> their goals. I make sure to give awards like "student of the week" to create small goals for them. We also start at the beginning of the year by making an adjective list of what makes a good student. We add to the list throughout the year, and students are constantly reminded of who they want to be.

This type of teambuilding strategy may not be content specific, and may not teach to a test or a standard, but it helps the student to develop as a person which in turns helps to promote academic achievement. It became clear that all of these teachers strove to have a well-rounded classroom, and they were all convinced that this was a determining factor in their success.

During interviews, the teachers were asked about the students that other people had given up on, saying that they just couldn't learn. Mike stated,

> It is not that they can't learn; it is just that it may take them longer or that they need a different approach. I realize that all kids might not excel in math, but that doesn't mean that they can't learn any math at all. Once we accept that there are different levels of understanding we can start to just teach. All kids can learn. We just have to put in the effort.

In addition to believing that all students can learn, these teachers were very focused on the fact that they did have areas that they needed to improve upon. There were marked differences in what those areas were, but the important focus should be on the fact that they recognized those areas and were working very hard to improve. Elza stated,

> I used to struggle with my highest performing students. I spent so much time focusing on my students who were struggling and modifying assignments for them that I forgot about my students who needed to be challenged. I have learned that all students need attention, and that from year to year all students need to improve no matter how advanced they may be.

Conclusion

During the interview process, it became evident that these teachers put a lot of thought into how they teach before they ever enter the classroom. Lesson planning was discussed in the interviews with all three teachers, and it is clear that it must become one of the most important elements in the classroom. Teachers must be constantly willing to plan, reevaluate, and plan again. The driving force behind student achievement is the way the lesson is planned and presented to the students. It is also evident that many of these successful teachers did not feel they were properly taught how to plan, or even encouraged to plan thoroughly. They all noted that once they realized the direct link between planning and student achievement, they made it an integral part of their classroom.

Overall, Charter School teachers cited their ability to plan according to their own ideas as being incredibly important when trying to realize higher levels of student achievement. There was also an overwhelming need to have more guidance for new teachers, although this charter school was cited as doing a fair to good job with this. Higher levels of new-teacher guidance is not a new concept, as Norris (2000) argued that we need to refocus on teacher-based knowledge and experience. In discussions about what they believed to be their strongest attributes, these teachers were willing to share that they had worked very hard to personally improve, and that the accountability they felt towards their school and their students was what drove them to push to a higher level of achievement, not the state mandated assessment system.

It was clear that the charter school teachers felt an overwhelming need to focus on the student as a whole. By helping students to fully develop as students and as individuals they significantly increased their willingness to learn and their motivation in school. Ultimately, teachers are the catalyst for directing student improvement. Creating an atmosphere where students and teachers work together and trust each other creates a sense of accountability for both teachers and students.

Future Research and Recommendations

Future research into the charter school reform movement will be a critical way to improve our larger school systems. More research needs to be done on the ways in which teachers within these charter schools are effective and on the impact that their personal beliefs about their effectiveness can have on other teachers. It has become apparent that new teachers need more guidance as they work to cultivate effective teaching skills and as they are asked to rise to higher and higher standards. Louis and Marks (1998) concluded that the quick turnaround the government is pushing for is detrimental to teacher improvement as there is little emphasis on helping teachers improve. Additionally, while the sample size for this study was small, further research utilizing a larger, more diverse population is necessary for a more extensive study.

One recommendation to assist with the guidance of new teachers would be to implement a mentoring program within schools. Veteran teachers should be assigned to help first and second year teachers as they work to improve their teaching strategies, lesson planning, and classroom management techniques. Mentors would be asked to work with their assigned teacher both in an out of the classroom. It is not only important for new teachers to receive feedback on their own teaching, it is also crucial that they have the opportunity to observe their mentor. This reciprocal relationship will help both the new teacher and the mentor.

Schools should also find more ways to help teachers serve as leaders within their schools. When teachers are individually empowered within their schools, York-Barr and Duke (2004) pointed out that they are more likely to realize higher levels of success within the classroom. A teachers' ownership of their work can be directly linked to student achievement, as theorized by Furhman and Elmore (1990). Charter schools often do an excellent job creating an atmosphere in which teachers feel that they are able to mitigate change through their own ideas. This perhaps became a trend because charter schools do not have as many employees as some of the larger schools, thereby making an atmosphere conducive to change a necessary part of a teacher's duties.

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The Mississippi Burning Murders: Teaching What Must Be Remembered

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Introduction

The 1964 murders of three civil rights workers in Philadelphia, Mississippi, is one of the most shocking crimes committed during the Civil Rights Movement. The events which unfolded on June 22, 1964, paint a picture of a planned execution that was not only perpetrated by the Ku Klux Klan but also supported by local law enforcement as well as the Mississippi Highway Safety Patrol. Even though the bodies of the slain were not found until six weeks after the crime, the true story of the murders is still unfolding due to the fact that the FBI has continued to investigate the crime in 2010.[1] An examination of high school social studies textbooks discovered the majority failed to even mention the murders and the few that did only reference the murders in brief passing. During informal discussions with local Mississippi high school history teachers, the researcher discovered many of these teachers lacked knowledge of the actual events. The majority of the teachers were aware of the murders but lacked knowledge surrounding the actual events. While there seemed to be a lack of understanding of the content, there was a willingness to teach the material.

The Mississippi Burning Murders

CORE

The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) was founded in 1942 as an American civil rights organization dedicated to securing equality for all people throughout the world. The CORE movement initially focused on the segregation contained in the Chicago area. However, by 1961 CORE had sponsored protests in which students attempted to challenge local laws banning integrated bus rides across state lines. The landmark United

States Supreme Court case Morgan v. Virginia (1946) ruled segregation in interstate travel unconstitutional. To test the Supreme Court ruling, in 1961 CORE advocated a bus ride that was later called the Freedom Ride. Led by James Farmer, CORE gained national headlines when their riders were arrested in North Carolina. With more donations and support coming in, CORE expanded their non-violent activities and began going deeper and deeper into the highly segregated South. By 1961, CORE had 53 chapters established across the United States. During 1964, the organization assisted with the Freedom Summer Movement.[2]

SNCC

Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) was founded in Raleigh, North Carolina, in April 1960. The goal of SNCC was to conduct sit-ins and freedom rides throughout the South. SNCC also encouraged its members to participate in the Robert Moses' Freedom Summer Project. [3]

COFO

Council of Federated Organizations (COFO) was formed in 1962 in an attempt to coordinate all voter registration projects in Mississippi. Used as an "umbrella agency," it was founded by SNCC's leader Robert Moses in the hopes it would bring together multiple civil rights agencies to work towards voter registration in Mississippi (NAACP, SNCC, and CORE). The program was disbanded in 1965. But during its short existence, COFO allowed a streamlining of payments to volunteers as well as a clear line of communication for activities within the state. [4]

Freedom Summer

Initially started in 1961 by Robert Moses, an SNCC member, the goal was to encourage and facilitate voter registration across the state of Mississippi. The high water mark for Freedom Summer would be the summer of 1964. With assistance from SNCC, COFO and CORE, the project attracted over 1,000 activists, most of whom were white middle class college students from the north.[5] By August 1964, the Freedom Summer Project resulted in four member deaths, eighty individual beatings, and sixty-seven fire bombings.

Summary of the Murders

During the summer of 1964, CORE and COFO had established a field office in Meridian, Mississippi, as well as in other cities across the state. The purpose of this office was to assist with the Freedom Summer Movement. On February 1, 1964, Michael Schwerner and his wife Rita, formally headed up the Meridian CORE office.[6] While setting up residence, Schwerner met a Meridian resident and fellow CORE member by the name of James Chaney. By all accounts, Schwerner and Chaney became good friends and started working together in Meridian. In an attempt to establish a Freedom School, where local black residents could obtain sufficient education to register to vote, Schwerner and Chaney traveled to the Mount Zion Methodist Church in Neshoba County to meet with the congregation. During their May 30 visit at Mount Zion Church, the two men were allowed to speak to the congregation. During their meeting, many of the church members expressed their willingness to use the church as a place to assist black voter registration.[7]

Unbeknownst to the Mississippi Freedom Workers, during this same time a new terror group had been established in the area. On February 15, 1964, the founding meeting of the White Knights of the Ku Klux Klan of Mississippi took place in Brookhaven, Mississippi. During that meeting, the proposed new leader of the KKK, Sam Bowers, convinced roughly 200 current KKK members to defect from their original organization and create a new branch under his leadership, thus giving Bowers the title of Grand Wizard. The selling point Grand Wizard Sam Bowers preached to the members of his newly formed KKK was that the new Mississippi Klan would be less talk and more violent. As fate would have it, the recruitment drive by the White Knights coincided with the same time the Freedom Summer had begun. As many Mississippians feared their state was being invaded by northern agitators, the White Knights were able to attract not only a large number of uneducated high school dropouts (the Klan's usual recruitment base) but a large number of law enforcement officers and preachers, as well as local businessmen.[8]

During this period, Michael Schwerner and fellow CORE members continued to work on registration and education of the

disenfranchised black populous of Meridian as well as surrounding towns and counties. This included the county of Neshoba, located north of Meridian, which was well known at the time as being a violent county controlled by corrupt law enforcement. Because Schwerner continued his efforts, Bowers began focusing his rage on the man he called "Goat" (Schwerner wore his facial hair in what is referred to as a goatee beard). Using Meridian organizer, Edgar Ray Killen, Bowers encouraged the Lauderdale County White Knights to increase their violence.[9] In May 1964, a group of local Klan members traveled to Bowers' hometown of Laurel, Mississippi, to discuss various issues. At the meeting, Bowers stated that Schwerner had become "a thorn in the side of everyone living, especially white people and that he should be taken care of."[10]

To encourage black voter turnout in neighboring areas, Schwerner and Chaney began traveling to more reputed hostile cities in the area such as Philadelphia, Mississippi. During one visit, Schwerner and Chaney were invited to meet and talk with the congregation of the Mount Zion Methodist Church in Neshoba County. Schwerner used his strong voice to encourage the members to use the church as a Freedom School in order to help educate disenfranchised blacks. The congregation agreed to lend their help and voiced their eagerness to see the men in the near future.

During the first week of June 1964, local CORE members, including Schwerner and Chaney, traveled to Ohio to attend a training session for Freedom Summer participants. During the visit, Michael met an ambitious black-haired fellow CORE member by the name of Andrew Goodman. After many conversations, Goodman decided to join Schwerner and Chaney when they returned to Meridian, Mississippi.

During the time the three civil rights workers were attending training in Ohio, the Meridian and Neshoba Klan members decided to meet in an old abandoned gym located on the outskirts of Philadelphia, Mississippi. The Philadelphia meeting was led by Edgar Ray Killen and was attended by close to 200 Klan members. During this meeting, a Klan member entered and announced that there was a meeting occurring at the same time at Mount Zion Church and there was a chance "Goat" was there. The Klan, led by Killen, was quick to act and sprang into

action. They raced over to Mount Zion Church and assaulted many of the church members while demanding that the members tell them, "Where is the Jew?" At the time, Schwerner happened to be in Ohio. After returning to Philadelphia, the Meridian Klan members laughed at some of the Neshoba Klan members for being too soft on the blacks. Later that night, some of the Neshoba Klan members returned to the church and burned it down.

Upon learning of the assaults and burning of Mount Zion Church, Schwerner, Chaney and their new associate, Andrew Goodman, drove to Meridian. After spending his first night in Mississippi, on June 21, 1964, Goodman accompanied Chaney and Schwerner in a blue station wagon for a daytime visit of the burned down church. Their plan was to first visit the remains of the church, talk with some of the church members and then return to Meridian by 4 p.m. After concluding their visit with the congregation and while driving back to Meridian, the trio was spotted by Deputy Cecil Price. Deputy Price later confessed before his death, that he first thought the car was being driven by a local civil rights worker from Jackson, Mississippi, named George Creel. At this point, Deputy Price attempted to catch up with the blue station wagon. When he actually caught up with the trio, Deputy Price found the trio stopped on the side of the road in the process of changing a flat tire. With the assistance of two Mississippi Highway Patrol officers, Deputy Price arrested Chaney for allegedly speeding (a crime for which the MHP officers would later admit they had not witnessed) and detained Schwerner and Goodman for "investigation" into the Mount Zion Church burning. In Deputy Price's 1999 confession, he stated that after he brought the men to the jail he decided to call Edgar Ray Killen in Meridian, to help organize a group to "give the boys a good whipping" (Price, 1999, p. 2).

Once Killen was notified of the trio's arrest, he set about organizing a murder squad. Using the Longhorn Drive Inn located in Meridian, Mississippi, as his base of operation, Killen called or personally visited approximately nineteen men. As the sun set, Killen instructed a few of the men to go to a local store to purchase rubber gloves. As multiple cars left for the thirty minute drive to Philadelphia, the three civil rights workers were

sitting in their jail cells unaware of the lynch mob rapidly approaching.

At approximately 10:30 p.m., Deputy Price instructed the jailer to allow Chaney to bail out on the speeding charge for twenty dollars. Chaney borrowed the needed bail money from Schwerner. Upon leaving jail, the three men got into their station wagon and proceeded to head back to Meridian. At the same time, Killen had organized multiple cars located in various places throughout the town to begin their chase of the trio as soon as they learned what route the trio was taking. Killen also ordered his men to drop him off at a local funeral home so that he could visit a relative and establish an alibi. However, before Killen left his men, he told one of the carloads, "We have a place to bury them, and a man to run the dozer to cover them up." (Barnett, 1964).

A wild chase ensued after the trio's car was south of Philadelphia. History depicts a complicated picture of the scene. Apparently, the plan called for two Mississippi Highway Patrol officers to pull the trio's station wagon over. However, for reasons known only to them, the two Mississippi Highway Patrol officers apparently chose not to go through with the plan and decided instead to drive away. One of the "chase" cars driven by a man named Posey broke down and had to be serviced on the side of the road. Ultimately, it was Deputy Price who pulled over the station wagon. With the assistance of a second "chase" car loaded with Klan members, Deputy Price kidnapped the three civil rights workers. The three men were driven to Rock Cut Road located north of where the trio had been stopped. Once at Rock Cut Road, a Klansman by the name of Wayne Roberts pulled Schwerner from the car and asked him, "Are you that N_ _ _ Lover?" In response to Roberts' question, Schwerner calmly replied, "Sir, I know just how you feel." (Barnette Confession, 1964). At this point, Roberts proceed to shoot Schwerner in the heart and then pull Goodman from the car. Roberts shot Goodman as well. During this time, a man by the name of James Jordan is said to have yelled at Roberts, "Save one for me." Jordan then proceeded to shoot James Chaney three times.

Immediately following the triple murders, the group took the bodies to an earthen dam in the area that was under

construction. This burial site had been preselected by Killen. Waiting at the dam site was a bulldozer driver named Tucker. Tucker then buried the bodies under approximately fifteen feet of Mississippi dirt within the earthen dam. The trio's blue station wagon was taken to a nearby swamp where it was burned.
The Long Road to Justice

With the help of the FBI, the civil rights workers' burned automobile was discovered two days later located approximately thirteen miles northeast of Philadelphia, Mississippi. On August 4 , 1964, approximately six weeks after their abduction, the bodies of Schwerner, Chaney and Goodman were discovered after an FBI informant revealed their location. It took the FBI until December of that year to finalize their case against twenty-one suspects. Nineteen men were ultimately charged with conspiring to deprive the trio of their constitutional rights (the state of Mississippi refused to prosecute for murder). After more than two years of legal wrangling, a federal jury convicted seven of the men and acquitted the remainder, including Edgar Ray Killen. It was later discovered that a lone female juror refused to convict Killen because Killen happened to be a Baptist preacher. The seven convicted men served sentences ranging from three to ten years.

In December 1998, Clarion Ledger reporter Jerry Mitchell revealed that in 1983 Ku Klux Klan Grand Wizard Sam Bowers taped an interview with the Mississippi State Archives in which he stated that he was glad to serve the time because he knew the "main instigator of the entire affair walked out of the courtroom a free man." (Bowers died in Mississippi State Prison in 2006 while serving a life sentence for another civil rights murder). Because of this statement, the state of Mississippi reopened the investigation into the murders and ultimately brought charges against Edgar Ray Killen for the murders. In 2005, Killen was convicted of three counts of manslaughter and was sentenced to three twenty year terms in prison which were to be served consecutively. Killen has exhausted all appeals and currently resides in the State prison located in Pearl, Mississippi.

Designing the Project / Lesson
Evolution of the Project

The development of this project began based on a lack of coverage of the subject contained in the majority of the textbooks provided for high school teachers. Generally, when dealing with civil rights issues, current textbooks only briefly reference the Mississippi Burning murders in passing, if the murders are mentioned at all. Those textbooks which actually reference the murders usually do so in a small paragraph connecting the murders to the Freedom Summer movement. Due to the fact the murders resulted in massive FBI involvement, infiltration of the existing Ku Klux Klan, and current investigation, it is important that the murders and history of the crimes be given more than a cursory nod in history books. Because of the dearth of information currently available concerning these murders or the circumstances leading up to them, the researcher began investigating the murders and alleged culprits. During the researcher's investigation, the researcher was able to compile stories and obtain additional sources of information to create a stronger understanding of this shameful era in Mississippi history and develop a lesson which could be used in instruction.

Alignment with Standards[11]

The importance of teaching the Mississippi Burning murders can be found in the national standards outlined by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). The table below describes how the identified NCSS Standards align with the proposed content of the Mississippi Burning murders lessons.

NCSS Standard	Content Connection
Culture	The murders and events surrounding those murders demonstrates a sense of belief, value and tradition possessed by the murdered civil rights workers as well as by their killers.
Time, Community and Change	Student, as well as non-students, should seek to understand their historical roots and place themselves in the referenced period of time. The basic understanding of "what happened in the past" is paramount to understanding the events which

	unfolded during the summer of 1964.
People, Places and Events	The Mississippi Burning murders allows the investigation of not only the individuals involved, but those individuals' interactions within various groups of people. By familiarizing students with a better awareness of the prevalence of racism in the Neshoba area at that time, students can better appreciate the difficulties that the CORE members had to face.
Individual Development and Identity	By personalizing the events and victims, students are able to imagine what may have transpired on Rock Cut Road. This will lead the students to better understand how circumstances and events can shape the way people choose to act. While an individual's actions may be the result of peer pressure or even racist murderous rage, students will grasp a stronger understanding of social norms and how these norms are sometimes bent or even shattered by an individual or group of individuals.
Individuals, Groups and Institutions	The murders paint a strong picture of how people can act in a group setting. It is estimated nineteen people were involved in the brutal execution of the three civil rights workers. While having students identify the inherit badness of the group mentality depicted by the murderous mob, the teacher can demonstrate how the three victims remained unified, working as a group, even up to the time of their deaths, to protect the rights of one another.
Power, Authority and Governance	The discussion of the Klan's influence in the government of Mississippi

	during the summer of 1964 will allow students to view the past in a different perspective. Not only will the students question the authorities and governmental officials of the 1960's, they will also see how the executions were minimized by law enforcement officials sworn to protect the citizens in the 1960's as compared to the recent reopening of the case.
Civic Ideas and Practices	The very basic goal of civil rights which were advocated by the CORE movement demonstrates the need for civic ideas. Furthermore, the three slain civil rights workers were attempting to practice their democratic rights and assist disenfranchised citizens in registering to vote.

Step-by-Step Suggested Walk-through

- Discussion of the Freedom Summer Movement
- Introduction to and personalization of Michael Schwerner, James Chaney, and Andrew Goodman
- Discussion of the Mt. Zion Church burning and the impact it had with regards to the murders
- Explanation of the events leading up to the arrests surrounding the Mississippi Burning murders
- Introduction of the various first person accounts, including confessions by a number of individuals involved with the actual murders
- Summary of the crimes and what could have been done to alter the course of events
- Describe what lessons were learned or should be taken away from this dark time in Mississippi history

Results

This curriculum project was given to a number of secondary education teaching candidates during the final semester of the candidate's teaching internship. The teaching candidates

reported success with implementation of the curriculum. They reported that the lesson plan assisted with instruction in the Civil Rights Movement by allowing the candidates to show how one crime undertaken by a single individual could blossom into a conspiracy and mob mentality. One teaching candidate reported the need to stress how the corruption of local law enforcement not only allowed for the suppression of a group of individuals but ultimately provided fertile breeding ground for a lawless mob to develop a murder squad. The corruption of the Philadelphia police force by the White Knights of the Ku Klux Klan conflicts with our modern day image of local police forces being there to protect and serve all citizens. Also, the use of images depicting this period in history assists students to better understand how pervasive the conspiracy actually was. Further, it must be stressed that although we like to think that this period of history is in the very distant past, teachers in Mississippi must use caution when teaching this material in a classroom, especially close to Philadelphia, Mississippi, as some students may be related to the murderers or alleged suspects.

Suggested Teaching Activities

The following activities are recommendations and examples designed to help teachers in the construction of lessons involving the Mississippi Burning murders. It is recommended that the teacher alter and design activities which are best suited for his/her individual classroom. More importantly, teachers should review state curriculum guidelines and mandates in order to assist with proper instruction.

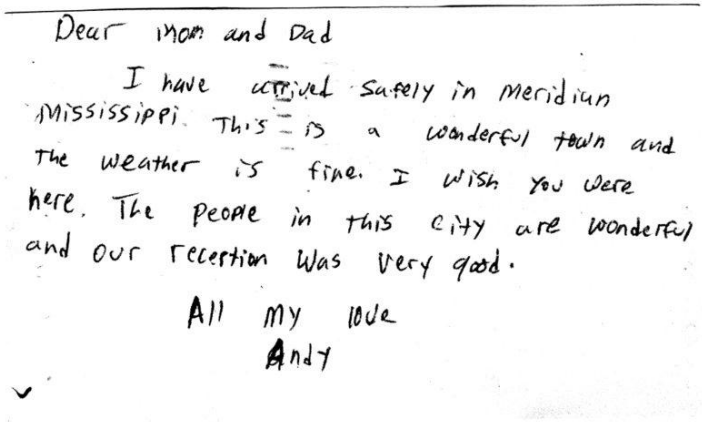
Teaching About the Murders

1. Discuss the Freedom Summer Project of 1964. Ask students what would make someone from as far away as Ohio, California or any number of states in between, to come to Mississippi to help African Americans register to vote?
2. Share with students the events surrounding the murders of the three slain civil rights workers.
3. Show students photographs of the three civil rights workers along with images of their burned station wagon. These photographs, and many others, can be obtained through a simple internet search.

4. If time permits, read the confessions of the killers contained in the actual trial transcripts. The confession of Jordan is the most detailed and disturbing.

Reinforcement of Writing

1. Share with students the last letter sent by Andrew Goodman to his parents upon his arrival in Meridian.



Dear Mom and Dad

I have arrived safely in Meridian Mississippi. This is a wonderful town and the weather is fine. I wish you were here. The people in this city are wonderful and our recertion was very good.

All my love
Andy

(Figure 1). Letter Sent by Andrew Goodman

2. Ask the students to write on one of the following topics:
   a. A letter of condolence to the Goodman family.
   b. An essay describing how Goodman's efforts led to voting rights for African Americans in Mississippi.
   c. A poem describing the murder of the three civil rights workers.
3. Have students listen to a selection of the 1983 audio recordings of Sam Bowers (located at http://mdah.state.ms.us/arrec/digital_archives/bowers/).
4. Ask students to analyze the section in which Sam Bowers makes his notorious statement (page 45): "I was quite delighted to be convicted and have the main instigator of the entire affair walk out of the courtroom a free man, which everybody including the trial judge and

the prosecutors and everybody else knows that that happened [sic]."

a. Have students write a paper discussing what this quote means and what connection they believe it has with Edgar Ray Killen's involvement in the murders.
b. Have students write a newspaper article discussing Bowers' statement and how they believe his confession implicates other members, whether convicted or not.

Conclusion

The murders of the three civil rights workers in Philadelphia, Mississippi, in the summer of 1964 best demonstrates the evil emerging from the newly formed White Knights of the Ku Klux Klan in Mississippi. The murders and the subsequent trial depict the myriad problems which arose with attempting to convict individuals within a segregated and racist society at the time. By examining the complexities of Freedom Summer, CORE, COFO, and the back drop of the Philadelphia, Mississippi area at the time, students will have a better understanding of the events and difficulties surrounding the Civil Rights Movement. This understanding will help modern day students appreciate exactly how far the Civil Rights Movement has come. Further, the later convictions of both Sam Bowers and Edgar Ray Killen, as well as the recent election of an African American mayor in Philadelphia, Mississippi, best demonstrates to students the massive inroads the state of Mississippi has made to address and correct a history of racism and violence.

Notes

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A Comparative Study of Service Preferences of Preservice Teachers Attending a Branch Campus vs. Service Preferences of Preservice Teachers Attending the Main Campus of a Southern University

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Abstract
The dynamics of providing higher education has changed over the last decade and a new paradigm of taking education to the student has emerged. "Branch campuses," as they are commonly referred to, serve the student who is place-bound due to limitations that include but are not restricted to family responsibilities, financial constraints, and work obligations. Although the learning takes place on a campus that is physically detached from the main campus, the rigor of course offerings is not compromised. This paper describes the perceptions of service preferences of preservice teachers attending a branch campus vs. those attending the main campus of the only upper-level, two-year baccalaureate degree granting institution in Alabama.

Introduction

Early in the history of the United States, the plight of the place-bound student went unacknowledged. Now, however, with the aging population and the increase in the number of people working full-time, the plight of the place-bound student is being recognized. College enrollment is growing, and the nontraditional, suburban adult student finds a niche where

location, time, and price are feasible (Nickerson & Schaefer, 2001). Easy access to higher education really matters, and branch campuses are one such solution (Morrill and Beyers, 1991). More specifically, as Morrill & Byers noted, branch campuses address needs of students who are place-bound and unable to relocate.

The university branch campus has emerged as a relatively recent but significant addition to the landscape of American higher education, fulfilling the goals of a growing number of institutions to extend postsecondary learning to a broader public (Morrill & Byers, 1991). Wolf and Strange (2003) noted that branch campuses are often distinguished for developing flexible practices and responsive programs to meet a wider range of learning needs at a reasonably low cost. The researchers go on to lament, however, that in spite of the "significant contributions these colleges make to the education of citizens, relatively little research has examined their role" (p. 344). Nickerson and Schaefer (2001) stated that there is no escaping the fact that higher education has committed itself to delivering education to the student rather than the student to education. Nickerson and Schaefer further observed that increasing numbers of students are entering the system with this assumption.

Not only are enrollments growing dramatically in most states, many 21st century students do not fit the traditional profile of the 18-25 year-old cohort who attend college full-time and live on campus. Today's students seek a quality education at a convenient location, at a convenient time, and at a value price. According to Nickerson and Schafer (2001), branch campuses are often created to serve this non-traditional student niche and are commonly characterized as

- physically separate from the main campus.
- limited mission, vis-à-vis the main campus.
- dependent on the main campus for some or all credentialing and/or certification of students.
- dependent on the main campus for some or all accreditation.
- governed by some combination of main campus values, curriculum and budgetary control, and faculty review/tenure factors.

- student headcount of 200 or fewer.
- reliant on the main campus for some or all student support services and extracurricular activities.

Athens State University (ASU) is indeed responding to the need for branch campuses. As Alabama's only upper-level, two-year baccalaureate degree granting institution, ASU has been and continues to be competitive in providing quality higher education at the junior and senior level. Located on a 30 acre campus in Athens, Alabama, Athens State offers degrees in the Colleges of Arts and Sciences, Business, and Education to transfer students from accredited junior, community, and technical colleges, and those from other institutions of higher education. Athens State recognized the need to expand its course offerings to serve students throughout North Alabama and Southern Tennessee as its charter is to provide the last two years of education leading to the bachelor's degree to all students within the Alabama college system.

The idea of making undergraduate education affordable and accessible to un-served and underserved populations where the availability to a baccalaureate degree was limited was embraced by all stakeholders. The demands on our non-traditional students, many who work full or part-time, are single, married, divorced, or widowed, and are parents of one or more children, coupled with a failing economy, can interrupt the ability to continue educational pursuits. To reach the masses, ASU uses branch campuses, which it calls 'university centers,' to meet the need of place bound students. As stated in the ASU Catalog, a goal is "to promote the use of appropriate University and community resources to facilitate educational and training programs for the diversified needs of business, industry, education, and government in addition to providing cultural and intellectual enrichment." Since the late seventies, ASU had minimally met this need by operating one center at Redstone Arsenal in Huntsville, Alabama. In the fall of 2003, an additional center was founded on the campus of Wallace State Community College and became the Wallace-Hanceville University Center.

To further bring the idea of "university centers" to fruition, ASU initiated a dialogue with every community college in the

state. The aim was to make higher education convenient to prospective students. Ideally, students would enter the door that would lead to a bachelor's degree on the same campus they had exited a door that led to an associate's degree. The role of ASU is to provide this opportunity for every Alabama community college.

To date, Athens State has established a relationship with and maintains University Centers at Northeast Alabama Community College Rainsville, Northwest Shoals Community College Phil Campbell, Wallace State Community College Hanceville, Wallace State Community College Selma, and Snead State Community College Boaz. Full centers, offering at least half of the course in the traditional, face-to-face format are operating on two of these campuses: Northeast and Wallace-Hanceville.

The Wallace Hanceville University Center (WHC) began course offerings in fall 2003 on the 9th floor of the Bailey Center. Facilities included one office for the center manager, three faculty offices, five multi-media classrooms, one of which may also serve as a conference room, one computer lab, one office for student workers, one pantry, one faculty/staff work room, one restroom for men and one restroom for women. Janitorial services were provided by the host college.

As the WHC is a branch from the ASU tree, the goal of the university center reflects the mission of the university. Serving transfer students effectively and efficiently during their matriculation is at the heart of faculty and staff. Consequently, the center manager, faculty, and staff are committed to duplicating the "college experience" at the WHC branch to that which would be afforded on the main campus.

Methodology

As Wolfe and Strange (2003) have argued, branch campuses can serve an important role in providing higher education to certain populations. But as they further noted, little research exists regarding the nature of such academic communities. This descriptive study compared the perceptions of College of Education elementary majors who are enrolled in ED 301 Foundations of Education, EL 320 Children's Literature, and EL315 Teaching Kindergarten on the Wallace Hanceville

campus with the perceptions of their counterparts on the main ASU campus. The participants were entering junior students from five sections of the selected required courses. The five classes surveyed were in the following course formats: main campus day classes (2), branch campus day classes (2) and one branch campus blended course. A blended course meets three times on the campus and other instruction is solely online.

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Office of Institutional Research at Athens State. All students present the day the survey was administered were voluntary participants. The collected information was reported as anonymous group data.

Results/Findings

Eighty-one surveys were returned, 44 from the main campus and 37 from the branch campus. Demographic characteristics of population were Caucasian N=74, African American N=2, No response N=5. The majority of the participants were female. There were 77 females and 12 males. The population was predominantly single (N=47), followed by married N=24, divorced students N=3 and widowed N=2. Twenty-six students had children. The working status of the group was full time N=13, part time N=44, and not working N=22.

Reasons for course selection were location N=51, time available N=29, instructor N=12, taking classes with friends N=2, and other, such as required (N=3). Both campuses showed a strong preference for daytime classes (main campus N=34 and branch campus N=33).

One aspect of a branch/satellite campus is services available. The survey listed services available on the main campus and asked students to comment on services desired and those they would use. The services available at Athens main campus were listed: bookstore, cafeteria, on site advising, ID badges issued, fingerprinting (required for work in schools), parking decals issued, writing lab, math lab, clubs/organizations, library services, financial aid, and student center. Services desired at the Athens Wallace Hanceville campus were bookstore N=19, financial aid N=11, and on site advising N=10.

The strongest data on the survey were the reason for attending college. Of 81 surveys returned, 71 listed pursuing

degree for employment as the most important reason for attending Athens State University. No participants listed this reason as unimportant. Other reasons for attending were to change jobs (N=14) or to receive a raise (N=12). When asked to indicate unimportant reasons for attending college, no participant listed getting a degree as unimportant, 33 listed campus life as unimportant, and 22 listed meeting new people as unimportant.

There are a number of elements that limited this study. Survey responses may have been limited due to course selection. Course formats surveyed were day classes for all participants and a blended course at the branch campus. Not surveyed were distance learning courses, weekend courses, blended main campus courses, evening blended on both campuses, and evening courses on both campuses. Future studies need to include these formats. Demographic data and need for services may also be very different for students choosing different formats. In cases where data did not total 81 responses, data were incomplete due to answers left blank. All classes surveyed had some daytime class meetings which may account for the high number of non-working students. Students say course selection is based on location and time. From both campuses, students surveyed prefer day time classes. At Athens-Wallace, the second most preferred class structure was blended, and at Athens the second most preferred structure was evening. Uniquely, ASU education students have no course options other than location and format. All students are advised to follow a prescribed course sequence. This sequence allows for little variation and does not provide for selection of courses such as electives.

The strongest data in this study were course selection based on time and location. Many students report campus life or meeting friends as an unimportant part of attending Athens. As one student reported, “I already have a full life: social activities with my family, children, church, and community. I am attending Athens to get a teaching credential.” This is an important finding as campus administrators work to allocate scarce resources.

Conclusion

The service of making education accessible is not a new concept. However, the venue in which education is facilitated is

shifting from a traditional campus to distance options, to include branch campuses. Dengerink (2001) noted that many branch campuses now exist throughout the United States. There are many reasons branch campuses are currently warranted: (1) Students attending branch campuses are often either unwilling or unable to relocate to main campuses; (2) The cost of tuition for higher education coupled with room and board or commuting costs makes branch campuses more appealing; (3) Older students are often encumbered with non-educational financial responsibilities such as mortgages, rent, and car payments; and (4) Even jobs, which are sources of income, may themselves be an impediment to continuing educational pursuits on main campuses. Athens State University is committed to "Building Success Stories" through traditional and non-traditional platforms, and branch campuses have proven to be both efficient and effective in providing quality education to place-bound students.

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The editor of *Journal for the Liberal Arts and Sciences* welcomes manuscripts related to a broad spectrum of academic disciplines and interests. Submissions should range from between 2000 and 5000 words in length, written in Times New Roman font (12 point) and must be accompanied by an abstract of up to 100 words. Manuscripts submitted for a special issue should include a reference to the theme of the issue. Authors can choose to submit their manuscripts as an email attachment to jlas@oak.edu or to the mailing address below. Email submissions are to include a message indicating that the manuscript is not under consideration with any other publisher but *JLAS*. Submissions by mail are to include a cover letter indicating that the manuscript is not under consideration with any other publisher as well as an electronic copy of the manuscript on either CD-ROM or diskette. All manuscripts must be submitted in MS Word format.

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Originals of tables and figures, such as graphs and charts should be supplied. Graphics should be prepared and captioned as exactly as they are intended to appear in the journal. All explanatory notes should be avoided whenever possible and the intonation incorporated in the text. Essential notes should be gathered in a section following the text and listed under the heading “End Notes.” End notes should be identified with consecutive numbers assigned in keeping with the superscript numeral used at the point requiring the note.

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