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EDITOR'S NOTES

First of all, I am happy to announce the addition of several new editorial board members to the *Journal for the Liberal Arts and Sciences.* They are John Day, Wabash Valley Community College; Brian McKnight, the University of Virginia at Wise College; Penelope Fritzer, Florida Atlantic University; Bob Lee, Bowling Green State University; John McKillip, Ball State University; and Tyler Counsil, Oakland City University.

The fall 2014 issue of the *JLAS* features several interesting and important educational research studies ranging from the elementary level to higher education. Article topics in the issue include a group of online graduate English education students' perceptions of writing, descriptive research concerning the rising number of Hispanic students in Texas and the nation, and ideas for developing literacy in second language learners.

Three articles in this issue examine teaching methodology. The first offers practical teaching strategies in the social studies for inclusion. The second methods article demonstrates how creative writing techniques can be used to teach writing more effectively in introductory college composition classes. A third methods-driven piece offers ideas concerning how social studies teachers can teach about the Arab Spring Movement.

The final two articles in this edition critically assess two controversial areas of education. The first looks at a group of middle school teachers' perceptions of the *Man: A Course of Study* curriculum. Our final study for the fall 2014 issue relates the problems that confronted one university department when setting up an alternative teaching certificate program.

Randy Mills, Editor
Journal for the Liberal Arts and Sciences

Leading Educational Institutions with Rapidly Expanding Hispanic Student Populations: From Texas to the Nation

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Abstract

Texas and other states that border with Mexico have been leading indicators of public school system trends that may manifest themselves in other areas of the United States in the decade to come. Such manifestations of these trends are likely to have both policy and practice implications. Descriptive statistics and longitudinal data from the National Center for Educational Statistics, the Texas Education Agency, and the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs were used to identify trends that have impacted Texas public school systems over the last decade. Additionally, enrollment projection reports were used to highlight projections that could significantly influence both policy and practice. Such agency reports included the forecast that total national elementary and secondary public school enrollment is projected to increase by 8 percent between 2006 and 2018 (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2009). NCES considered factors such as birth rate, internal migration, and immigration when forming the enrollment projections. NCES further projected that the number of public school teachers will increase by 17 percent between 2006 and 2018. The increases in both student and teacher populations will vary widely by geographic region (See Figure 1). While most of the South and Southwest will continue to experience significant growth (See Table 1), much of the Northeast will experience student population declines (See Table 2).

Overview

   Rapidly changing student demographics in the very near future will pose both challenges and opportunities for educational institutions across the country. The Hispanic student population enrolled in elementary and secondary public schools is currently large and continues to grow rapidly. Garcia and Jensen (2009) found that "Young Hispanic children are not only the largest racial/ethnic group in the U.S., but also the youngest and fastest-growing" (p. 3). The Hispanic student population enrolled in elementary and secondary public schools is projected to increase nationally by 25 percent between 2010 and 2020 (NCES, 2011). It is important that educational institutions proactively prepare respective policies and leadership practices to meet the changing student needs associated with this substantial demographic shift in student populations. It is likely that both the lessons learned through both the academic failures, and the successful, evidence-based policies and practices that were implemented in fast growth states, could benefit additional states on the verge of substantial student enrollment shifts.

Texas Implications

   The demographics of public school students are changing in both Texas, and across much of the United States. The Texas Education Agency recently released student enrollment numbers in Texas public schools for the 2010-2011 school year. Hispanic students represented 50.2 percent of the 4,933,617 Texas public school students (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2010). Hispanic students now make up the majority of the Texas public school student population for the first time in Texas history. Additionally, longitudinal Texas public school enrollment data from the previous decade points to the following trends:

- increasing overall student population;
- increasing percentage of economically disadvantaged students;
- increasing percentage of Hispanic students;
- decreasing percentage of White students;
- faster enrollment growth in urban settings; and
- increasing percentage of limited English proficient students (TEA, 2010).

In addition to the trends listed above, Texas public schools have recently been additionally challenged by budget cuts. While Texas public schools are serving larger percentages of both limited English proficient students and of economically disadvantaged students, the public schools are simultaneously facing funding reductions. These funding cuts exacerbate the challenges associated with the changing trends in Texas public school enrollment data.

The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) projects an increasing overall student population across much of the South and Southwest. The Northeast is projected to experience a decrease in overall student population. With the exception of New Hampshire, the New England states are projected to experience significant student population decline. Texas increased from 3,382,887 public school students in 1990 to 4,525,394 public school students in 2005 (NCES, 2010a). The growth trends in Texas public school enrollment data do not seem to be isolated to the state of Texas. As shown in Figure 1, much of the country is projected to experience a significant increase in public school enrollment during the period from 2006 through 2018.

Figure 1   Projected percentage change in grades PK–12 enrollment in public schools, by state: Fall 2006 through fall 2018
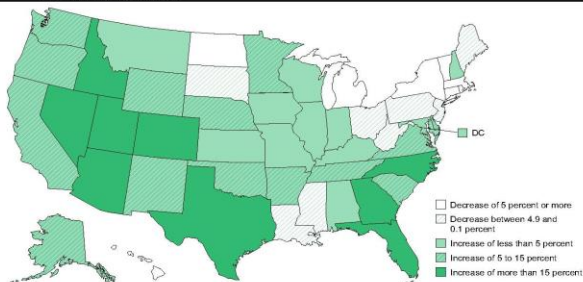
NOTE: Calculations are based on unrounded numbers. Mean absolute percentage errors of selected education statistics can be found in Table A-2, appendix A. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/ Secondary Education," 2006–07; and State Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Model, 1980–2006. (This figure was prepared March 2009.)

As Figure 1 illustrates, the projected change in public school student population is not evenly distributed across the country. Arizona, Nevada, and Texas are projected to have the highest percentage growth at 42.2%, 40.2%, and 32.1% respectively.

Interestingly, much of the public school student population growth is expected to occur in states with no state income tax. According to the Internal Revenue Service (2011), Alaska, Florida, Nevada, New Hampshire, South Dakota, Texas, Tennessee, Washington, and Wyoming have no state income tax. Of these nine states, eight of the nine states are expected to experience public school student population growth. Only South Dakota is projected to experience a public school student population decline. New Hampshire, the only New England no state income tax state, is also the only New England state projected to experience public school student population growth. While the author does not imply that a relationship exists between state income tax and public school enrollment, it is an interesting observation that perhaps warrants future study. Table 1 depicts the projected public school student population growth delineated by state.

Table 1 Projected percentage increases in public elementary and secondary school enrollment, by state: 2006 through 2018

State	Percent change	State	Percent change
Arizona	42.2	Alaska	8.5
Nevada	40.2	Oklahoma	7.1
Texas	32.1	Nebraska	7.0
Utah	29.7	South Carolina	5.8
Idaho	26.1	Minnesota	5.5
Georgia	25.2	Missouri	4.7
Florida	24.0	Kansas	3.8
North Carolina	22.9	Kentucky	3.6
Colorado	19.3	Montana	3.3
Tennessee	12.9	Indiana	3.2
Delaware	11.7	District of Columbia	3.1
Virginia	11.5	Maryland	2.4
Oregon	11.0	Illinois	2.3
Wyoming	10.6	Wisconsin	2.2
New Mexico	10.5	Alabama	1.4
Arkansas	9.1	Iowa	1.3
Washington	8.7	New Hampshire	1.1
California	8.6		

SOURCE: U.S. Dept. of Education, NCES, Common Core of Data surveys and State Public Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Model. (See reference table 5.)

Sixteen states are projected to experience declines in public school enrollment. Rhode Island, New York, and North Dakota are projected to have the largest student population declines, each decreasing by 11.5%, 9.0%, and 8.5% respectively. Table 2 depicts the projected decrease in public school student population delineated by state.

Table 2 Projected percent decreases in public elementary and secondary school enrollment, by state: 2006 through 2018

State	Percent change	State	Percent change
Rhode Island	-11.5	Maine	-4.5
New York	-9.0	Louisiana	-3.6
North Dakota	-8.5	Ohio	-3.1
Michigan	-7.9	West Virginia	-2.4
Vermont	-7.4	New Jersey	-2.4
Massachusetts	-6.2	Pennsylvania	-1.7
Connecticut	-5.9	Mississippi	-0.8
Hawaii	-5.7	South Dakota	-0.5

SOURCE: U.S. Dept. of Education, NCES, Common Core of Data surveys and State Public Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Model. (See reference table 5.)

In addition to the overall public school student population growth, the state of Texas has experienced rapid growth in both the number of Hispanic students and the number of limited English proficient (LEP) students. During the decade from 1995-2005, the number of LEP students enrolled in Texas public school increased at over twice the rate of increase in the general student population. Figure 2 depicts the growth in both the LEP and total student population by academic school year.

Figure 2

TEXAS

OFFICE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, LANGUAGE ENHANCEMENT, and ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT for LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

RATE OF LEP GROWTH 1995/1996-2005/2006

	Total Enrollment	Growth from 95-96	LEP Enrollment	Growth from 95-96
1995-1996	3,982,569	0.0%	478,297	0.0%
1996-1997	4,031,028	1.2%	513,634	7.4%
1997-1998	3,981,877	0.0%	507,262	6.1%
1998-1999	3,954,434	-0.7%	533,351	11.5%
1999-2000	3,991,783	0.2%	554,949	16.0%
2000-2001	4,059,619	1.9%	570,022	19.2%
2001-2002	4,128,429	3.7%	601,791	25.8%
2002-2003	4,259,864	7.0%	630,148	31.7%
2003-2004	4,328,028	8.7%	660,707	38.1%
2004-2005	4,405,215	10.6%	684,007	43.0%
2005-2006	4,525,394	13.6%	640,749	34.0%

Sources: U.S. Department of Education's Survey of the States' Limited English Proficient Students and Available Educational Programs and Services, 1991-1992 through 2000-2001 summary reports; state publications (1998-1999 data); enrollment totals from the National Center for Educational Statistics Core of Common Data, 1998-1999 through 2005-2006; FY 2002 Consolidated State Applications for State Grants under Title IX, Part C, § 9302 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (P.L. 107-110); 2004-2006 Consolidated State Performance Reports; and additional 2002-2005 data reported by state.

August 2008

National Implications

Like the projected increases in total student population, the increases in the Hispanic student population do not seem to be isolated to Texas. The United States Census Bureau (2010) reported that growth in resident population during the period from July 1, 2008 to July 1, 2009 was over four times higher for Hispanics than for White, Not Hispanics. The ratio of deaths to births was much higher for the White, Not Hispanic group than it was for Hispanics. International migration was higher for Hispanics than it was for the White, Not Hispanic group. Collectively, these trends are resulting in an increased percentage of Hispanic resident population in the United States and a decreased percentage of the White, Not Hispanic resident population. Table 3 depicts the changes in resident population within the United States between July 1, 2008 and July 1, 2009.

Table 3. Estimates of the Components of Resident Population Change by Race and Hispanic Origin for the United States: July 1, 2008 to July 1, 2009					
Race and Hispanic Origin	Total Population Change[1]	Natural Increase	Vital Events		Net International Migration[2]
			Births	Deaths	
TOTAL POPULATION	2,631,704	1,776,800	4,262,897	2,486,097	854,905
One Race	2,466,890	1,620,872	4,089,486	2,468,614	846,321
White	1,613,323	1,059,475	3,162,285	2,102,810	555,145
Black or African American	436,464	357,533	660,863	303,330	78,633
American Indian and Alaska Native	56,038	48,399	61,569	13,170	7,558
Asian	348,568	146,411	194,217	47,806	201,562
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	12,497	9,054	10,552	1,498	3,423
Two or More Races	164,814	155,928	173,411	17,483	8,584
Race alone or in combination:[3]					
White	1,763,112	1,201,968	3,319,448	2,117,480	562,162
Black or African American	527,230	443,871	751,988	308,117	82,875
American Indian and Alaska Native	83,670	73,750	96,528	22,778	9,810
Asian	411,778	206,371	259,615	53,244	204,699
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	25,271	20,862	24,452	3,590	4,375
HISPANIC	1,440,756	974,091	1,101,368	127,277	463,973
WHITE ALONE, NOT HISPANIC	322,123	205,926	2,190,026	1,984,100	119,879

[1] Total population change includes a residual. This residual represents the change in population that cannot be attributed to any specific demographic component. See National Terms and Definitions at http://www.census.gov/popest/topics/terms/national.html.

migration between the United States and Puerto Rico, (c) the net migration of natives to and from the United States, and (d) the net movement of the Armed Forces population between the United States and overseas.

[3] 'In combination' means in combination with one or more other races. The sum of each component of change for the five race groups adds to more than the total for each component of change because individuals may report more than one race.

Note: Hispanic origin is considered an ethnicity, not a race. Hispanics may be of any race. The original race data from Census 2000 are modified to eliminate the "Some Other Race" category. For more information see http://www.census.gov/popest/archives/files/MRSF-01-US1.html.

In addition to the practice and policy changes associated with changing student demographics, the sheer increase in the number of students will result in an increased demand for teachers (NCES, 2009). Rapidly increasing student populations will likely result in the construction of additional schools, the hiring of additional teachers, and possibly result in increased class sizes. NCES projects that there will be a 17 percent increase in the number of public school teachers in the United States between 2006 and 2018. Private schools are projected to increase by 6 percent during that same period. The demand for public school teachers continues to grow at a faster rate than the demand for private school teachers. That trend is projected to continue through 2018. While the growth in the demand for teachers continues to increase, the growth rate in the demand for both public and private school teachers is projected to grow at a slower rate from 2006 to 2018 than it grew from 1993 to 2006. Figure 3 depicts the middle alternative projected increase in the number of teachers delineated by public and private school setting.

Public school teachers

The number of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools (figure J; reference figure 30 and table 32)

- increased 27 percent between 1993 and 2006; and
- is projected to increase an additional 17 percent between 2006 and 2018 in the middle alternative projections.

Private school teachers

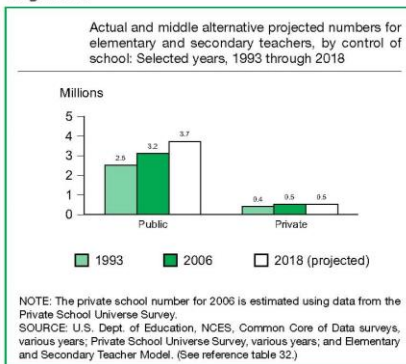The number of teachers in private elementary and secondary schools

- increased 25 percent between 1993 and 2006; and
- is projected to increase an additional 6 percent between 2006 and 2018 in the middle alternative projections.

Figure 3

Actual and middle alternative projected numbers for elementary and secondary teachers, by control of school: Selected years, 1993 through 2018

NOTE: The private school number for 2006 is estimated using data from the Private School Universe Survey.
SOURCE: U.S. Dept. of Education, NCES, Common Core of Data surveys, various years; Private School Universe Survey, various years; and Elementary and Secondary Teacher Model. (See reference table 32.)

The growth in the Hispanic student population, the LEP student population, and the student population at large in the State of Texas foreshadows changes to come in the student populations in many parts of the United States. Educational systems that incorporate projected student population changes into their strategic plans will be better prepared to meet both the future challenges and opportunities associated with those associated student population changes.

A recent national study (ACT, Inc., 2010) on the retention of Hispanic learners in community colleges with at least 20% Hispanic student population detailed the importance of placement based on test scores, tutoring, and developmental coursework. Descriptive statistics and longitudinal data from the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) and the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs (NCELA) identified trends that have impacted educational institutions over the last decade. Many states across the country are projected by NCES to experience substantial growth in their respective Hispanic student populations between 2006 and 2018. Such substantive growth will necessitate a culturally relevant pedagogy instituted as a result of evidenced-based leadership practices.

Figure 4. Projected percentage change in enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by state: Fall 2008 through fall 2020
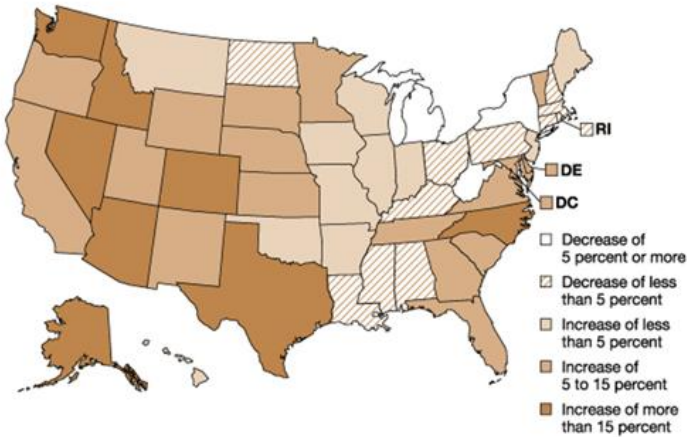
NOTE: Calculations are based on unrounded numbers. Mean absolute percentage errors of enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools by state and region can be found in table A-7, appendix A. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education," 2008–09; and State Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Model, 1980–2008. (This figure was prepared February 2011.)

Study findings such as the U.S. Department of Education published *What Works for Latino Students* (2000) provide leaders with evidence-based practices that positively impact the achievement of Hispanic learners.   Recommendations include providing parental access to social services and community resources, ensuring Latino presence among professional staff, providing leadership opportunities for Hispanic learners, ensuring a balanced integration of Latino cultural awareness in the curriculum, and the development of strong Hispanic student support networks. In a similar study, Madrid (2011) found several variables related to student achievement among Hispanic learners.

In accordance with the study, related variables included

- curriculum rigor;
- role of the teacher;
- class size;
- resources;
- parent participation; and

- environmental issues such as poverty, nutrition, and school safety (Madrid, 2011, p. 8).

Madrid further found that high expectations, meaningful relationships, and time on task were important factors related to student achievement among Hispanic students, especially low performing students. The practice of fostering social interactions and emotional development was recommended for children from minority language backgrounds (NCELA, 2011). Such social interactions provided students with opportunities to develop language skills and strengthen self-image development. A study by Quiocho and Daoud (2006) revealed that while Hispanic parents held high expectations regarding their children's academic achievement, many felt excluded from the school community. In an effort to increase the involvement of Hispanic parents in the school community, Huerta and Mari (2011) conducted a study that invited urban Hispanic parents and students to foster literacy through a culturally relevant folk medicine event. The researchers found that the parents, many of whom were recent immigrants who only spoke Spanish, gained an enhanced understanding of the connections between school literacy and home life. Both the students and the parents were found to benefit from the culturally relevant modes of literacy. Such genuine respect for the cultural values embodied in school community partnership activities served as a bridge between home and school, and ultimately helped students in the process. Villalba, Brunelli, Lewis, & Wachter (2007) found community involvement to be beneficial to Hispanic students in burgeoning Latino communities. Such partnerships foster both shared ownership and shared responsibility for the success of the students of the community.

Hispanic students' school readiness was found to be more important than chronological age on second grade achievement testing (Furlong & Quirk, 2011). The study examined low-income students of Hispanic descent as they moved from kindergarten through second grade. Students who had higher levels of school readiness continued to perform at higher levels of student achievement through the second grade, regardless of their age or pre-school setting. School readiness was more important than age or pre-school experience. The type of

English language development program was also important to young Hispanic English as a second language (ESL) students. A study conducted by Lopez (2010) found Hispanic students enrolled in bilingual education classes to have higher scholastic competence than those enrolled in structured English immersion classes. Another study that focused on two-way immersion bilingual education in Catholic schools found that Spanish speaking students who developed advanced reading, writing, and speaking skills in Spanish attained higher scores in English than Spanish speaking students who focused exclusively on English skills development (Scanian & Zehrbach, 2010). The study further found that when students viewed their native language skills as an asset, the students realized academic benefits. High levels of bilingualism were found to be associated with enhanced cognitive abilities.

Shiu, Kettler, and Johnsen (2009) found that at-risk, native Spanish speaking Hispanic middle school students enrolled in an AP Spanish course enjoyed benefits from the experience. The researchers found the at-risk students, "made friends with peers who cared more about grades, enjoyed reading in English, and were more optimistic about their future family, future job, and their service to the community" (p. 59). The findings of the study suggested that Spanish-speaking skills were viewed by students as a strength rather than a liability. The study subjects viewed their Spanish-speaking skills as a tool to help them achieve academic success. Cavazos, Cavazos, Hinojosa, & Silva (2009) found that school counselors could use positive aspects of the Hispanic culture, such as religion and family, to help students form more positive identities. Lys (2009) found that comprehensive transition plans from middle school to high school, the encouragement to participate in extracurricular activities, the use of coaching and mentoring programs, and the strengthening of home-school relations to decrease the number of high school dropouts among the Hispanic student population. Lys also cited the importance of providing meaningful professional development focused on culturally relevant instruction to the instructional staff.

Neseth, Savage, and Navarro (2009) found social support to be important among Hispanic learners. The study examined the impact of acculturation and perceived social support on the

mathematics achievement of Hispanic high school students. The researchers found positive correlations between teacher and peer support and student achievement in the area of mathematics. Teacher support was found to be the more highly correlated to student achievement than peer support. Teacher student relationships, whether positive or negative, were found to influence Latina/o student experiences (Cammarota, 2006). Malagon (2010) found that educators teaching Hispanic students needed to understand the culturally relevant literacy of the students they taught. Cultural relevance helped to deconstruct the racial discourses that could occur in the classroom setting. Davilla (2010) found that the lack of culturally relevant curriculum effected the identity formation of a sample of Puerto Rican high school students. Cammarota and Romero (2006) found that educators needed to become personal with Hipanic students in order to build relational trust. Some students wanted to trust the educator before they would open up and communicate with the instructor at a meaningful level. Archuleta, Castillo, & King (2006) found an online university counseling program to be an effect means of support for Latina high school students in rural settings. In order to reach a higher percentage of Hispanic students, educators must "celebrate, endorse, respect, and internalize that which is specific to Latino populations" (Stein, 2005, p. 85).

By the year 2025, "22 percent of the college-age population will be Hispanic" (Santiago & Brown, p. 2). Borrero (2011) found that that first generation Hispanic college-bound students found great pride in both themselves and their respective families. The students attributed credit to their respective families for supporting them and helping them get accepted into college. These successful students placed a high value on their families. According to Perez-Huber (2010), highly successful undocumented Chicana undergraduate college students strongly benefited from the various forms of capital they received from their parents, extended families, and their communities. Alders and Levine-Madori (2010) found art therapy to improve results on cognitive evaluation tests among older adult Hispanics. Mental stimulation was found to be beneficial to the subjects of the study. "Changes in modern families have increased the urgency for educators to learn to look beyond the walls of the

classroom, engaging parents and communities as partners in designing, implementing, and evaluating educational policies and curricula" (de la Piedra, Munter, & Giron, 2006, p. 58).

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Practical Strategies for Teaching Social Studies to Students with Disabilities in Inclusive Classrooms

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Abstract

With the rise of inclusive practices, more students with disabilities are accessing the general education curriculum than ever before. When students with disabilities are "included" in general education settings, they most often access social studies content than any other discipline field. This article illuminates the emerging imperative between social studies and special education. In doing so, it provides general educators with three practical strategies that are effective in addressing the learning needs of students with disabilities within a social studies context.

Introduction

In 2010, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) released their updated National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies. Relevant to the organizations philosophical underpinnings.

> The civic mission of social studies demands the inclusion of all students—addressing cultural, linguistic, and learning diversity that includes similarities and differences based on race, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation, exceptional learning needs, and other educationally and personally significant characteristics of learners (National Council for the Social Studies, 2010, p. 9).

This statement reflected that inclusion—providing all students with access to the general education in a conducive educational setting—is a cornerstone to social studies policy and practice.

Recent legislation, such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004, required school districts to include students with disabilities into statewide standardized assessments. These acts also mandated that districts include students with disabilities into general education settings (Palloway, Patton, & Serna, 2008). As a result, approximately 54% of students with disabilities across the country spend over 80% of their school week in general education settings (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Given the growing number of students with disabilities spending the majority of their time in general education classrooms, there is a corresponding need to provide such students with appropriate services and supports.

With an increasing number of students with disabilities receiving education in general education settings, school systems are moving towards more inclusive practices. Schweder (2011) noted that over 90% of students with disabilities are educated in social studies classrooms, not in self-contained settings. Because so many students with disabilities are included in the regular classroom—particularly during social studies instruction—it is imperative that general education teachers modify (or adopt) instructional practices that meet the learning needs of all students (see Lintner & Schweder, 2011).

Practical Strategies to Teach Social Studies to Students with Disabilities

When teaching any group of students, rarely does one strategy or instructional tool fit all. To teach powerful and relevant social studies, classroom teachers know that appropriate, effective strategies need to be used. Though there are scores of creative, engaging, and meaningful ways to teach social studies, the literature consistently supports, amongst others, three main strategies or tools that can be used when teaching social studies to students with disabilities: big ideas, graphic organizers, and universal design for learning.

Big Ideas

Big ideas are questions or generalizations that serve to anchor the content, making the "smaller bits of information" easier to understand (Duplass, 2008; Mastropieri & Scruggs,

2010; McLeskey, Rosenberg, & Westline, 2010). Big ideas allow students to organize the content whereby meaningful connections are made between their lives and the content being presented (Brophy, Alleman, & Knighton, 2009; Crawford et al., 2007). Ultimately, a big idea allows all students an opportunity to understand social studies in the most efficient, appropriate, and accessible way (Carnine & Kame'enui, 1998).

Conceptualizing Big Ideas.
Grant and Vansledright (2006) offer teachers two suggestions when conceptualizing a big idea. First, begin with a question or an issue of interest. This questioning affords an inventory of prior knowledge about social studies (what is known), as well as a reflection of what may be explored (what to learn more about). Secondly, as teachers begin to generate possible big ideas, they should ask:

- What do I want my students to know or to experience?
- Why will students care about or be interested in this idea?
- What do I want my students to "do" to understand/internalize the big idea?
- What resources will I need?
- How will I know if my students understand what I want them to understand? (Grant & Vansledright, 2006, p. 14).

    Brophy, Alleman, and Knighton (2009) offer a three-step process to big idea construction. A big idea can be a sweeping idea, theme, or question used throughout the social studies curriculum, throughout the year. An example may be, "Some people have it, and some don't. How do the powerful get—and use—their power?" This inclusive big idea anchors a recurring theme (e.g. power) throughout the course of the year. Big ideas can also be used at the unit-level. Here, a series of lessons is tied to a single idea. For example, a unit on women's suffrage can be anchored to the big idea, *"It's Our Turn, Now!"* Each lesson in the unit is tied back to the big idea. At the end of the unit, students will have generated multiple understandings of precisely *how* and *why* women's suffrage was initially opposed and subsequently won. Lastly, a big idea can literally be tied to a

single lesson plan. A different big idea can be used every day. Regardless of design, anchoring social studies instruction to big ideas develops connections and applications that enhance the learning opportunities of all students.

Constructing Big Ideas: Inside-Out Model

When constructing a big idea using the inside-out model, the big idea serves as the conceptual anchor; all other information stems from it. Thus, the big idea "starts in the middle" and moves outward, generating supporting facts and additional information complimentary to the core big idea. Ultimately, the big idea will be surrounded by "smaller bits of information" that serve to contextualize it. An example could be, *"The Rise of Railroads."* Contextualizing facts and/or insights could be "political corruption," "suburbanization," "impact on Native Americans." Remember, that when using the Inside-Out Model, the big idea anchors the content. See Figure 1 for an example of the Inside-Out Model.

Figure 1:
*Inside-Out Model: The Rise of the Railroads*
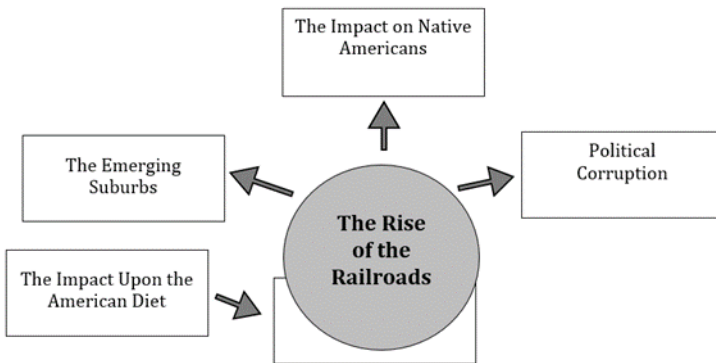
Outside-In Model

This model of big idea construction is simply the converse of the Inside-Out Model. Here, complimentary or contextualizing information is generated first that, when pieced together, begins to form the big idea. The teacher can ask, "What do you want to

know about civil rights?" Students will then provide small, individualized bits of information, forming the "spokes" that ultimately lead to the hub (the big idea). When sufficient information is generated and gathered, the big idea of *"Knowing My Rights"* is presented and explored. See Figure 2 for an example of the Outside-In Model.

Figure 2:
Outside-In Model: Knowing My Rights
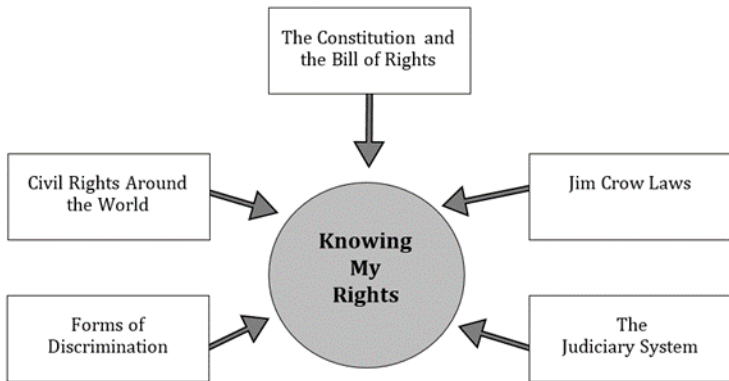
Graphic Organizers

The primary goal of using graphic organizers in social studies classrooms is to present the material both visually and spatially (Duplass, 2008; Gallavan & Kottler, 2007; Klemp, McBride, & Ogle, 2007; Stockard, 2001; Wilson, 2002). Graphic organizers help students focus attention on, organize, and recall important social studies information. As many social studies concepts can be confusing, disconnected, and abstract, using graphic organizers helps to visually structure the content making it easier to understand for all learners (McLeskey, Rosenberg, & Westling, 2010).

There are a slew of graphic organizers educators can use to enhance the learning opportunities of students with disabilities. Venn diagrams, T-charts, and K-W-L charts are just a few (for additional examples, see Longhi, 2006). Foldables (see Zike, 2002) and interactive notebooks have become quite popular.

The ubiquitous "top down" flowchart is a simple yet effective way to organize social studies content with the dominant theme presented and supporting information flowing below it (e.g. the way the Three Branches of Government is often displayed). Regardless of structure, graphic organizers provide all students simple, visually-rich, creative ways to access the social studies content. Figure 3 illustrates how to organize and present content regarding one of the five Themes of Geography, Human Environment Interaction.

Figure 3:
Graphic Organizer: Human Environment Interaction
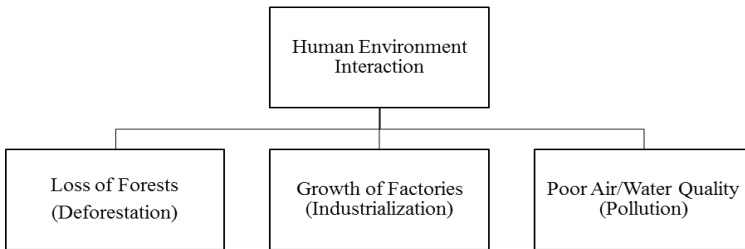
Universal Design for Instruction

The core tenet of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is accessibility. Originating from the field of architecture, one way UDL became manifest was through the use of curb cuts. Curb cuts were first designed to provide access to individuals in wheelchairs. Yet curb cuts inevitably provided access to persons pushing baby strollers, students pulling backpacks, and people who walk with a cane or crutches (Lewis & Doorlag, 2011; Salend, 2011; Thousand, Villa, & Nevin, 2007). This notion of universal accessibility was incorporated into school-based curricula. "The central premise of UDL is that a curriculum should include alternatives to make it accessible and appropriate for individuals with different backgrounds, learning styles, abilities, and disabilities" (Center for Applied Technology, 2003). When applied in educational settings, UDL assists all learners in

accessing the general education curriculum and, ultimately, succeeding in inclusive classrooms (Hitchcock, 2001; Meo, 2008; Pawling, 2011; Salend, 2011).

There are three conceptual cornerstones to UDL. First, teachers need to use multiple means of representation. Simply, teachers need to provide multiple options in how the content is presented (Bouck, Courtad, Heutsche, Okolo, & Englert, 2009). Secondly, allow student multiple means of expression. Lastly, UDL provides students with multiple means of engagement. Premised on UDL design, Figure 4 provides particular strategies general educators can use when presenting social studies content to students with disabilities.

Figure 4:
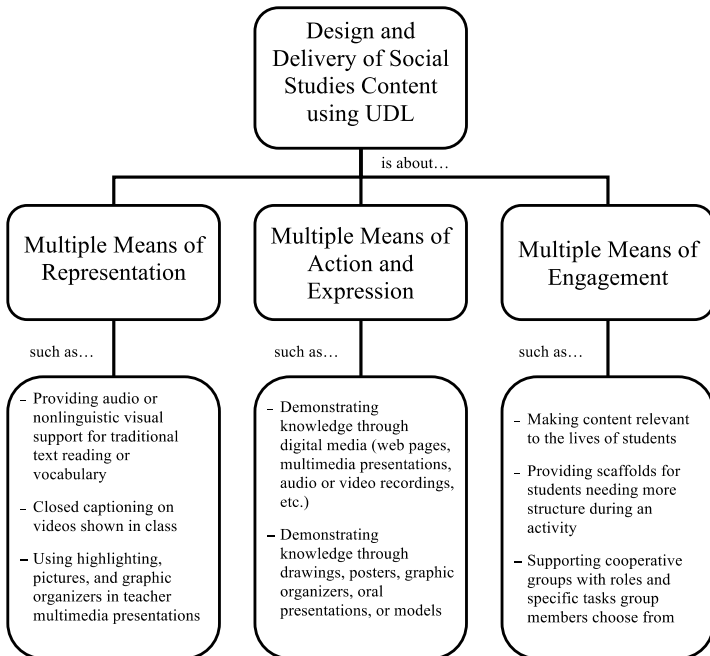Cornerstones of Universal Design for Learning (UDL)

Figure 1: Application of UDL Principles
Adapted from CAST (2008). *UDL Guidelines - Version 1.0: Examples and Resources.* Retrieved from http://www.udlcenter.org/implementation/examples

A web-based program that incorporates UDL with social studies is the Virtual History Museum (VHM). Located at http://vhm.edu/site/default.php:

[VHM] provides supports and scaffolds to students with disabilities in an effort to increase their participation and achievement in social studies, especially United States and world history. VHM assists students in understanding social studies content through methods of analysis and interpretation of evidence and artifacts, exploring multiple perspectives, and enabling students to publish their own interpretations of events in social studies (Bouck et al., 2009, p. 15).

When using VHM, the teacher effectively becomes the museum's curator. The teacher culls exhibits for students to examine, interpret, and analyze. The teacher can then design instruction and assessment to match the learning needs of all students. Ultimately, VHM helps teachers create a more responsive, flexible, and accessible curriculum that engages students across a spectrum of learning styles and abilities (Bouck, et al., 2009).

Conclusion

With inclusive classrooms now an integral part of the educational landscape, finding ways to reach and teach all students may never be more pressing. To create powerful social studies opportunities for all students, teachers need to be creative in their instructional design, engaging and innovative in their instructional delivery, and reflective of their educational practices and perceptions. Through the purposeful selection of materials, the careful incorporation of instructional strategies and tools, and the overarching belief that engaging, participatory social studies is justly accessible to all students, teachers can incrementally build the pedagogical and practical bridge between social studies and special education. Working towards this goal can truly change the way social studies is perceived and practiced.

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What Just Happened? A Social Studies Teacher's Guide to the Arab Spring

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Abstract

Historians will likely view the end of 2010, and the whole of 2011, as the period when the Arab people's patience snapped (Butt, 2011). In countries spanning the whole of North Africa, poor farmers, college students, and common everyday people stood up in multiple acts of civil disobedience and protested their country's oppressive regimes. While in some cases disobedience actually led to revolution, the effects of the Arab Spring are being felt across the world. The purpose of this article is to discuss a brief history of the Arab Spring Movement, connect it to Social Studies instruction and provide resources for high school teachers teaching this movement.

The Birth of the Arab Spring

So often, important revolutions have human faces. Mohamed Bouazizi**,** a twenty-six year old male living in one of the poorest areas of Tunisia, dreamed of one day owning a van. He decided to take one of the only jobs he could find, that of a street vendor. Securing a loan which was equivalent to approximately 200 American dollars, he bought a cart, supply of fruit and, most importantly, a set of electronic scales. On December 17, 2010, Sidi Bouzid, a female government inspector, approached Mohamed and proceeded to berate him by claiming he did not have the necessary permits to operate his cart. Eyewitnesses claim she slapped Mohamed on the face while her assistants severely beat him. Following the beating, Mohamed watched helplessly as his electronic scales and cart were confiscated. Mohamed was deeply shamed by the combination of the slap and public ridicule imposed upon him by the inspector. Embarrassed and without any means to support

himself, Mohamed went to the local municipal building and demanded the return of his scale. He refused to leave without his property and as a result of his refusal he was once again severely beaten and was physically forced to leave. He then went to the local governor's office and demanded an audience. His demand was refused. Shortly before noon that same day, Mohamed returned to the governor's office and proceeded to pour a container of paint thinner onto himself and his clothes and then set himself on fire as a form of protest known as self-immolating. He survived for an agonizing two hours with burns covering more than ninety percent of his body before dying at a local hospital as a result of his injuries. What transpired in the weeks and months following, Mohamed Bouazizi's tragic death would later become known by the entire world as the Arab Spring (Kareem, 2011).

Tunisians did not need to look very hard to find reasons to protest. Their government was widely corrupt, food prices had been soaring for months, and unemployment was staggering (Washington, Post). While President Ben Ali traditionally stressed the educational opportunities available for his citizens, by 2010, the unemployment rate for college graduates in Tunisia had doubled from 40,000 to 80,000 (Spencer, 2011). The protests sparked by Mohamed Bouazizi's self-immolation led to an escalation of violence across the entire country. In acts mirroring those of Mohamed Bouazizi, students tragically self-immolated as a form of protest to a Tunisian government full of corruption and greed. In an act which received condemnation from the international community, during the first week of January 2011, Tunisia's government decided to block access for their citizens to popular social media sites such as Twitter and Facebook (Beaumont, 2011). Finally, on January 14, 2011, the government of Tunisia was overthrown and President Ben Ali sought exile in Saudi Arabia.

Spread of the movement

Like a wildfire fueled by a strong wind, the Tunisian protests engulfed North Africa and nineteen countries. The most significant revolution took place inside Libya, home of one of history's cruelest dictators, Gadhafi, on January 25, 2011. With the assistance of NATO, the protests quickly turned into a

revolution. Finally, on October 23, 2011, the revolution in Libya ended and Gadhafi was publically and violently executed at the hands of his own countrymen.

The importance of the Arab Spring is currently being debated by the historians and will be for years to come. What we now know, however, is that as a result of Arab Spring, major concessions and liberties have been awarded to the people of North Africa. The following chart demonstrates some of the new uprisings

Importance of Teaching the Arab Spring

The act of peaceful assembly and protest is a fundamental right protected by the U.S. Constitution. However, the right to criticize protestors is also a freedom protected by the very same document. As educators, we must stress to our students the rights and privileges of citizenship. Social Studies teachers should stress the power of ordinary citizens to stand up against the majority. After all, sometimes the majority makes mistakes. It is the right and responsibility of every citizen to intervene and work toward correcting wrongs made when the government fails (Clark, Vontz & Barikmo, 2008).   Alon Ben-Meir of NYU's Center for Global Affairs summed up the importance of the Arab Spring with the following statements:

When university graduate turned street vendor Mohamed Bouazizi set himself on fire in front of a government building in Sid Bouzid, Tunisia he unleashed a torrent of long-repressed political expression in the Middle East. Through his brave self-immolation, he sent a clear message to his generation: die with dignity rather than continue to live and suffer the daily indignities that amount to an unfulfilled life. It is that message that empowered Egyptians, Yemenis, Libyans, Syrians and others to protest and die in the hope that their sacrifices would bring an end to their daily injustices (2011).

With this in mind, a social studies teacher can use the Arab Spring combined with the current Occupy Wall Street Movement to stress the importance and power of civil disobedience. While one person alone can only do so much, a multitude of people speaking with a common voice can accomplish major changes. The following chart demonstrates famous acts of civil disobedience combined in average high school social studies

textbooks. The chart further explains how each event started and the ultimate outcome.

Act of Civil Disobedience	Cause	Result
Boston Tea Party	Great Britain passed the 1773 Tea Act which angered many Colonists	Tea Act was ultimately repealed. The Tea Party became a major symbol of American Protest
Gandhi's Salt March	Gandhi used the British government's monopoly on Salt to stage his first major act of civil disobedience	Newsreels demonstrated to the world the struggles of the Indians. Through multiple more acts, independence was finally obtained
Montgomery Bus Boycott	Rosa Parks was arrested for refusing to move to the back of a public bus	After a 381 day boycott and a supreme court decision, the buses were integrated
1969 Democratic National Convention	Antiwar protestors arrived in Chicago to protest the democratic party	Violence and clashes with Police ultimately hurt the image of the democratic party and shed more light on the unpopular Vietnam War

Suggested Teaching Strategies

Teachers should shy away from assigning oral history assignments without possessing a proper foundation of instruction. A strong foundation of instruction and modeling will assist the students in understanding the importance of the stories they are about to collect. When addressing oral histories, the instructor should originally assign readings that will promote

the students' understanding of the importance of oral histories (Porter, 2000). Another critical technique comes when discussing historical events in the curriculum. For example, when the instructor is teaching about George Washington, he should ask the students what questions they would ask the late president if they could have the chance to personally interview him. This method of questioning about interviewing allows the students to put themselves in the perspective of an interviewer which is the basic premises of oral history (Porter, 2000). While instruction concerning oral pedagogy is important, teachers should not down-play discovery learning.   It is best for the students to operate in a discovery method. By using intuition they are allowed to operate more freely (Steinberg, 1993).

Selected Arab Spring Resources

 Even though the Arab Spring is relatively recent, three books have emerged which can assist a social studies teacher in a better understanding of both the events as well as the role of a dictator. They are as follows:

Wright, R. (2011). *Rock the casbah: Rage and rebellion across the Islamic world*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

 The author uses her wealth of knowledge concerning the area to walk a fine line between religion and politics. She successfully details the rapid events which transpired and saw regimes such as Tunisia fall is less than 30 days. A discussion of the counter jihad is presented and adds to a great discussion for teachers in their classroom.

Campbell, D., & Wassink, D. (2011). *Egypt unshackled: Using social media to @#:) the system*. London, England: Cambria Books.

 The authors explore the effect social media had on the uprisings with specific detail on Egypt. An introduction to what is defined as citizen journalism is presented and the authors demonstrate how traditional media adapted to embrace Twitter into their news stories. A great book to demonstrate to a social studies classroom how social media could encourage civil disobedience.

Mequita, B. (2011). *The dictator's handbook: Why bad behavior is almost always good politics*. Jackson, TN: Public Affairs.

    A very strong factual supported writing discussing how dictators maintain their power. With examples from the Arab Spring affected area, the author concludes many people will do whatever it takes to maintain their control. A great area for discussion is the author's controversial thesis that all national aid given to other countries is given with the goal to gain loyalty. Used in the social studies classroom, excerpts from the thesis can be used to further discussion on how Middle Eastern dictators attempted to control their countries. Also, the Tunisia's dictator inability to control unemployment ultimately led to unrest.

Sample Lesson
LEARNING OBJECTIVES
1. Students infer what life was like during the revolution in Egypt through the reading of *Rock the Casbah.*
2. Students describe the occupy Wall Street movement in New York during the September 2011.

National Curriculum Standards
Culture and Cultural Diversity: Students will look at different groups of people develop social norms. Students will see how this development of society and culture can cause disagreements that lead to civil war. Students will also see how different groups of people can use economic conditions to rally as a political cause.

Individual Development and Identity
Students will look at individuals who led the movements. These people include working class, soldiers, police officers, writers, and many others. Students will see how these people affected history and why they may be remembered throughout history.

PROCEDURES
1. Review and discuss about what we have learned about Egypt's history so far. Begin discussing modern Egypt
2. Questions may include: Does a dictatorship work? What are some concerns of being a dictator could be?
3. Discuss the roots of the Arab Spring revolution

4. Talk about how the revolution began to spread.
5. Bring up how even though the revolution started many people in the established government were hesitant because they wanted to keep their jobs
6. Introduce the book *Rock the Casbah*. Show cover of the book and allow students to predict what the story may be about. Read excerpts from the book. Teacher's discretion on excerpts.
7. After reading, have student's discuss in their table groups what observations they came up with from the story.
8. Bring class back into whole group, have each table group share what they talked about.
9. Ask the students how the excerpts helped their understanding of the Arab Spring
10. Have the students complete the short answer question "Explain how the Occupy Wall Street Movement was spurred by the Arab Spring."

Conclusion

The act of civil disobedience is throughout social studies textbooks and with the recent Occupy Wall Street movement is on American's nightly news. The Arab Spring which has a strong connection to the birth of the Occupy movement is a prime example of civil disobedience which evolved in some cases to a full revolution. While the goal of civil disobedience is not to overthrow a government, the fact the Arab Spring did turn violent is interesting and should be discussed within a classroom setting. Social studies teachers can connect the Arab Spring movement with the other examples of civil disobedience and thus stimulate the minds of the students. Only through a better understanding of civil disobedience can a social studies teacher encourage higher levels of learning.

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Online Graduate English Education Students' Perceptions of Writing

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Abstract

This article explores online graduate English education students' attitudes or perceptions of writing. The goal of this research is to determine if there is an overall theme related to these students' past experiences in writing and do these experiences have an impact on their attitudes towards writing in a classroom setting. Overall, students expressed a general view of having minimal prior instruction in writing pedagogy. Four distinct themes emerged involving students' past experiences with only creative writing and literature responses, outside influences on writing, frustration with writing, and a paucity of argumentative writing experiences in their academic courses.

Introduction

Among the many questions raised by Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (1963) in their research on written composition, the most important remains the foci of studies in the 21st century: "What is involved in the act of writing?" This question suggests that as Hillocks (2002) contends: "the truth is somewhere waiting to be discovered, that it exists independently of the investigator" (p. 221). College students preparing to teach English composition at the secondary level rarely examine this question or how it pertains to their own writing habits. They find themselves learning about types of composition writing (modes) rather than the learning processes (metacognition) or pedagogies involved in the performance of the task. Students want to know "why" they cannot provide a meaningful discussion about literature or controversial topic when they are in the midst of the writing process. Many claim having a scarcity of opportunities to examine their own strengths and weaknesses as

critical thinkers in the writing process. Students indicate frustration and apprehension with the writing process, particularly with complex genres of writing. Discontentment with their own writing processes, students ineffectively view writing as a process "of" and "for" thinking, resulting in a metacognitive writing gap. The term metacognitive writing gap stems from Flavell's (1979) concept on thinking (metacognition). Flavell states that the student is unable "to understand, control, or manipulate his or her own cognitive processes to maximize learning: in another words, knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena" (p. 906). Students become exposed to this metacognitive writing gap as they begin to examine and analyze their own writing processes. This discovery leads to reflection and critically thinking about one's own writing, a form of metacognition. Self-regulation and evaluation of one's writing process, metacognition, is meant to improve student's quality of writing. The self-regulative process must be strategic and purposeful. Without appropriate strategies to model and monitor students' thinking during the writing process, improvement will decline (Hayes and Flower, 1980).

Achieve, Inc. (2005) analyzed the results of a study conducted on college students' preparedness for college-level writing. The report indicated that college instructors estimated that half of high school students are not college ready (Graham, Harris, and Hebert, 2011). Later, Graham and Perin's (2007) meta-analysis identified a current and ongoing problem on the state of writing instruction in U.S. schools. They found that students in America's classrooms receive less than favorable writing instruction. The report suggested a need for reform in writing pedagogy and teacher training. Another strong contribution comes in the work of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP; Salahu-Din, Persky, and Miller, 2008) indicating that only 33 percent of eighth-grade students and 24 percent of twelfth grade students performed at or above the proficient level in writing.

Arguing the same national concern on writing, the Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI) formed in 2009 by U.S. governors and state commissioners of education from across the country teamed with educators, state board of education (K-12 and higher education), researchers and community and national

organizations released the first drafts of Common Core State Standards for Mathematics (CCSSM) and English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects (CCSSE/L; Kendall, 2011). The CCSSE/L requires that teachers begin to transition secondary students to a more rigorous curriculum in writing – narrative, expository/explanatory, and argumentative. The familiar sequence of writing in American schools is generally constrained to the personal narrative, expository and persuasive genres or types of texts. The persuasive writing pieces focus on convincing a reader to do something or believe the writer's opinion or point of view about a topic. Students are asked to take a position for or against something. This is especially true of both middle and secondary language arts classes in which students are not required to provide evidence such as warrants to support their claim or thesis within their essays. In such, students have little practice in "articulating (sic) the significance of claims as well as to provide the evidence to support them" (Ryder, Lei, Roen, 1999). With these new CCSS writing standards, student writers must attain, "the ability to write logical arguments based on substantive claims, sound reasoning, and relevant evidence" (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010, p. 2), placing the emphasis on critical thinking skills and the usage of the rhetorical argument across content areas.

Necessitating the need for adjustments to writing in schools, Hillocks (2010; 2011) observed that most secondary textbooks and state rubrics rarely emphasize critical thinking as a logical appeal or useful tool of inquiry in writing (argumentative), but rather focused on persuasive writing, to convince (Kinneavy, 1993), lacking the use of evidence, an appropriate warrant, and explanation which is needed for critical thinking in the real world. Purves' (1988) research in rhetoric and composition aligns itself in the same familiar tone indicating that schools are deficient in providing students with text forms that are utilized in adult rhetorical communities. Cooper (1999) contends that it is essential for students to know other types of argumentation genres. The writer elaborates, "We need to be prepared to teach not one general process but several genre-specific processes" (p. 36).

Effort is presently being made to address the need to place students in "educational environments in which they can learn to make appropriate choices for specific rhetorical situations" (Purves, 1988, p. 154). One of the goals of the Common Core State Standards Initiative in writing is the success of K - 12 students to be college and career ready upon completion of high school. Writing standards are incorporated in all content areas; whereby, writing instruction is not solely the responsibility of the English teacher, but rather extends across disciplines. Since "…the Standards do not mandate…a particular writing process or the full range of metacognitive strategies that students may need," they are unable to provide information on, "how teachers should teach" (NGACBP & CCSSO, 2010). Without teacher knowledge and practice of effective pedagogical approaches to writing, the quality of the product produced by K -12 students will continue to meet only "basic achievement levels" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011), persuasive writing that lacks critical thinking skills (logic), research, and argument. Hillocks (1986), who researched what is now called the structured process writing instruction method, found greater gains for student writers in a structured process approach as compared to any other writing technique. One type of structured approach, the Toulmin's Argument Pattern (TAP), may be an answer to this problem.

Aristotle (1975) established three types of appeals to persuade an audience: logos (reason), ethos (character), and pathos (emotions). Generally, an argument consists of all three; however, the most common appeal is logos (reason) or logic. In the appeal to logos the writer builds his or her argument on evidence, primarily argument in syllogisms: a major premise, minor premise, and a conclusion. Toulmin (1958) composed a model based upon Aristotle's theory of logos in argumentation; however, he believed that debate and argument does not only lie within the confines of politics, but in everyday life of written and oral forms of discourse.

Toulmin's pattern imparts three major parts of argumentation: the claim, warrant, and data or evidence to support the claim, warrant, and/or rebuttals that refute the claim. The writer makes a claim or assertion about what exists from observing an experiment, information gathered from various

digital medias, or examining evidence from data sources such as surveys or graphs. Hillocks (2011) states, "good argument begins with looking at the data that is likely to become the evidence in an argument (p. xxi). Students may produce an assertion based upon values held by a person or group of people derived from a critical analysis of literature, informational texts, prose, or a combination of the three. Information to support such assertions may be garnered from print documents such as texts, articles and digital mediums that contain data from research banks. Other sources may include wikis, blogs, videos and live classroom experiments conducted through podcasts. Students are required to synthesize information from these various sources to form a hypothesis, a plausible thesis statement; rather, than providing a floating illogical opinion that is insufficient in merit or critical thought process.

Hillocks (2011) strongly suggests, students not only gather information, they must "interpret the data" to provide credible support for their assumption or claim, a scientific approach to thinking and writing. The goal is not for students to simply follow a generic template of the Toulmin model, but to become "increasingly critical and discerning" (Zwiers and Crawford, 2011, p. 60) as they apply the model to different contexts and situations. Students begin to negotiate meaning, question sources, and argue the value or lack of value of the information gathered. The Toulmin model assists students in reflecting and thinking upon their own argumentation style and challenges them to wrestle with their own preconceptions of ideas and observations.

The Toulmin model provides students with an inquiry approach to learning. Students use critical thinking skills throughout the entire learning process (beginning, middle and end). The critical thinking process involves accepting or refuting the gathered research data from multiple sources and/or observable phenomena. Argument is, as Billing (1987) establishes, an essential cognitive process that is linked to reasoning and thinking. Students engaging in higher order thinking skills learn how to compare ideas, formulate responses, make conclusion based upon viable evidence, and synthesize ideas (Zwiers and Crawford, 2011).

While there are now a number of commentaries, analyses, studies and informative websites about the need to prepare teachers to teach challenging genres such as argumentation, there is very little information about teacher exploration and perceptions of their own history of writing and the use of advanced compositions such as argumentation in their courses. Because many English education courses emphasize the traditional style and art of teaching writing to teachers of English, teachers graduate from teacher education programs and enter secondary English classrooms struggling to teach writing in advanced rhetorical forms. Therefore, the researchers in this study asked several important questions: (1) Is there an overall theme related to graduate students' past experiences in writing; and (2) Do these experiences have an impact upon their attitudes towards writing, particularly with argumentation? The purpose of this article is to address these questions.

Design of the Study

Secondary English education students involved in this study were graduate level students completing a methods course in language, literacy and composition. In order for the students to give a true depiction of their views on their own self- reflective practices of writing, the responses were given in only written form as a personal document, "any first-person narrative that describes an individual's actions, experiences, and beliefs" (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007, p. 133). Personal documents reflect participants' perspective (Merriam, 2009). To provide students' honest reflections upon their own writing history, the study examined the thoughts and feelings of one select group of secondary graduate English education students based upon a narrative driven questionnaire.

The participants in this study were selected with the idea of purposeful sampling. In this particular research a criterion-based selection was utilized to gain insight about a group or culture. According to LeCompte and Preissle (1993), criterion-based selection provides the researcher with an established list of attributes essential to his or her study. For the present study, the researchers decided that to ensure that the students were teachers of composition, they would have to be in a graduate secondary English methods course; and, students had to have a

graduate level status, which meant that they were enrolled in a graduate degree program with an emphasis in secondary English education. The researchers reasoned that the targeted population had to have more than 18 hours in undergraduate English courses to ensure that participants were enlisted in courses beyond first and second year freshman composition. This study contained twenty graduate level students in an online English methods course for secondary educators. The focus of this study centered on graduate students' perceptions of their own writing experiences in the formative years (K -12). The study was conducted at an urban university in the southeast corridor of the United States. The university serves a little over twenty thousand students per year with a majority enrollment of mostly Black/Non-Hispanic (appx. 7000) and White/Non-Hispanic (appx. 11,000) students.

The researcher conducted an inductive qualitative study in which documents were prepared at the investigator's request ensuring congruency and relevance between research problem and content, a researcher-generated document. As Merriam (2009) asserts "The task is to compare one unit of information with the next in looking for recurring regularities in the data" (p. 177). The six questions developed to stimulate response from the participants for this study were based upon Patton's (1990) six types of basic questions. Patton suggests using experience and behavior questions, opinion and values questions, feeling questions, knowledge questions, sensory questions, and background/demographic questions. The questions asked in this study were:

1. What are your first recollections of writing?
2. Give examples of writing and the challenges you may have faced with writing in high school.
3. Describe any types of challenges you faced with required writing in your undergraduate courses.
4. In your own writing process, describe the stage in which you spend the most amount of time.
5. Explain whether past instruction or experience, if any, in composition influenced the questions you ask yourself while revising an assignment.
6. Describe your approach and any difficulties with the argumentative paper writing assigned in class.

These documents were collected and participants' personal information was removed for anonymity. Students were assigned as Student A, B, C, and so on with no identifying information. Data was grouped and coded. Categories were constructed.

Methods and Sample Selection

The participants in this study consisted of twenty secondary educators enrolled in an online graduate course specifically for English teachers. A qualitative survey (open-ended questionnaire) was administered to participants. The questionnaire response was in first-person narrative, a personal document that met the requirements for the course. According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), personal documents "refer to any first-person narrative that describes an individual's actions, experiences, and beliefs" (p. 133), thus ensuring that participants were given the opportunity to respond to the questionnaire in a non-threatening way without any fear of prejudices or assumptions from the course professor. The open-ended questionnaire administered to each student included seven question prompts ranging from students' past experiences in writing to their process of writing.

Participant responses will corroborate the researchers' beliefs regarding foundation or a premise to the importance of teaching writing pedagogy (particularly argumentation) to graduate education students enrolled in an English education program since it is required for the CCSSE/L. The significance of this research is to evaluate students' attitudes and perceptions of writing and their encounters, if any, with the argumentative paper and to form a premise to incorporate the use of argumentative writing, a requirement of the new Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI), in all content areas of teacher education programs.

Research Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore graduate English education students' perceptions or attitudes towards writing and the impact of these experiences on teaching argumentative compositions to their secondary students. Utilizing the research questions and student written responses, four dominant themes emerged. There was a general consensus that many of the

graduate students enrolled in the course had no prior experience or background in writing pedagogy with an end result of frustration. One graduate student responded, for example, "Many times I was just given a paper back with notes and that is it. There has been no formal instruction on how to revise a paper or the best way to revise a paper. At times it feels that when a professor gives back a paper, he or she is saying, 'Here is what is wrong, do the best you can.' The lack of communication during this process can be confusing and frustrating." (Student C) Another graduate student wrote, "In my writings, I have experienced many problems. I have trouble writing an introduction, getting a first sentence, finding a thesis, and organizing the paper. I struggle with the introduction because it is hard for me to tell all the paper is about without summarizing the paper. It is hard for me to pinpoint one specific sentence to start with, and it is even harder to find my thesis statement. Organization of my sentences in the paragraphs is getting better, but sometimes I get lost in what I want to say." (Student F)

Students purported that the primary types of critical writing encountered on a regular basis in their K- 12 English classrooms were essays, journals and short stories. A respondent noted in this regard, "During my middle school years, I vividly remember my first experience of writing in my journal for my English class. Writing at this point in my life mainly consisted of a book summary or report, lacking any depth or reflection of my own self." (Student A) Here, this student explains that English classrooms do not require highly cognitive writing assignments geared towards fostering high critical thought.

Students explained that they found that their K – 12 teachers prepared them adequately for the state writing assessment. Several, however, believed that they were only limited to writing the five paragraph essay. One noted, "To advance my writing skills, my high school teachers made me endure the writing of an essay. This essay was the standard five-paragraph essay that most high school students are taught to write, and I quickly learned how to coherently organize my ideas and develop a thesis." (Student B) Most high school curriculums limit writing instruction to the standard five-paragraph essay of narration, persuasion, and exposition. Few students are challenged to utilize varied writing approaches that increase their critical

thinking skills. In many instances, writing curriculums lack an emphasis on the inclusion of critical thinking (analysis) and expansion of ideas through research and discovery (synthesis and evaluation). One student notes, "The type of writing that I endured in high school was similar to that of the writing in third grade. It was always in the format of an essay because my teachers always talked about getting us ready for the writing assessment in the eleventh grade." (Student C)

The second major theme derived from this research was students' influences beyond the classroom. Parental support influenced many of these students love for writing. Students explain that these social factors affected their learning in classrooms; thus, causing a direct relationship between their attitudes and motivations (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). The students in this study agree. One exclaims, "By the seventh grade, I had developed a love for English. My mom would buy workbooks from Wal-Mart to challenge me and to also strengthen my skills in English and in writing." (Student A) Another responds, "I learned how to write from my father. An English major and a writer himself, he taught me the basics, and helped develop my writing skills from elementary school through college." (Student B)

A third theme uncovered by the researchers involved students' frustration with the writing process. Although students felt apprehension about writing, they also stated that their passion for writing produced perseverance. They eventually gained a sense of ownership in their writing. One student wrote: "Within the 'honors realm', one entered it with trepidation yet with an air of "knowing all', which silenced my writing problems. For the first time, I felt that any problem with writing I encountered needed to be dealt with personally. Teachers were busy teaching the text, not the basics of writing. This feeling followed me to high school, where I learned that it is better to ask questions than receive a poor grade." Another student responded with a reflection upon the overly focused state writing assessments in high school classrooms. Student F wrote: "I was definitely ready. I received a score of five out of six on the writing assessment. Writing essays was not hard for me, however, writing research papers were and still are hard for me." Other students wrote specifically upon difficulties with the pre-writing process. Student

K wrote: "In my writing I have experienced problems beginning a paper, deciding how to structure my ideas, and in finding the correct words. I am a procrastinator, and this flaw makes starting a paper very tiring."

The final theme emerging from this research involved students' complication with writing argumentative papers for an in-class assignment. After submitting an argumentative essay for a grade in the course, students were asked to evaluate their thinking process (metacognition) while writing the paper. An analysis of student responses revealed that many were not able to structure their argumentative paper, noting the absence of an argumentative organizer or template. Others struggled with developing the paper's thesis and ideas. Student E wrote: "I had a hard time creating a thesis, deciding how to structure my ideas, and working on coherence and style. The thesis was hard because I had in mind what I wanted to say, but wording it was the hard part. Deciding how I wanted to structure my ideas was also difficult for me." Another student noted a lack of formal English and sentence variety in her paper. Student D wrote: "My issue with word choice was not that I lacked richness or variety, but more that I utilized speech which was too relaxed, informal, and generally distracting. This is an area of my writing in which I will invest further in future compositions." Students felt an overwhelming need for guidance with writing the argumentative paper, acknowledging the infrequent use of support and analysis to support their thesis. Student K quoted: "Finally, the challenge to 'create an organizational pattern that logically sequences claim(s), counterclaims, reasons, and evidence' proved difficult". Based on student responses in this study, overall, students expressed an enjoyment of writing; however, many noted few experiences writing within various content areas and for various academic purposes. The findings indicate that students rarely used an argumentation style in writing papers for English classes or across the content areas. Students' reply's included frequent comments on struggling to write a focused paper and identifying the audience prior to writing the paper. The majority of the students perceived their own academic writing as expert, but felt they needed improvement in the genre of argumentation. As student M writes, "I was better prepared to write a news story

rather than an argumentative paper. The types of papers were never discussed in detail how to write".

Conclusion

It would be reasonable to design a teacher education course for secondary English teachers around the new Common Core Standards which encompasses the scope, content and skills that language arts students in K-12 classrooms must master to become college ready; however, there are skill sets that secondary English teachers must hone in order to provide effective writing instruction to their K-12 students. Considering that these English teachers have become proficient in assisting students in composing the persuasive style of writing (opinion oriented), a requirement for most state mandated writing assessments, instruction is needed in teacher education programs to produce more academically challenging styles or genres of writing, particularly with the argumentation. Ryder, Lei, and Roen (1999) believe that:

> We need to encourage our students to write explicitly argumentative, persuasive prose…. because that is the discourse that will serve students throughout their lives. Students need a full range of audiences (p. 61).

The ability to write for various audiences in different argumentative contexts is the missing link to improving student's writing ability, their patterns of communication and increasing their cognitive skills in secondary education curriculums across content areas. Purves (1988) indicates that there are at least three types of persuasive analyses related to persuasion/argumentation: the superstructure of argument (problem-solution), a Toulmin analysis of informal reasoning, and the persuasive appeals. Empirical evidence (as cited in Purves, 1988, pg. 142) provides credibility that these apparatuses have an "independent additive effect on persuasive writing quality" (Conner & Takala, 1986). Each design can be applied specifically to a particular text: problem-solution to narrative and expository texts (Hutchins, 1977 and Hoey, 1979), Toulmin to persuasive texts (Kneupper, 1978; Stygall, 1986; Toulmin, Rieke,

& Janik, 1979) and persuasive appeal to expository texts such as illustration, example, etc. (Perelman, 1982).

A new framework of writing in secondary English methods courses should include a focus upon assessing and closing teacher gaps in writing by adding a metacognitive, theoretical and pedagogical perspective on writing. First, college instructors of teachers of English should permit their students to assess their own strengths and weaknesses with various writing styles and genres. Second, students should be presented with various classroom writing approaches (genres) that can be adapted to variety of classroom settings and content areas, multiple perspective case studies, media documents, or problem based learning involving research, synthesis and evaluation. Teachers of English need to engage in various genres of writing and learn the purposes of utilizing a specific genre within a specific context, particularly with complex writing assignments. This approach provides teachers the opportunity to challenge, evaluate, and modify their own perspective of writing. As Flower and Hayes (1981) pointed out, when students engage in the mental processes of planning, translating ideas and images into words, reviewing what has been written, and monitoring the entire process, they are more likely to feel less apprehension about the writing task of academically challenging assignments. Less apprehension about their own academic writing habits generates a paradigm shift in their writing approach that extends beyond the basic tenants of writing. Ultimately, teachers become better prepared and informed to address the challenges of the writing process and extend thinking skills in their own secondary English classrooms.

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Preparing Teachers to Work Effectively with English Language Learners: Developing Literacy in Second Language Learners

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe how a graduate reading methods course provides teacher candidates opportunities for reflection and prepares them to differentiate instruction in ways that allow ELLs to achieve literacy comprehension that is necessary to succeed in school. The data from the study suggested that 95% of graduate students developed a willingness to nurture and support culturally relevant pedagogy and acquire knowledge of select theories of second language acquisition to positively impact ELLs' literacy skills. The data revealed that 92% of graduate students felt a need to become strategic teachers who could design lessons to address linguistic objectives in particular with learners whose primary language is other than English. However, a small percentage of graduate students felt this experience was unnecessary for rural schools that lacked culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Introduction

The graduate students who know strategies of second language acquisition are more prepared to advocate for appropriate instructional accommodations to facilitate engagement of ELLs (Daniel, 2008). Furthermore, obstacles to comprehension for ELLs are eliminated in intensity when teachers use purposeful tasks that use language productively and meaningfully and identify cultural links to texts.
In their "Second Language Literacy Instruction Position Statement," the International Reading Association (2003)

recommended that teachers should commit to professional development in P-12 literacy as well as become knowledgeable of "the range of political, cultural, and economic issues" (p.3) that affect all learners. This strongly suggests that teacher preparation programs should mandate that teacher candidates graduating as Reading Specialists know how to help the ELLs overcome the linguistic and cultural barriers that they face in school. To assure success for the ELLs, the teacher preparation programs must make certain that Reading Specialists graduating from the university know how to work effectively with learners from different cultural and language backgrounds.

The teachers face many challenges to meet the needs of a diverse population because the average education they receive for an undergraduate degree barely touches on the theories of second language acquisitions (Daniel, 2008). It is thus important that the program of teacher preparation offers opportunities for graduate students to identify what they do when they plan and deliver instruction to ELLs and prepares them to differentiate instructions in ways that allow ELLs to achieve the literacy needed to succeed in school. Unfortunately, many of the graduate students, who are certified teachers, voice their concern that they are not well prepared to make appropriate instructional accommodations for ELL (McIntire, Kyle, Chen, and Beldon, 2010). Yet, the graduate students benefit from experiences working with ELL whose primary language is not English because this opportunity may allow them to become more strategic teachers who design lessons that address both content and linguistic objectives.

The Research

In recent years, there has been a huge increase in language minority students in schools with reports of over 14 million language minority students. As a result, our schools are more ethnically and linguistically diverse than ever before (August and Shanahan, 2006). Of concern, however, is a mismatch that often happens between students and teachers in terms of cultural understandings and a lack of research proving high quality instruction for language minority students (August and Erikson, 2006). The increase of language minority students in United States requires us to pay attention to the content, skills, and

context for learning that teachers need so that they in turn can be responsive to what the ELLs need (August, 2006). Research (Echevarria, et al., 2004) found three major challenges to improvement of literacy for ELLs. These include (1) inadequate educator capacity for improving literacy in ESL students, (2) inadequate use of research-based instructional practices, and (3) lack of a strong and coherent research agenda about ELL literacy. This explanation makes it easier to understand why ELLs struggle so much with academic content, and it is apparent that it has had negative impact on the development of their literacy, including the important components of higher-level thinking skills. Subsequent studies (Irvine, 2003, Lesaux and Geva, 2006, MacIntire, 2010) illustrated that effective differentiated instruction for ELLs involved culturally responsive teaching, high quality multicultural literature, manipulation of small group instruction, monitoring of individual progress, and one-one-one support in the name of direct and explicit teaching of these skills.

Despite the growing body of research-based strategies for use in classrooms, there is little research on how teachers implement literacy instruction for ESL learners. In fact, many teachers struggle to implement instructional approaches that have been proven to address the needs of ESL learners. The purpose of this paper is to describe how one particular graduate reading methods course provided teacher candidates opportunities for reflection and prepared them to differentiate instruction in ways that allow ELLs to achieve literacy comprehension that is necessary to succeed in school. The paper also offers the perceptions of the graduate students regarding the classes' effectiveness.

A Graduate Reading Methods Course

The purpose of the graduate reading methods course was to explore the Reading Specialist/Literacy Coach's role in helping teachers improve literacy instruction by assisting them in creating supportive environments for diverse language learners; extending and refining their understanding of reading, writing, listening, and speaking processes and development; implementing effective instructional strategies and curriculum

materials; and understanding problems of struggling readers, including ELLs and gifted ESLs.

Vogt and Shearer (2011) suggested that the Reading Specialists must have understandings of first and second language and literacy acquisition. This means they should be assigned to work with ESL students, as well as teachers, administrators, special educators, and ESL coordinators to assess the language proficiency and literacy acquisition of English learners. The role of the Reading Specialist/Literacy Coach is to provide students with differentiated instructional practice that responds to language and culture in a variety of ways. The Reading Specialist must have training to assess whether a student has a true reading problem or whether the difficulty is related to English language proficiency. Most importantly, they must work with classroom teachers to identify and explicitly teach academic language of the content areas (McCormick and Zutell, 2011).

In the graduate course being described, the graduate students learned about the role of Reading Specialist and Literacy Coach; local, state, and national policies affecting reading including the Common Core Standards; and about their own development as professionals and leaders in literacy. They also reviewed the IRA Standards for Reading Professionals in order to write a reflective paper which supports classroom teachers in designing and implementing instructional approaches and materials for all students that are based on the Common Core Standards and that are responsive to diversity.

The focus of the class was to learn how differentiated instruction can be incorporated to assist ESL students acquire academic English as students negotiate meaning and acquire language (Daniel, 2008). In this class, the researcher discussed how differentiate instruction is implemented in which varied approaches to the content can be carried out in response to ESL student differences, interest, and learning needs. The graduate students was to learn that through differentiated instruction and activities, ESL students take a greater responsibility and ownership for their own learning that is primarily focused on ESL students' learning styles, background experiences, and higher order thinking.

The graduate students were required to investigate a variety of professional literatures to suggest how curriculum should be delivered to promote English Language acquisition, to help ELLs think critically, and to enable them to advance at the same rate as their monolingual classmates. As graduate students read more professional articles to find the best resources for their students, they were supposes to be able to identify what their ESL students' needed and help ELLs connect instruction to their known world.

Methods

A graduate reading methods course was offered by a mid-western university's Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education. Sixteen graduate students were enrolled in the practicum course and the age of the enrolled students ranged from twenty five to forty years. All were white female classroom teachers. Of the sixteen, 85% had taught for three years or less and 15% had over five years of teaching experiences.

In the class, the graduate students developed an understanding of local, state, and national policies that affect reading and writing instruction including the Common Core Standards. They extended and refined learning from previous graduate level reading courses by designing a reflective paper that was based on the Common Core Standards and that was responsive to diversity.

Data of this study was collected during the spring 2012 academic terms. Data collected included reflective paper grades as well as group discussions that took place on Blackboard – a web-based environment for teaching and learning. The methods course was taught through an online learning environment to enhance the sense of a professional learning community and to encourage graduate students' participation in an asynchronous online discussion. Assignments were evaluated based on whether a graduate student could identify specific pedagogical characteristics to effectively teach ESL students and engage in reflective conversations about research on first and second language acquisition. Grades were assigned according to expectations such as if they could support their discussions by referencing course readings and/or reflect on personal

experiences related to teaching of ELLs. Each piece of data was graded using a 100 point rubric. The rubric criteria used were Outstanding, Satisfactory, and Unsatisfactory (Table 1).

Table 1: Essential benchmark and rubric

Outstanding	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
Reflective narrative addresses how the standard is met and reveals candidate's in-depth understanding of the standard. The candidate understands the importance of ELL students' interests, reading abilities, and backgrounds when planning reading programs, and when selecting materials for reading instruction. The candidate recognizes and is able to effectively model, coach, and support classroom teachers.	Reflective narrative addresses how the standard is met and reveals candidate's general understanding of the standard. The candidate has the general understanding of ELL students' interests, reading abilities, and backgrounds when planning reading programs, and when selecting materials for reading instruction. The candidate recognizes and is able to effectively model, coach, and support classroom teachers.	Reflective narrative addresses how the standard is met and reveals candidate's lack of understanding of the standard. The candidate has the limited understanding of ELL students' interests, reading abilities, and backgrounds when planning reading programs, and when selecting materials for reading instruction. The candidate cannot recognize and is not able to effectively model, coach, and support classroom teachers.
The candidate exhibits a defined and clear understanding of the assignment. Evaluation of reflection paper provides impressive	Candidate exhibits a defined and clear understanding of the assignment. Evaluation of reflection paper provides some evidence of	Candidate lacks basic understanding of the assignment. Evaluation of reflection paper demonstrates candidate lacks the

and detailed evidence of candidate's ability to use various books and non-print materials appropriate for a diverse group of learners, and to effectively model, coach, and support classroom teachers that match a range of reading levels, interests, and the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of students.	candidate's ability to use various books and non-print materials appropriate for a diverse group of learners, and to effectively model, coach, and support classroom teachers that match a range of reading levels, interests, and the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of students.	ability to use various books and non-print materials appropriate for a diverse group of learners. The candidate lacks the ability to model, coach, and support classroom teachers that match a range of reading levels, interests, and the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of students.
Reflective narrative addresses how the diversity standard is met and reveals candidate's in-depth understanding of the standard. The candidate understands the importance of using various books and non-print materials appropriate for a diverse group of learners in reading programs. The candidate is able to effectively differentiate instruction and to	Reflective narrative addresses how the diversity standard is met and reveals candidate's general understanding of the standard. The candidate has a general understanding of how to use various books and non-print materials appropriate for a diverse group of learners in reading programs. The candidate is able to effectively differentiate instruction and to	Reflective narrative addresses how the diversity standard is met and reveals candidate's lack of understanding of the standard. The candidate has a lack of understanding of how to use various books and non-print materials appropriate for a diverse group of learners in reading programs. The candidate is not able to effectively differentiate instruction and to

model, coach, and support classroom teachers and paraprofessionals in using ELL students' interests and background experiences that match their linguistic proficiency level.	model, coach, and support classroom teachers and paraprofessionals in using ELL students' interests and background experiences that match their linguistic proficiency level.	model, coach, and support classroom teachers and paraprofessionals in using ELL students' interests and background experiences that match their linguistic proficiency level.

Reflection Paper

The purpose of the reflection paper was to have students explore professional literatures and reflect on culturally relevant teaching. The focus of this study was to learn if such an assignment helped students understand and accept the use of differentiated instruction that prioritizes and supports cultural competence (May, 2011). Several different reflective excerpts suggest the effectiveness of the graduate class assignments. One graduate student, for example, found significant individual differences in the amount of information retained. These individual differences could have been due to several variables including prior experiences, level of performances, and lack of equity. Exemplary teachers should inspire their ESL students by creating respectful and comfortable effort-focused atmospheres where they differentiate strategies and scaffold students (Pressley, Wharton-McDonald et al., 2001). The graduate student reported:

> I have an ESL student who is also a special education student in one of my co-teaching English classes. It is very difficult to get this student to participate in classroom activities and her work is below that of all her peers. My co-teacher and I could not understand why this particular student was struggling so much in our classroom when we were providing all modifications and accommodations we could think of to service her disability. Eventually we came to realize that her poor performance was not due to her

learning disability, but to her inability to understand what was going on in the classroom. We had observed her conversational skills and made assumptions based on those skills, not on her academic proficiency, which was much lower. We immediately began to work to make our classroom more risk free for her. It has been a very difficult task. This shows respect to the students and showed them that everyone, including me, is a learner in the classroom.

From a culturally relevant teaching point of view, the graduate students should develop an ability to nurture and support ELLs' cultural competence by implementing a variety of strategies (Miller, 2002, Drucker, 2003). These strategies include repeated reading, visualizing, predicting, previewing, questioning, making connections, body language, facial expressions, gestures, and intonations. A graduate student stated regarding this aspect:

Working with a diverse group of students challenges the teacher to be able to reach all students during lessons. During this past school year my reading class consisted of 5 students that were ESL learners. During homeroom and writing time I had 6 students that are ESL learners. These students are given accommodations to help them succeed in the classroom. As a teacher it is a challenge to reach all of these students in every lesson. I have learned that ESL learners are better when they have hands on experiences and repetition.

Children who are English language learners need individual instruction to assure an appropriate match between student skill and task demands (Burns and Helman, 2009). The teachers must provide adequate support for ELLs, understand the differences between and implications of conversational proficiency and academic proficiency, nurture the close ties between listening and reading, recognize the importance of choral and shared reading, implement flexible grouping techniques, understand different cultural practice and their implications in using cues, and textual connections, acknowledge the importance of appropriately introducing vocabulary, and most

importantly, address all of these issues within the classroom setting. One particular graduate student in the studied class reflected on these requirements by noting,

> What I was surprised about was the idea that there would be such a discrepancy between oral language use and a student's ability to read academic text. As a native English speaker if I can say it, I can read it. Knowing that this is not the case with ESL students will help me in the future. The professional articles gave many ideas on how to help ESL students learn to read. I feel more confident in my abilities to help a struggling ESL child, because I now understand the factors that can hinder their progress and how to combat those factors.

> Utilizing small group instruction and read-alouds both became part of my daily reading lesson plans. Drucker's (2003) emphasis on ESL students lacking cues suggests that I need to provide a deeper context. Using recitation with motions and gestures as I teach, as well as previewing stories on a deeper level will be factors I am sure to address with upcoming school years.

When ESL students read or listen to culturally and linguistically relevant texts, then vocabulary and sight words are more easily learned and ELLs have more opportunities to engage in meaning making as they interact with texts. Making multicultural literature available to all students can also foster personal narratives (Martinez-Roldan, 2003), mutual respect as well as individual self-esteem and confidence. It is through the moral of the story, characters, and conflicts of such books that teachers can guide our ELLs to connect with each other and the world around them, help develop understanding and respect for their own cultural groups as well as empathize with the tragedies and triumphs of others, help increase listening skills, including vocabulary and verbal proficiency.

Language experience approach can be a follow-up activity for ELL beginners who can participate in a facial expression or body language and physical response activity. After students understand the process, they can also draw pictures about

experiences of their own choosing and do the follow-up word imagery activities or retelling and reading. Through student imagery word drawings, teachers may gain information about student background experiences and interests and write related sentences that summarize their learning. Here are four graduate students' comments about ESLs acquisition of literacy skills and culturally relevant teaching strategies.

By providing ESL students with high quality multicultural books we can help them find books that they can connect with. Language Experience Approach helps students to share their ideas and experiences with others.

One strategy to use to help build schema and bridge cultural difference is use folktales stories that the students might be familiar with in their country. Picture books and multicultural books can also be helpful. Teachers need to make sure the book is relevant, do not reinforce stereotypes but are true to cultural experiences, illustrations should also be true to the culturally experience, and the story should be appealing.

Language experience which works with letter recognition and phonetics; Interactive writing that directly involves student with the writing process and shows them the relationship between reading and writing; Total physical response which involves having the students sing, act out and be physically involved while learning; Narrow reading gives students several examples of stories with the same vocabulary; and Read aloud shows the importance of students being read to by a fluent reader.

Moreover, Language Experience Approaches (LEA) can assist language learners in literacy. Interactive writing also is another strategy Drake (2003) suggests. These strategies allow for students to interact with each other and with the teacher during the writing process. The can help students see powerful examples of good writing.

It is reasonably presumed that children with limited English proficiency need five to seven years and many experiences with

English to be able to understand the content of instructional materials which in turn is highly linked to reading comprehension (Genesee et al., 2005). Often teachers with English as a Second Language students think the student demonstrates that mastery of literacy skills and catches on in conversation with friends or can speak one-on-one with the teacher but research has found that students can learn conversation language within two years but it takes much longer to engage in at a higher academic level (Drucker, 2003). A graduate student wrote about these research findings,

> Until recently I had a student in my classroom for two years that was not fluent in English because his family was originally from another country. He was very reserved and required and thrived much better with one on one instruction. The article discussed how there was a difference in the types of language that we must learn in order to survive in the classroom setting. When I look back and different instances I had with this student I came to the realization that he was learning two different types of speaking. Although he was weak in both conversation and academic language, I would have to say that he was stronger in using his conversational language. I do believe that this took effect because I was so unsure of how to model for him in both his language and in English in order for him to get a better understanding. I realized that when you have a student in your classroom that it is vital for their development that you build background knowledge for them and provide a variety of cues and prompts for them to learn from.

The teacher must find out the demands of the curriculum, the needs and comfort level of the ELLs, and how much the students know about writing in English and differences in cultures within the classroom. Rather than having ESL learners work in groups to respond to drafts, the teacher may hold conferences with individual learners to discuss topics that are relevant to their lives, to clarify ideas, and to explain that their writing has value. By integrating writing with content at every level of instruction, teachers can differentiate instruction (Tomilson, 2001), support ELLs find their own voices in their new

language, and help develop appropriate grammar including writing skills at the sentence level. A graduate student wrote reflectively,

> In the area of composition, my ESL student understands that brainstorming is important to begin the writing process, the importance of descriptive words, the importance of using a consistent point of view, and is able to choose the appropriate words relative to tone, mood and purpose. He struggles using diagrams for prewriting, using figurative language, developing a central idea, revising to enhance or paraphrasing, using complex sentences to expand his ideas, and more advanced uses of punctuation. In the area of language convention, my next teaching step would involve the proper use of adjective and adverb clauses, as well as appositive clauses, using compound nouns and irregular nouns appropriately, and how to distinguish between active and passive voice. In the area of composition, the next step is to use appropriate organization, recognize the appropriate format to use, learn how to effectively brainstorm, and how to use literary devices in his writing.

ELLs' vocabulary choices may be confusing, familiar elements of essays may be missing, and sentences may exhibit a variety of errors, and lack of writing competence may affect their academic advancement. The ELLs need to learn many skills to develop academic and linguistic proficiency including word recognition skills with an emphasis on sounds of words, word patterns as well as explicit instruction on vocabulary and decoding strategies. One-to-one writing conferences with the teacher can give them an opportunity to focus on problem areas in writing which in turn may boost the ELL's confidence as a writer. A graduate student wrote about these typical problems faced by ELLs,

> Teaching vocabulary is also a key element in building literacy skills for students who struggle with writing. One thing teachers can do for ESL students is to show them how to write/label word meanings near words. Also, teachers can use a singing approach to teach vocabulary and use the

narrow approach to reading to immerse the students in vocabulary over and over again.

Results

The purpose of this paper was to describe how a graduate reading methods course provided teacher candidates opportunities for reflection and prepared them to apply differentiate instruction in ways that allow ESLs to achieve literacy comprehension that is necessary to succeed in school. Semester grades were based on the graduate students' performance and mastery of the course objectives. Graduate students' knowledge, educational concepts, and literacy acquisition theories were evaluated through a reflection paper. Their abilities to express their knowledge of educational concepts and literacy acquisition theories within the conventions of academic discourse were assessed through discussion board. Integration of information from lectures, readings, discussions, and personal experiences was also taken into consideration. The researcher articulated criteria for work that corresponded to letter grades such as outstanding, satisfactory, unsatisfactory, etc. The assignment of the letter grades was based on a student's total score (a number between 0 and 100). The researcher explained and interpreted the evidence of the students' performance through a feedback sheet and an evaluation standard that was applied to all students. Grades were determined in accordance with the university's policy and written guidelines that were distributed among graduate students via Blackboard.
The results of the study suggested that the data from the graduate students fell overwhelmingly in the "outstanding – satisfactory" column and had a mean score of 95.5 (Figure 1). The data from rubric suggested that 95% of graduate students developed a willingness to nurture and support culturally relevant pedagogy and acquire knowledge of select theories of second language acquisition to positively impact ELLs' literacy skills. The results suggested that 92% of graduate students felt a need to become strategic teachers who could design lessons to address linguistic objectives in particular with learners whose primary language is other than English.

The results of the study suggested that 92% of graduate students felt that professional literatures helped them deliver

culturally responsive teaching to promote English language acquisition, raise the bar for learning for ELLs to include differentiated teaching and effectively implement appropriate instructional accommodation; thus helping ELLs overcome linguistic barriers (Daniel, 2008). At least 90% of graduate students assured equity by providing differentiated instruction to facilitate reading achievement of ELLs in the classroom.

Figure 1: The graduate students learned best practices in their instruction of ESL learners

The graduate students learned best practices in their instruction of ESL learners

Unsatisfac, 0
Satisfactory, 5
Outstanding, 11

| | Unsatisfac | Satisfactory | Outstanding |

(100%, 80%, 60%, 40%, 20%, 0%)

Today, teachers require targeted preparation to meet the demand of the increasing number of language minority students and the responsibility falls to Reading Specialists or Literacy Coaches who assist in supporting a program for English learners (Vogt and Shearer, 2013). Based on this study, it was contended that 92% of graduate students recognized their role of the Reading Specialist and felt that the reflection paper and focused dialogue helped them pay close attention to the culturally relevant teaching in helping ELL develop their linguistic competency.

Recommendations

Research (AU, 2000) suggested that no matter how much the culturally responsive instruction seems to make sense pedagogically, there needs to be added strategies to help ELLs successful in the classroom. The role of the Reading Specialist seems especially important in this process. The Reading Specialist can provide other teachers with support, guidance, ideas, and models of instructional practice in ways that facilitate ESL students' literacy outcomes. The Reading Specialist should also find ways to incorporate curriculum that connects each individual ESL student's cultural background and involves students in a variety of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and viewing behaviors throughout the lesson plan.

While the number of English learners has increased substantially in the United States, a few teachers articulated a sense of confidence in their ability to plan instruction for ELLs (Crawford, 2004). As we prepare Reading Specialist, our teacher preparation programs must make certain all graduate students leave university knowing how to help ELLs overcome the linguistic and cultural obstacles that they face at school. Students who are English language learners are a group with unmet academic needs in large part because of the lack of literacy skills and academic language many bring to US schools (Burns and Helman, 2009). Teacher preparation programs must teach future Reading Specialist ways to work effectively with learners from different cultural and language backgrounds. As much as we educators want to provide all ESL students language and literacy needs, this is a challenge for many Reading Specialists, primarily because most represent the majority culture, both linguistically and culturally living in Midwestern rural communities. The reading methods course places heavy emphasis on practical knowledge to promote literacy development for second language learners and strategies to assist ELLs in the different stages of literacy acquisition, including achieving the development of academic language. However, a small percentage of graduate students felt this experience was unnecessary for rural schools that lacked culturally and linguistically diverse students. We have a long way to go (Lazar, 2001) in understanding the complexities of

linguistically and culturally responsive instruction in preparing such graduate students to work in rural settings.

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Writing Their Own Stories: Having Students Write Reflective Essays Using Creative Writing Strategies in Basic College Composition Courses

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Abstract

There has long been a strong perception that students graduating from American schools of higher education still lack adequate writing skills. It has also been argued that one of the primary places the problem can be best addressed is in basic college composition courses. However, research indicated that these basic courses have failed to improve student writing skills. This article examines the innovative method of using creative writing strategies in basic college composition courses as an effective way of helping students to develop adequate writing skills.

Introduction

Academic researchers and public leaders in general have long lamented the decline in student writing abilities. Indeed, for many years there has existed a gnawing awareness that American students on all levels were not performing satisfactorily in writing (Danielson, 2000).

Debella, DeBella, Koenecke, Hanson & Lough (2007) offered an interesting point of view regarding the cause of declining writing skills among incoming college students. The findings of these researchers were both interesting and insightful. On the 1994 ACT National Curriculum Survey, both high school teachers and college faculty ranked grammar and usage skills as the third most important skill. This perception eroded during the next decade when new English teachers who were products of the "grammarless era" entered the workforce.

Results from the 2003 ACT National Curriculum Survey showed a significant difference in college instructor and high school teacher attitudes toward grammar instruction. While college instructors believed that grammar and usage skills were critical to students' success, high school teachers ranked these skills as least important. These disparate perceptions may be one reason why a significant number of first-year college students need remedial help with their writing skills.

Survey results from the Debella study also suggested that formal grammar instruction may not have been as effectively embedded into the secondary reading and writing curricula as originally intended. Forty-six percent of the graduating seniors, for example, scored 19 or below on the English portion of the ACT test in 2003, which indicated they might be marginally prepared for college coursework.

The Debella study also offered a brief but precise history of how grammar has historically been taught in American classrooms and the problems which resulted. Specifically, these researchers noted that the practice of teaching grammar in public school classrooms has changed dramatically over the years. At the beginning of the century, college professors offered university writing courses in the belief that "if students are to learn, they must write. When education was a private good, available only to a small elite in the United States, grammar, rhetoric, and logic were considered to be the foundation on which real learning and self-knowledge were built" (p. 47).

Over time, student enrollment increased, as schools became more democratic in terms of who could and should enter. Consequently, "When teachers could not keep up with the volume of written assignments, they changed their focus to mechanical correctness instead." Over the next five decades, grammar was presented as an isolated subject, separate from composition. "In some schools, students spent the first half of the school year learning grammar rules and diagramming sentences. Depending upon their grade level, students spent the second semester reading and analyzing different types of prose or poetry and writing compositions." Then came the whole language movement where "teachers embedded grammar instruction within reading and writing lessons. Students no longer completed worksheets or diagrammed sentences; they

learned grammar as a natural by-product of immersion in quality literature" (p. 48).

During this time the National Council of Teachers of English (1985) asserted "that grammar drills were actually detrimental to the improvement of students' writing and speaking skills" (in Debella, et al., p. 18). By the end of the 1990s, DeBella noted, "Direct grammar instruction was no longer an integral part of most schools' language arts curriculum. As teachers' instructional strategies changed, so did their perceptions." Elementary teachers, for example, continued to "disagree about whether to teach grammar, and if grammar is to be taught, how it should be taught" (p. 48).

Many academic and nonacademic leaders believed that the problem of college students not having adequate writing skills should be addressed in introductory college composition courses. However, there remains great debate regarding what methods are effective in teaching students how to write.

College teachers and researchers who are concerned about effective ways to teach college composition classes have long lamented the seeming lack of an effective teaching process. Many researchers have certainly been quick to say what does not work. Several researchers have argued, for example, that the teaching of grammar and composition as a formal system, divorced of context, does not serve any practical purpose (Twiggs, 2006; Simmons, 2005; Weaver, 1996; Hillock and Smith, 1991; McQuade, 1980). Mills (2010) carried out a study to see if an Internet based program developed to improve student writing skills worked. The program, and others like it, were based on the idea that today's students are more computer savvy and more geared to learn from computer assisted programs. While students responded positively regarding using an Internet program to improve writing, their tests scores turn out to have not been significantly higher than students who did not use the Internet program.

Conversely, a few researchers have developed ideas concerning effective methods of teaching writing that they believe worked. Kolln (1981), for example, has pointed out that a number of studies showed that teaching grammar/composition in the context of content writing is more effective than teaching grammar form as a separate subject. Rosen (1987) went further

beyond this notion, asserting that writing was "a complex process, recursive rather than linear in nature, involving thinking, planning, discovering what to say, drafting, and re-drafting." More importantly, Rosen thought, "the mechanical and grammatical skills of writing are learned when a writer needs to use them for real purposes to produce writing that communicates a message he or she wants someone else to receive (p. 63-64).

This latter notion of Rosen's further suggested that students learn to write best, and retain an understanding regarding writing rules, *when they are engaged with writing about content that has personal meaning.* Along these same lines, Cobine (1996) offered a strong argument for having composition students participate in what he termed "expressive writing" as a way to improve all facets of writing skills. He noted,

> By writing regularly in a personal, conversational way, [students] overlook grammatical bogs temporarily and look over the rhetorical horizon. To put it another way, in learning to clarify beliefs and interpret meanings, they come to consider their audience and their purpose. And in using language purposely, they come to use language respectfully. Thus, in writing, they come to see a need for correct usage. As experience in writing comes, so does a confluence of rhetorical, grammatical, and mechanical concern for student writers. (p. 3-4)

One surprising angle occasionally used in teaching composition on the college level which incorporates some of the above ideas involves the use of creative writing strategies.

Creative Writing and Introductory College Composition Classes

Bizzaro (2004) pointed out that integrating personal meaning into the writing process in the college composition classroom has more recently taken the form of using creative writing strategies. It has not always been an easy marriage. Hesse (2010) also noted, concerning this idea, that "For different reasons composition studies and creative writing have resisted one another" yet, "the two fields' common interest should link them in a richer, more coherent view of writing . . . Composition studies

should pay more attention to craft and to composing texts not created in response to rhetorical situations or for scholars" (p.31).

Miller (2005) believed, along these same lines, that historically the teaching of writing (composition) and the teaching of creative writing have been understood as separate processes with creative writing "considered less intellectual, more instinctual, and thus given a place on the fringe of English Studies. . . . (p. 40). However, Miller went on to argue that "The authority of blending reading, thinking, and writing skills into a useful whole serves the common goals and strategies of composition (general college writing) and creative writing classrooms" (p. 39).

Lardner (1999) has argued, along the lines of Anne Ruggles Gere's notions regarding writing groups, that traditional beginning college composition classes shed much of their emphasis upon the initiation of students "into academic discourse communities" and move to stress instead "self-esteem, honing the craft, the opportunity for performance and the perception of writing as an activity which changes the writer's and others' lives" (p. 76).

What all of the above studies have in common are the notions that introductory college composition teachers should develop writing assignments that call for students to write about topics that are personal and have meaning and that such assignments would further benefit by teaching creative writing strategies. These studies further suggested that such assignments are more likely to allow students not only to learn writing skills, but also to retain these skills beyond the class. The question remains, however, what such writing assignments might look like. This article discusses some assignments I have used and offers some practical detailed examples concerning this question.

A Writing Assignment Using Elements of Creative Writing

As a first writing assignment for an introductory composition class, students were asked to compose a two page reflective essay about a personal event that greatly affected them. Students are also given a list of possible topics. The only limiting

factors to possible topics would be anything that involved a criminal act that was never legally addressed.

While the assignment involved writing a short narrative, these narratives were often packed with the emotional energy that comes from writing about something with personal meaning. It is interesting, for example, to note that most of the personal reflective topics concerned very difficult and painful events. Some of the topics that I have seen students write about included the following:

- Having a sibling or close friend with a disability
- Losing a parent or family member
- Moving to a new school
- Being discriminated against or witnessing overt discrimination
- Experiencing a difficult illness
- Participating in a difficult sport that brought self-esteem
- Discovering that a "good person" can sometimes make mistakes
- Discovering that a "bad person" can sometimes do good things

One word of caution here—because the subject matter is so personal, the instructor must be able to show some compassion and interest in the students. For some instructors, this may not be an option.

Once the topic is selected by the student and accepted by the instructor, the instructor will explain the following elements of the reflective essay.

Presentation of the event

Students are instructed in this section to introduce the event on which they wish to write. This would include offering context to the event—where and when the event occurred and who the main persons were involved in the event. The student is then instructed to explain what took place. Instructors should remember too that perhaps the greatest deterrent for beginning writers is the voice of the internal editor. Mills (2012) noted, in his essay on writing personal stories for future generations, that

If you listen too long to this voice—the one that tells you the grammar is poor, the story makes no sense, or no one will ever want to read it—you will never get anything written. . . . Students need permission to write that lousy first draft. Start with an idea which sparks an interest and write about it from the gut without allowing the internal editor to speak. Let it pour out, take whatever direction it wishes." (p. 18)

Giving students this permission is an important part of helping them write that first, perhaps "lousy," draft.

Development of the reflection (Organization of the narrative)
In this section, the student is asked to share three things they learned from the event. Again, the student should be encouraged to let the story flow.

Because students are writing about an event that has personal meaning, they will most often tend to be more interested in making the narrative work well. To enhance this situation, after I receive the first draft, I typically make a few written and verbal comments with individual students regarding how interesting their narrative are. Then, in the first draft revision assignment, I introduce in lecture the use of some creative writing techniques that I tell them will help make their stories stronger. I emphasis the following techniques.

- Using the active voice
- Using active verbs
- Showing instead of telling
- Giving concrete senses examples
- Using strong descriptive words to create a sense of character.
- Emphasizing the use of proper style and format to enhance the flow of the narrative.

As Mills (2012) pointed out, good narrative writing "employs literary devices and craft usage found in fiction and prose writing, elements which enliven and quicken a story. There stands, for example, the basic rule of utilizing strong verbs. Why walk when you can amble, saunter, march—maybe even bound or leap?" (18)

Showing rather than telling also enhances the power of a narrative. Instead of saying, for example, "Tom came through the door looking angry and upset," one could *show* us that by saying, "Tom burst through the door, breathing rapidly, with a thin sheen of sweat on his face. He threw his jacket to the floor."

Another important basic technique in good story writing is the use of concrete details, especially details that appeals to one of the five senses. Here, I suggest the rule of three—list three [concrete] things in your narrative, then move on. I show the student how the writer can sprinkle such lists here and there throughout their writing.

Particular characters in a narrative can be teased out as well. "You can tell the reader that someone in your memoir story is a wonderful person, or a villain, or a dope," Mills noted, but "in good writing such features are shown through action in real time and in a world of concrete images."

Another strategy in bringing the people you write about to life is to develop sensory impressions of them. "A limp handshake or a soft cheek; an odor of Chanel, oregano, or decay—these sense impressions can characterize much the way looks do if the narrative allows the reader to touch, smell, or taste a character" (Burroway, 2003, p. 2).

In a few classroom lectures and then, during one-on-one time in a couple more draft revision assignments, I show each student how they might use such above techniques in their essay.

Conclusion

When students write about a theme that has strong personal meaning, the amount of ownership they take in their writing increases. Plus, when they learn creative writing techniques that they can see energizes and enriches their writing, the increase in the work they put into a piece often borders on the amazing. Most take more interest in learning basic grammar and punctuation rules when they see how doing so improves their narrative. There may be an added bonus to this kind of first writing assignment as well. When college freshmen arrive on campus, they are often dazed by the new environment and many grow homesick. Donghyuck, Olson, Locke, Michelson & Odes (2009) discovered, regarding college freshman homesickness,

that having such feelings recognized and addressed can serve to help retention. In this regard, making the first introductory composition class assignment a reflective personal essay can help soothe fears by giving the student something to write about that grounds him or her to their pre-college world.

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Man: A Course of Study as Supplemental Curriculum in the Christian School Environment: A Case Study of Middle Grade Social Studies Teachers

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Abstract

This study examines the potential of middle schools teachers at Christian based schools using the controversial social studies curriculum project Man: A Course of Study to promote in students the mastery of critical inquiry and the development of moral beliefs at an earlier grade level. As a first step in considering this potential, two groups of middle school teachers at a private Christian school were given MACOS materials and asked to evaluate them. These teachers were then asked, via interviews, to evaluate the MACOS material.

Forensic Evidence Backlog

   Man: A Course of Study (MACOS) was an anthropology-based social studies curriculum projected developed primarily for grades 4 through 9 in an effort to evoke students' inquiry about oneself and society through non-traditional teaching exercises. Funded through a National Science Foundation (NSF) grant, project designers Jerome Bruner, Peter Dow and associates built projects and curriculum around three central goals: 1) to give students a set of models for thinking about the world, 2) to provide students with different intellectual tools for investigating human behavior, and 3) to promote an appreciation of the common humanity that all humans share (Dow, 1975). Considered by many educational reformers of the time as revolutionary, attacks and criticisms of the projects alternative curriculum through the use of field notes, videos, critical inquiry, case studies, and value dilemmas provided fuel for groups of

conservative traditionalist to deem the implementation of the project in the nation's schools as godless, humanistic, evolution-based and socialism (Dow, 1991). By 1975, the MACOS project was under assault from various organizations including parents, school boards, and politicians who claimed the project's graphic nature exposed students moral dilemmas and thinking traditionally not implemented in a school setting which often opposed the beliefs and wishes of their parents (Symcox, 2002).

Nearly forty years have elapsed since *Man: A Course of Study* was actively pursued in the social studies classroom. Since this time, the United States has witnessed an increased and intensive interest in both high-stakes testing, citizenship education, and the pedagogical delivery of content. Today, one goal of education is to develop effective, critically thinking citizens that contribute to society. Issues that occur in societies such as racism, terrorism, war, immigration, and environmental issues are considered important civic issues, but often absent of any dialogue or critical inquiry in educational classrooms due to comfort of students and potentially controversial issues at hand (Goodlad, 1984; McNeil, 1986; Russell and Byford, 2006; Russell, 2007). Graduating students from both the public and private school settings are increasingly asked to evaluate, judge and enact on personal beliefs, values and interpretations regardless of school-based adopted curriculum or agendas. Ironically, given the increased demands for students to master critical inquiry and develop and defend their moral beliefs at an earlier grade level, many of the "new" and, to many, controversial social studies projects developed in the 1960s and 1970s such as to include *Man: A Course of Study* may still promote and provide cognitive growth and skill sets in middle grades curriculum in even the Christian school setting.

A Brief History of Man: A Course of Study

The 1950s were known for great accomplishments. The civil rights movement and advances in technology are only a few examples of the decade's success. However, with success also comes controversy. Despite the social studies often obscured presence after World War II, this discipline was often the focal point of both public frustration and change. The fire for this collective re-examination for the social studies came in the form

of four events. Such events and possibly others served as a catalyst for curriculum reform in social studies curriculum. The Korean War, closed areas of society, the Purdue public opinion poll, and the launching of Sputnik were all contributed to the eventual change to the social studies (Byford and Russell, 2007). In 1958 the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) was passed with the intent to upgrade schools to compete with the growing postwar Soviet threat and perceived failure of the nation's public school system. With the creation of the NDEA, the overall goal was to upgrade the American educational system through an extensive reassessment of all curriculum and subjects.

With the field of social studies, prominent scholars, teachers and curriculum designers gathered at Woods Hole, Massachusetts in 1960 to reorganize and develop new curriculum known as the new social studies. Unlike past curriculum development, which left single subject disciplines autonomous of one another, new curriculum would be standardized with an increase emphasis in methods, procedures and models of instruction. Such methods and procedures included the use inquiry, value dilemmas and the implementation of games and simulations. In the end, more than fifty projects were created that either integrated social studies for the purpose of citizenship education, or to teach history and the social studies as ends to themselves. While some project gained more popularity than others, the introduction of new, alternative pedagogy was consistent. Popular projects that primarily focused on middle and secondary education included various approaches of self-reflection, and values clarification in an effort for students to investigate and reflect on the social forces encompassing societal events.

Man: A Course of Study furthered the approach of student-centered curriculum. Developed by the Educational Development Center Inc., under the funding from the National Science Foundation the MACOS project contained two major sections; the first being animal studies and the second studying the lives of Canadian Eskimos. The project was considered one of the first student-centered projects that incorporated non-traditional (field notes, journals, poems, construction exercises) teaching exercises into reoccurring themes used in grades four through nine in the form of sixty lessons and twenty-seven films

(Wolcott, 2007; Openshaw, 2001). MACOS director Peter Dow (1975) summarized the overall questions central throughout the curriculum as 1) what is human about human beings? 2) How did we (humans) get that way? and 3) how can we become more human?

Project Skeptics

On April 8, 1975, Representative John B. Colon (R-Arizona) deplored the content of MACOS as "wasteful" to the taxpayer. Representative Colon described MACOS as "a course for 10-year olds mainly about the Netsilik Eskimo subculture of Canada's Pelly Bay Region. Student materials had repeated references in stories about Netsilik cannibalism, adultery, bestiality, female infanticide, incest, wife-swapping, killing old people, and other shocking condoned practices" (Walsh, 1975; p. 426). While project reformers and designers likely produced sound educational materials, it was the teaching approaches that proved to be the biggest disadvantage for new curriculum efforts. Often the instruction and content was structured around college curriculum with little emphasis on the realism of teaching in the k-12 classroom. It was the curriculum planners who relied on classroom teachers to teach their programs. In reality, many of the teachers were asked to implement new concepts, ideas and instructional techniques, which often went against their own teaching ideology (Byford and Russell, 2007).

Design of Study

Understanding and utilizing historical social studies materials and their differentiated pedagogical strategies has the potential to increase social studies teachers' content delivery and ability to teach increasingly controversial issues within the classroom. Utilizing selected material found within the MACOS project may provide private middle school teachers with a variety of pedagogical approaches to include values education and inquiry never effectively used in the past.

One can argue that private Christian school teachers' perceptions of once perceived "bad curriculum" and controversial methods of instruction is an important dimension in the fostering of pedagogical practices and promoting alternative methods of understanding in an increasingly secular, multicultural driven

post-academic world. This study attempts to answer the following research question: What are the opinions of Christian middle school social studies teachers towards the implementation and utilization of selected MACOS project materials and pedagogical practices in their social studies curriculum?

In answering this research question, teachers were interviewed to gather information on the following related questions: a) Suppose the MACOS project was planned to be implemented in your school and your class, how would you feel and respond to it? b) Some teachers believe that middle school students should be taught about other cultures in the world including cultures that have cannibalism, genocide, euthanasia and other questionable practices. What would you say? c) What do you believe is the ideal way to teach other people's cultures? d) What do you think is the ideal grade level should be to teach MACOS curriculum? And e) Do you believe this type of curriculum is detrimental to middle school students?

In order to capture the teachers' individual perceptions of social issues in rich detail, the study utilized an interview. For the purpose of this study the authors selected two private religious-based schools, located in a large urban setting to be interviewed on their opinions on selected MACOS materials and methods of delivery. The participants in the study were selected with the idea of creating a convenience sample. In a convenience sample, participants are conveniently available for study. In the case of this study, middle grade social studies teachers were selected at both schools. Both institutions serve approximately 300 students.

Methods and Sample Selection

This study contained two private schools. Selected participants from each school received four units from the MACOS project. Examples of course material included the following units and activities: 1) After Civilization What! 2) Brains, Tools and Society, 3) Will the Primate with Culture Please Stand Up, and 4) Natural Selection. Selection of units and activities was random. Both schools received the identical course material. Participants were given two weeks to read and review sample material before being interviewed. In both schools, the

researcher interviewed, took detailed notes, and audio-taped interviews with each participant. The interviews were then transcribed in the course of several weeks for both school settings. A total of twenty teachers were selected to participate in the study. Nine teachers (3 males and 6 females) from school site number one and eleven teachers (5 males and 6 females) from school site number two.

All interviews were conducted in spring 2011. The purpose of the interviews was to discover attitudes and opinions of the utilization of selected MACOS materials as supplemental curriculum in a middle grades social studies classroom. The teacher responses were probed and clarified for comprehension and personal and self-perceptions were encouraged. Interviews were taped recorded to ensure accuracy and later transcribed. Each interview was coded and resulting themes were noted. Corroborating themes were established within each school site through triangulation and field notes. Similarities and differences were noted between the two groups.

Research Findings

With teacher variables, the school's academic mission and previous research in mind, there was an emergence of three themes bases on the analysis of information. Such themes were designed to answer the research questions being neither static nor mutually exclusive. The first theme indicated faculty at both Christian Schools believes that while there are merits in terms in the MACOS project objectives, the general assumption was that such secular curriculum promoted theories/concepts that were not consistent with their educational mission. The second theme suggested while content found in the *Man: A Course of Study* project was inconsistent with the school's ideology; the discovery approaches and simulation / direct learning are effective and realistic approaches towards learning about different cultures. Lastly, the third theme implied overwhelming support of faculty in teaching such progressive curriculum at the high school as opposed to middle school due to the "impressionability" on students at the middle grade years.

In General, most teachers would not incorporate MACOS into the overall curriculum based on a conflict with the expressed religious belief of their school. The scope of use of *Man: A*

Course of Study spanned from a strong desire to not utilize any of the curriculum to a modified or limited use. The conflict centered the perception MACOS supported and promoted key theories that were in conflict with those of the school. Two main theories included evolution and the practice of infanticide and genocide discussed within the context of the practices of the Netsilik Eskimos. Thomas, a 40 year veteran of the high school classroom stated the prevailing belief of most teachers, when he said,

> I do not believe that this is the place for these topics because this is a very impressionable group of young people at this stage of their life, and quite frankly I would not want a child of mine exposed to this things this morbid at this time in their life.

Some teachers in the study challenged the very basic assumptions that MACOS was built on. Sue, a Jr High teacher for 10 years, expressed her lack of support for the project and indicated the premises of the curriculum is in direct conflict with her belief as a Christian educator. After a moment of thought and citing the Bible as her foundation, Sue said,

> I would be compelled to include the Biblical creation of man in man's beginnings and I don't believe we can compare man's "natural selection" to that of fish and animals. The project itself teaches that man has been here for 500,000 years, which I believe to be false information. I believe the earth itself is no older than 6,000 to 8.000 years. There is much false information in the packet, including that man is headed for Utopia and getting progressively better morally. Not true!

A few teachers in the study were basically okay with the MACOS program. John, a fourth year bible teacher, did feel comfortable teaching MACOS in its original form and believed in fact MACOS did not conflict with the school's mission. One of the school's missions, centers on the preparation of students ability to affectively interact and defend the biblical worldview

against various secular beliefs. Although he had minor concerns, John promptly stated that:

> In the right context, it would be ok. Within a biblical worldview and as a contrast to our culture the students can be introduced to these concepts.   Compare the known (what they are used to, familiar with) with the unknown (other cultures, etc.) with the faith of a Christian/biblical worldview.

Asked if teachers found the presentation or the discovery approaches used in *Man: A Course of Study* might provide a realistic and useful strategy for the investigation of other cultures, all twenty participants expressed a perception and sense of vagueness and lack of continuity within the curriculum material provided compared to their traditional curriculum. Teacher's evaluated curriculum materials with a desire to examine the multiple inquiry-based pedagogical approaches in comparison to rote-memorization, lecture and textbook based assignments. Such a desire quickly deteriorated once a detailed examination of the curriculum began. The perceived lack of continuity and vagueness throughout the curriculum material and new pedagogical strategies produced a sense of resistance among participants. Such feelings of hesitance and resistance were reflected in an interview with Mary, a library specialist for 5 years. After reading a vignette from the project, she stated that:

> My willingness to teach this curriculum actually lessened after I looked at the curriculum. I was very open-minded when I read the overview. The overview talked about different questioning and problem-solving techniques that were different from my traditional way of teaching. This was intriguing to me. I personally feel that this is an area where schools are lacking - students no longer think on their own. They don't ask questions so the overview of the curriculum really interested me. However, I was really disappointed once I began to read portions of the curriculum. I would have been extremely frustrated if I had been asked to teach this curriculum because it places a majority of the decision-making on the students.

The perceived lack of continuity prompted some participants to pick and choose parts of the MACOS project they could apply towards their classrooms and school curriculum. Marie's opinion along with the others is reflective of Ellis, Fouts and Glenn (1992) belief that teachers often rely solely on text, lecturing, worksheets and traditional tests as methods of learning which often avoid controversial subjects. Such aforementioned techniques often encourage students to take a passive role in learning history; potentially resulting in lost opportunities for students' wide range of views and beliefs to be heard by others. Such frustrations with the controversial curriculum continued. Fran, a 7th grade language arts teacher, indicated that:

> After examining various components of Man: A Course of Study, I now believe I have enough information to argue against the fallacies and loopholes and the project's secular teachings. Such teachings go against my personal beliefs and the Christian mission the school believes in.

Teachers varied on their opinions on how MACOS would be facilitated in their school. Opinions indicated some level of variance in the value of the design of the MACOS project and its overall effectiveness in teaching cultures. Such concerns mirror Russell and Byford's (2006) research which suggests that many teachers often neglect teaching controversial materials, such as the MACOS project, due to the lack of classroom control and comfort in students openly discussing and debating controversial teaching techniques or curriculum.

Project developers, Jerome Bruner and Peter Dow, created the MACOS project with the belief students should discover and learn about oneself and their unique interactions and relationships with nature and other worldly cultures. When asked if teachers believed MACOS was appropriate in teaching about various cultures and their relationship with the animal kingdom in their middle school classroom, all teachers stated no. All twenty participants suggested MACOS was not appropriated for middle school students and such curriculum could have a dangerous impact on the school's educational mission. However, each teacher stated a possible willingness to implement selected lessons of the MACOS project in their high

school division.   The overwhelming lack of support for the use of MACOS within the middle school was summarized by Donna, a 25 year veteran of the middle school.

> I believe that middle-school students are too young. They are at an age where they are developing a belief-system. Too many will believe something is true just because it is written in a book or presented by a teacher. I believe 11th and 12th grade students can handle these subjects if all sides of the questions are presented and discussed. It is necessary for people to know what they believe about these practices.

In addition to the overwhelming resistance to the MACOS project within the middle school context, some participants believed students at the middle grade level could be harmed by the use of MACOS' curriculum and its associated elements. Selected units of sample MACOS material centered on the culture and practices of the Netsilik Eskimos. Such practices of infanticide and the de-valuation of human life provoked the strongest reactions from the participants. One participant, Sue, gave support for the MACOS project at the high school setting due to the more mature level of reasoning required and the higher level of interpretation needed. Sue suggested:

> I believe middle school students are too young, even from the strongest families, toapproach subjects like genocide, euthanasia, etc. Students at the middle school levelsimply don't have the necessary ability to sometimes grasp such abstract topics and then make value-based decisions about other societies cultural practices. High schoolstudents are older and have by their junior of senior year been exposed to more lifeexperiences, which I believe makes a big difference when faced with value dilemmas.

Lou, a teacher of ten years, added to Sue's concerns of higher level materials and assessments by describing the possible effects in the use of controversial material with students who possible lack the basic foundation and preparation of controversial material when he stated:

> The students need to focus on getting their thinking skills in line before tackling something that would "mess" them up in their thinking about normal events. I mean "mess" in the sense that students are faced with dilemmas they might be able to handle, coupled with the use of value-based situations and justifying each decision. This subject matter is a little too much for a child still trying to figure out the course of normal events.

Sue and Lou's responses were typical of the participants interviewed. Exploring other cultural practices and new approaches towards learning aided in the sometimes unfavorable reviews and assertions that MACOS lessons creates moral corruption, anti-religious propaganda, and humanistic behavior, communism (Woolfson, 1974). As a result, all teachers questioned the rational of implementing MACOS at the middle school level when many of the skills needed to interact and comprehend this curriculum have not fully developed.

Conclusion

During the interview process it was clear middle school teachers had a variety of opinions and perceptions towards the MACOS project curriculum and its implementation in their school. In interviewing all participants, it became evident the curriculum provoked a strong and often aggressive response. It is not possible to characterize all participants under one perception or theme as it became evident that perceptions were grounded in philosophical beliefs. It did become clear that all teachers interviewed could be categorized under three themes previously mentioned. Overall, most teachers sensed the negatives outweighed the positives in regard to possible use of MACOS within the classroom.

The division among those interviewed seemed to be centered in the role of the school in preparation of students for the future. One group of teachers expressed a strong desire that their role was too prepare their students for their place as a member of the global society with a Christian worldview. The remaining teachers did share the importance of their students developing a Christian worldview, but stopped short of allowing

the discussion of controversial cultural practices to take place within the classroom. The question still unanswered in the minds of many teachers is how influential is the study of someone else's cultural practices on the minds of students. If in fact, the feeling of teachers supports the interaction with controversial cultures, the question that is still posed is at what age students should be exposed to such cultures.

Future Research and Recommendations

Future research in this area is of great importance as this debate will intensify as society moves to a more global society. It is certainly conceivable that the practices of the Netsilik Eskimoes once found morally reprehensible in the 1960's could certainly look quit tame compared to other cultures students are exposed to on a regular basis with the use of the internet. It certainly may be too that teachers need to evaluate not only each class, but each individual student to see if they are ready to be exposed to different and often troubling cultural practices. One area of future research recommended by the authors would center on how much of an impact the exposure of "unacceptable" cultural practices has on middle school students. Have they, in fact become desensitized to these issues because of the ever increasing pushing of the envelope as far as acceptable practices. Another area of investigation should center on what grade level is acceptable to begin to investigate controversial topics. It is certainly possible the common thread of acceptance of some form of the MACOS project could be limited exposure to some cultural experiences within the correct grade level.

As Christian teachers wrestle with a sense of ever changing moral acceptance and wide variance within other cultures around the world, confidence must be expressed in their students that some exposure to controversial issues will not derail their overall mission of preparing students to be good students and to live morally sound lives. Teachers must also remember student's will have to compete in and live within a global economy, and the job of teachers is to prepare students to succeed and often success comes with exposure and reconciliation of things different than what is normal or acceptable.

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135-142.

Adventures in Alternative Teacher Certification: A Tale of Nimbleness and Adaptation or Why Ralph Waldo Emerson was Right to Defend Inconsistency

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Abstract

There are many factors to consider when starting a teacher alternative certification program. Careful planning and attention to detail, along with great flexibility, can make the program a success, even if it differs from the original vision. Missteps and changes of course can lead to ultimate success, as long as the creators can adjust to ongoing changes with nimbleness and adaptation.

Introduction

In the fall of 2006, Florida Atlantic University's College of Education received notice that it had been awarded a U. S. Department of Education Transition to Teaching grant to help non-education majors (career changers and recent college graduates) earn course by course alternative certification to become teachers. Our partners were two large counties in South Florida and one more isolated, small, rural county. The terms of the grant were essentially that Florida Atlantic University over five years would enable 310 participants, most career changers or recent college graduates, to alternatively earn Professional Certification, but the participants were also to include 30 paraprofessionals who had at least 60 college credits and who were currently experienced teacher aides. Our grant

has drawn to a successful conclusion, as we used this past year to track our final participants, and we have learned a great deal from our experience.

The faculty members involved in the grant quickly swung into action in fall 2006 to get Pathways to Teaching started two months later in January 2007. We had to make the rounds of counties to recruit, had to quickly get students to provide enough documentation to be admitted to the program and to the university as non-degree-seeking students, had to put courses on the schedule, and had to find non-traditional venues to hold the courses to accommodate the students. While many grant recipients spend a semester or two planning, we had lain out a very clear path as we wrote our grant application, and we felt it was very important to immediately get the program up and running and to work out the wrinkles as we went. One benefit of starting immediately was that we could track the success and retention rates of early participants for several years.

We set up a page on the College of Education website and had brochures printed up, but most of the very early recruiting was in person and by word of mouth. Our two big counties were very helpful in spreading the word to their teachers on temporary certificates, and in directing inquiries and new applicants to Pathways. In the midst of all this, three of the faculty members involved had moved into administration, and eventually one became Dean of the college. As dean, she was the liaison with our partner school district administrations, ensuring that we could accommodate their needs for new teachers. At the time we were awarded the grant, the potential need for teachers in Florida was estimated to be 30,000 over the next several years, but, to paraphrase William Butler Yeats, "The center did not hold"! The first several years, most participants were very successful in finding jobs or retaining the jobs they had on Temporary Certificates, but with the recession and the financial environment in Florida, one of the states hit hardest by the recession, the job situation became increasingly difficult.

From the beginning, it was clear that we would need to give the paraprofessionals, also known as teacher aides, a great deal of attention. The three districts combined estimated that they had at least 30 qualified people, but when we ran recruiting workshops that fall, it turned out there were only about 15

qualified paraprofessionals. Of that 15, we quickly discovered that a few actually had the bachelor's degree, so they could be put in the pool of classes needed by the other participants. That left us ten paraprofessionals who needed to earn the bachelor's degree, and we agreed that they could begin with the required same classes as the others, before continuing to the rest of their requirements. One of us went to a state-wide meeting for Transition to Teaching grant holders, at which two different groups stood up and essentially said to stay away from paraprofessionals, as they often had many personal issues and problems that had kept them from graduation and that they took up an inordinate amount of time. We resolved to provide the support they needed for success, and we managed to graduate six of the remaining ten, thanks to hard work on their parts and great flexibility on the part of our college, but we also found some of the same issues.

Most of our paraprofessionals came from the same isolated, rural county, where there is a community college but no four year school, and with jobs and families and over an hour commute to the closest four year school, they could not get there in time for even late afternoon classes after they left the elementary schools where they worked. Additionally, most had child care and transportation issues. We originally offered them classes at a school near their rural area, but they were not at all happy with that site, as they felt the drive to and from was isolated and potentially dangerous, and they refused to attend during the week, as they would be driving home in the dark in unreliable cars. Finally, we set up sections just for the six of them on Florida Atlantic University's northernmost campus, about an hour from their homes, and we ran the courses on Saturdays, so they could commute in a group and only have child care issues on the one day.

This situation meant very small classes and a disproportionate amount of money spent on them and their instructors, who were heroic in their agreeing to travel so far, first to the rural site and then to the northernmost campus. Many issues came up with the paraprofessionals, but most graduated and most got jobs. Two are still classroom aides looking to be hired as soon as their districts have some openings. All of them overcame significant barriers to success, and while some were

often discouraged, others were very self-motivated and were almost embarrassing in their gratitude. For most of them, the teaching jobs led to significant improvements in their incomes and their lives, so in that regard, having them as participants has been very rewarding.

Florida has very strict requirements for state-approved initial certification teacher preparation programs, but it is a relatively easy state in which to earn alternative certification, with fifteen credits of education courses usually required. Additionally, applicants can get an immediate Temporary Certificate if they get a job and have either majored in the subject they will teach or have passed the Subject Area Exam, and then they generally have three years to complete the course requirements and teach for a least a year during that time. Most people trying to reach Professional Certification through course by course efforts need the same cluster of three classes, with an additional two different ones each for either elementary or secondary certification, but there are minor differences and only the state Department of Education can evaluate the transcript and decide exactly what each candidate needs. Therefore, we required that Pathways applicants hold the Statement of Eligibility from the DOE detailing their individual requirements and that they pass the Subject Area Exam before they were admitted to the program. These requirements allowed us to concentrate on people who were able in their content areas, and we would teach them what they needed to know to pass the separate Professional Educator portion of the state exam. These requirements also allowed us to plan the various methods classes that different subject area participants required, because we always knew what subject areas were needed.

We began running classes when the semester began in January 2007. We had said we would run them in more convenient places for those in the rural areas at more convenient times than conventional courses, so we began with evening and Saturday classes in remote locations, in addition to classes on our urban campuses. To our surprise, as noted earlier, our rural constituency complained bitterly about the alternative locations and said they would rather travel farther to attend one of our several distributed campuses.

Another semester or two brought extended complaints about the late afternoon/early evening classes, as people with jobs felt too tired to drive and to attend at night. So by the second year, we were consistently running classes on Saturdays: five all-day sessions equals the required hours for a 3 credit class, so we were able, with careful scheduling around religious holidays, state test administration dates, closure of the university, and other considerations, to run at least two and sometimes three classes a semester, mostly on Saturdays, with a few full or partial distance-learning classes. Approximately 80% of the classes over the course of the grant were face-to-face, mostly in response to participant preference and also in an attempt to keep the quality up. We had heard some horror stories about extensive on-line programs, so tried to give students a lot of face to face support, especially in the classroom management and instructional strategies and assessment classes, and after the first semester, every class began with a short seminar in which one of us would take questions, explain the process, and help solve the inevitable knotty problems.

In common with many universities, some of our most difficult problems revolved around parking. Florida Atlantic University is a distributed university that shared campus space with three (now two, as we have closed a campus) former community colleges, now state colleges, so parking was a major issue, as each campus had different parking rules. We tried to run interference to no avail, and finally settled on impressing upon students the importance of constantly monitoring their university email so they were not assessed late fees for non-payment of parking, activity fees, etc.

The first couple of semesters, we enrolled students en masse in the special Pathways sections of required classes, with the help of student services, but we quickly found we spent a lot of time doing petitions to get people out who didn't want the campus they were on or who left the course without dropping— because we had enrolled them, they thought we would automatically unenroll them, which we were not allowed to do.

Once we got a system in place that we would send out the schedule and they had to send back their choice of class and campus, we would set up sections of classes based on preferred locations, and they would enroll themselves, things went more

smoothly, but then we found non-participants enrolling because they loved the scheduling! We had to close the classes to non-participants with a notation on the schedule and require permission, which we were able to coordinate with student services. Finally, we settled on doing the schedule dictated by student need and preference, then having them enroll themselves, thereby taking more responsibility. Along with the seminars, in which we repeatedly impressed upon them the importance of their actions, the scheduling eventually got everyone on track.

We had a similar rocky start with books, which were paid for by the grant. We required each student to buy the book and turn in his or her book receipt, and then processed the paperwork for reimbursement. This process quickly became unwieldy, as each student required 4 separate pieces of paper with various signatures, such that handling the reimbursements was taking way too much time. Not only that, but rural students complained that they could not get to the bookstore when it was open or that there were shortages of books, so they would drive an hour and not be able to buy the book. What made the situation more dire was that the courses were only five Saturdays long, so the students really needed the books the first day. Finally, out of desperation, one of us ordered all the books for a class about to begin and put it on her credit card and just carried them an hour to where they needed to be, and distributed them, and that worked out fine. So by the second semester, we just started ordering the books in bulk for all the classes based on predicted class count, then attending the start of each class to give out books, run the seminars, and trouble-shoot, which meant for a lot of driving and book-toting from campus to campus on the Saturday mornings when classes began, but made things run much more smoothly.

At the yearly grant director meetings some of us attended in Washington,

D. C., we were fascinated to hear people complaining about students who took the award money up front, then did not complete the program. Even in our relative naiveté about dealing with large numbers of alternative certification candidates, we were experienced enough with students to realize that the carrot ($500 completion stipend built into the grant to reimburse each

participant for the various state tests) had to be held until the Professional Certificate was earned, and that decision has stood us in very good stead. When we are following up on student success, it is much nicer and gets better results to email or call them to say we want to send them $500, so where is the Professional Certificate, than to have to berate them to send it.

One of our problems with reporting is that the many students who were successful in finding jobs and earning their Professional Certificates do not always remember to let us know, so a lot of time is spent chasing them down. We were very happy to find a state website where we could plug in student names and find whether or not the person had the Professional Certificate and in what subject. That was a bit problematic when females had married and changed their names, or when people were using nicknames in the problem (who knew that Cindy was really Lucinda?), but in general it was an enormous help, although for reporting purposes, we still needed additional information on each completer, but at least we knew whom to pursue.

Halfway through the five year period of the grant, the state DOE changed the requirements for course by course certification, substituting a reading class in place of multicultural education for secondary applicants, and no longer requiring multicultural education for elementary applicants but requiring a general education course in its stead, so we were able to make a relatively smooth transition to Reading in the Content Area for the secondary applicants and decided that Educational Technology would be a good general education course for the elementary applicants.

Another change was that when we began the program, students were required to teach for two years in a Florida school that participated in the new teacher program showing accomplishment of the Florida Educator Accomplished Practices in order to earn a Professional Certificate, in addition to taking their required coursework. However, about halfway through the grant, our new participants were bringing Statements of Eligibility that showed they only needed to teach for one year to earn the Professional Certificate, instead of two. This caused a rush on early participants going back to the state for updated Statements, so that they could earn their Professional

Certificates more quickly, and we were fully supportive of that, of course.

A third change that we found out about when students applied for new Statements of Eligibility in order to shorten the time required to teach from two years to one year, was that once students had taught for a year, the state started dropping credit requirements, so that students were not always required to take fifteen credits, but could earn Professional Certification with twelve or even nine credits, depending upon how long they had taught on a Temporary Certificate, so it took some attention to stay on top of this issue. Philosophically, we felt strongly that students should have all fifteen credits, but whether or not to take the extra three or six credits was their decision, although we usually prevailed in our recommendations, especially for the methods courses in their subject area.

Our biggest disappointment was that we had built a semester of student teaching into the grant for those who were not teaching on a Temporary Certificate, so they could earn their Professional Certificate before getting a job, if they so choose, but the state Department of Education, citing the fact that Pathways was an alternative course by course certification program, ruled that participants still had to teach for a year in order to earn their Professional Certificates, even if they had student taught. This decision had enormous ramifications for the program reaching its goal of 310 Professional Certified teachers as the recession came on and as jobs became harder to find and as teachers were more often laid off. As we write this, we have a large backlog of people who have completed the coursework part of the program but cannot get jobs, and were not able to earn their Professional Certificates in time to be reported as successful completers.

One way we attempted to deal with this problem was to accept more participants who were already teaching on Temporary Certificates, and so we knew that they would be able to fulfill their one year teaching requirement, because they already had jobs. Because participants turned away from the full semester of student teaching once they realized it would not gain them Professional Certification, we had funds to spend on more sections of courses for more applicants. At this point, we have had 470 participants, with 322 who earned Professional

Certification, exceeding our goal of 310 by the end of the grant reporting period. Clearly, we have spent the money wisely and could, in fact, have far exceeded our goal if hiring had not slowed so drastically.

Because hiring was such an issue in the last couple of years of the grant, we ran workshops on doing one's resume and on interviewing and tips for getting hired. We also discovered, admittedly inadvertently, that some of our best sources for getting participants hired were the adjuncts who taught the courses and who came to know and want to hire the very competent students. Some of our adjuncts were department chairs or administrators in the school districts, and they were very helpful in placing some of our students.

As the grant wound down, we spent most of our remaining time on contacting former students to find out their status. Most of them are successful and have been retained. We also get gushing emails from some, about how the grant changed their lives, so we can testify that it was money well-spent for the good of both society and the individuals. The teacher workforce in South Florida is rapidly aging, and as the state legislature contemplates additional changes to the retirement system, we understand from our partner counties that the pace of retirements is accelerating. So we have high hopes that our additional backlog of well-qualified students will get jobs and see success in their new professions after all of the their hard work. Now that we have all the wrinkles out and are expert at doing alternative certification, our department is proposing a new master's degree that would incorporate the required courses and let students roll them into master's credits, and we have a new appreciation for creative, flexible scheduling for students beyond the bachelor's degree. So in that way, we hope to continue to serve students who wish to earn alternative certification, in addition to our regular clientele of education majors.

Advice from the Trenches
1. Be flexible.
2. Put up a website as soon as possible, so you have somewhere to refer people for information. Also, prepare an informative paragraph to answer emails.

3. Create flyers as soon as possible, so you have condensed information to hand people who inquire and in counseling sessions before and after admission. Our flyers included pertinent state DOE application and testing information, as well as state and TTT requirements to earn Professional Certification.
4. Find out state requirements and stay current on them as they change: partway through our TTT grant, the state changed from requiring multicultural education to requiring reading in the content area, and also dropped the teaching requirement from two years to one year, so we were able to guide some of our participants to apply for a new Statement of Eligibility, with which they were able to earn Professional Certification a year earlier than expected.
5. When participants are admitted, be sure to get their personal non-college email addresses. At first, we tried to keep them on college email, but we realized it was very difficult to contact them for tracking once they finished their coursework and the university shut off their college email.
6. Never give a financial incentive up front—it is hard enough to get information from participants once they finish the coursework and leave the university, but we used the completion stipend as a carrot—and we still have trouble tracking some completers.
7. Check for state databases so you have another source of information about who earned Professional Certification.
8. Appear at the start of each course and give the same, repetitive standard speech and take any questions, especially if you have rolling admissions, as we ended up having—this will head off many problems from parking issues to drop procedures.
9. Put as much responsibility as possible on participants: originally, we registered them en masse in cohorts—some didn't read their email and didn't know they were registered, so never attended; some wanted to drop and figured we would drop them since the registered them (we couldn't); some attended other sections because they thought that would be more convenient. Because we spent much of the first year helping participants petition to get out of courses they didn't attend, to change sections or campuses, or to

drop or add late, we found it worked best to have students register themselves so they took responsibility for which campus, for attendance, for dropping, or for parking issues (which were huge).

10. We settled on mass email stating which classes would be offered as grant-sponsored course sections on which campuses on which dates, then required students to send email stating which class sections they wanted permission to register for, so we would have a written record of their requests, but they had to actually register themselves, once they had permission. It was very helpful to have "permission required" for our grant sections, as we didn't do this the first semester and so had a number of non-participants who registered and were quite offended when they had to drop.

11. We paid a student services staff member to give extra help with the grant—this was very efficacious in aiding participants who often needed extra attention and in setting up and emailing to students permission to register.

12. Have Plan B: when the state refused to accept our participants' student teaching as filling the teaching requirement, because Pathways was an alternative certification program, we redoubled our efforts to help participants get jobs so they could earn Professional Certification on time.

13. It helps to run interview workshops and job guidance workshops. We also got someone from campus placement run a resume workshop.

14. Don't trust a graduate assistant with too much detail—misspelled or mistyped names and/or email addresses can cause major problems with disseminating information and with later tracking for results.

15. Be meticulous in record-keeping and find out up front what information will be needed for later reporting—this is very important, especially as the U. S. Department of Education requires reporting at various times of the year—even though you have to track participants chronologically, it is very helpful to also have an alphabetical index—otherwise, it is too difficult to look up information about each student.

16. Be prepared to be very encouraging and soothing, especially for participants who have been out of school for a long time

and find it confusing to return, especially in light of so much new technology—they may need help in electronically registering for class, in using the state database to register for tests, in submitting electronic portfolios to schools, etc.

17. Try to maintain good relations with your local districts, as they can send you participants who are working for the district on temporary certification.

18. Use the participants for outreach and as resources, especially for job placement. We had many participants who were guided into their jobs by other participants with whom they were in classes. We also had good luck with adjuncts from the local districts guiding participants into jobs at their schools.

19. We quickly went to using purchase orders for ordering books en masse, then bringing them to the first day of each class to distribute at the same time we gave the encouraging introductory speech and took questions and tried to troubleshoot any issues students were having.

20. Be flexible and try not to get caught in a recession when teaching jobs are being cut!

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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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THE OAKLAND CITY UNIVERSITY STORY

In June of 1885, the Educational Board of General Baptists organized and then gained a charter from the state of Indiana to operate a college in Oakland City, Indiana. However, because of a lack of funds, the first building, a two-story brick structure housing the administration and classrooms, was not complete until 1891 — the same year Oakland City College actually opened its doors for classes. In those early days the school was called "the college on the hill."

By the mid 1920s, the school had reached a zenith for the first half of the century. There were now several college buildings gracing the grounds, including an expanded administration building, Wheatley Hall, a women's dorm, a field house, Memorial Gym (which housed a library in the basement), Cronbach Hall (a building used for agricultural and industrial arts classes) and a two-story brick building called the president's house. Beside the normal, liberal arts, and theological school, the college had added a large industrial and agricultural department to respond to the vocational needs of the rural area which it served.

Sports teams of the 1920s included basketball, baseball, football, and track. Teams regularly played Indiana State, Evansville College, University of Louisville, and Ball State. By the mid 1920s, a legion of clubs could also be found on campus. Among them were the YMCA, YWCA, Phi Alpha Literary Society, Germanae Literacy Society, Athenian Literacy and debating team, a standard debating team, the ETOSCA club, the Dramatic League, the French Club, the German Club, the Glee Club, the college orchestra, and the college band. Enrollment during these prosperous times often broached 1000 students a semester.

Sadly, this comfortable world came to a screeching halt in 1930 with the coming of the Great Depression. Grimly, the school held on with faculty and staff often forgoing paychecks in order to keep the school running. The end of World War II and the GI Bill helped to cause resurgence in enrollment, and by the mid 1960s, the "college on the hill" experienced an upswing comparable to the 1920s. Several new buildings now crowned the campus, including four dormitories, a new library, Brengle Hall, a science building, and Stinson Hall.

The winding down of the war in Vietnam wrought a substantial drop in enrollment. By the fall term of 1973, the college found itself with an overabundance of empty dorm rooms. Fortunately, the institution endured this difficult period. In the 1990s the college moved to university status. Presently, the school has an enrollment of 2000 and has seen the construction of no fewer than nine new buildings in the last few years. Today, the university stands fully accredited and offers five graduate degrees and over forty undergraduate programs.

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