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EDITOR'S NOTES

The Fall 2021 issue of the *Journal for the Liberal Arts and Sciences* showcases a half dozen studies that touch upon several important issues in today's world of education. Researchers included in this edition come from several colleges and universities: the University of Tennessee, Knoxville; University of South Alabama; Hartwick College; University of South Carolina, Aiken; Radford University; The University of Memphis; Valdosta State; Ivy Tech College (Indiana); University of Southern Indiana; and Oakland City College.

Several of these research efforts deal with social studies education topics. The shadow of the present pandemic looms over the first article, an examination that compares the experiences of two preservice social studies teachers where, in one case, classes were completed face to face, while the other class occurred online. A second social studies piece looks at a kinesthetic approach for teaching students with exceptionalities. A third study offers a new approach for teaching about command economic systems, while a final social studies themed work offers a innovative way to use films to help students better understand the Cold War.

Other subjects examined in this edition beyond the social studies curriculum offer an examination of what motivates parents to employ school choice, the issue of inclusion in a rural secondary school setting, and an inquiry into the possible relationship between high school dropouts and their parents' education level.

Randy Mills, Editor
Journal for the Liberal Arts and Science

A Tale of Two Clinical Experiences: A Qualitative Study Examining Two Pre-service Social Studies Teachers' Perceptions of a Hybrid Internship

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Abstract

This qualitative study shares the differing experiences of two social studies teacher interns completing their year-long clinical internship at the same rural high school in the Southeast United States. Kenny completed his internship virtually with a mentor who taught in-person, while Dolly completed her internship in-person with a mentor who taught virtually. In the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is important for social studies teachers to have an integrated knowledge of not only content and pedagogy, but technology also. By studying the experiences of real pre-service teachers who are reliant on their constructed knowledge from EPP coursework and guidance from mentors who are struggling all the same, we aim to highlight considerations for EPPs moving forward. In doing so, hopefully, we can begin re-imagining clinical internship experiences to ameliorate some of the issues that have existed pre-COVID-19. The purpose of this study was to investigate how and if the dissonance between social studies teacher preparation and virtual teaching and learning at the intersections of content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological knowledge impacted the preparedness of two pre-service social studies teachers.

Introduction

Despite my physical absence, I feel absolutely comfortable going and teaching in person next year because my mentor was able to still model in-

person practices. I think that one of the beauties of having your internship be virtual is that it prepares you both for teaching in person and potentially being a full-time licensed online teacher. Whereas if you are only present physically, I don't think you would still be as prepared to teach solely online. And so, I think that this virtual internship has made me more versatile and creative. (Kenny, Spring '21)

I've had a good experience. But it is not one that I envisioned, and it is not one that I would want for future interns. I looked up to my mentor. He's a great guy. But I don't think that there are enough benefits to outweigh the cons of having a virtual mentor. (Dolly, Spring '21)

The above quotes are from two social studies interns who completed their year-long clinical internship during the 2020-2021 academic year at a rural high school in the southeast United States. Both interns and their mentors were expected to teach using a hybrid model. For the school they were teaching at, this meant that in-person students and virtual students were learning together synchronously through an online learning management system (LMS). Kenny (all names are pseudonyms) completed his internship virtually and was assigned to a mentor teacher who taught in-person. Dolly completed her internship in-person and was assigned to a mentor teacher who taught virtually. The complexity of these mentor/intern pairings was not intentional by the interns' educator preparation program (EPP) or the partner high school where they completed their internship. Rather, it derived from the mentors' and interns' respective decisions regarding personal safety and comfortability in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic. The above quotes articulate the two interns' vastly different experiences, while working with their mentors not only to develop their practical social studies teaching skills, but also to collaboratively navigate the unique circumstances as a result of COVID-19 within the context of their district, school, and mentor/intern relationship. In no way do we aim to criticize either mentor teacher by sharing the quotes above. Rather, we open the paper with these quotes to introduce some of the intricacy regarding social studies teacher preparation and clinical experience modalities during the COVID-19 pandemic we have noted in our examination of the data compiled in this study.

Without a doubt, the COVID-19 pandemic has challenged the global education community at all levels to reimagine what both P-12 and higher education

schooling looks like. Many teachers across the United States were forced to pivot from in-person teaching to some mode of virtual instruction (e.g. synchronous, asynchronous, or blended). While certainly digitally-mediated teaching and learning are not new phenomena (Dawley, Rice, Hinks, 2010; Desoff, 2009; Henschik, 2009 Molebash, 2004; Waters and Russell, 2016), this nearly ubiquitous shift in teaching by P-12 teachers in the United States is noteworthy considering that few EPPs in the U.S. offer curricula for virtual teaching (Dawley et. al, 2010). Furthermore, less than 2% of EPPs offer virtual clinical experiences (Kennedy & Archambault, 2012) for preservice teachers to learn and develop the unique pedagogical and technological practices associated with virtual teaching and learning. In their 2016 study, social studies education researchers, Waters and Russell warned that the dearth of virtual teaching opportunities and virtual pedagogical methods courses in EPP programs could pose serious problems in the field moving forward.

Alas, nearly four years later the COVID-19 pandemic compelled teachers across the globe, whether they were ready or not, to rapidly transition their instruction to some form of virtual modality. As a result, this presented new challenges associated with maintaining learning and supporting students' well-being (Dong, 2020; Huang et al., 2020). Specifically, teachers struggled with converting learning tasks into virtually conducive activities, integrating online resources into their practice, and maintaining communication with both students and parents (Blau & Shamir-Inbal, 2021). Blau and Shamir-Inbal (2021) posited that "these challenges for teachers were caused by insufficient technological and pedagogical support or by inexperience in using online tools on a daily basis" (p.4). As Koehler and Mishra (2009) point out, teachers need more than just robust knowledge of content and pedagogy for effective instruction, they also require an understanding of how their content and pedagogy may change given the application and integration of technology. Certainly, the challenges associated with the transition to technology-dependent teaching and virtual learning could have been alleviated had more teachers been trained through EPPs that provided virtual pedagogical methods courses and educational technology courses tied to their disciplinary curriculum and virtual clinical practicums (Molebash, 2004; Waters & Russell, 2016). Clearly, virtual instruction requires substantial technology integration. However, the teacher's content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological knowledge should work synergistically to support effective teaching and learning when technology is integrated within the learning environment (Angeli & Valanides, 2009; Bower, 2017; Koehler and Mishra, 2009). The lack of virtual

pedagogical methods courses and clinical experiences in many EPPs coupled with the abrupt shift in teaching modality as a response to COVID-19 brings into question not only the preparedness of pre-service teachers completing their clinical experience, but also the in-service teachers who serve as mentors.

Purpose

As aforementioned, this qualitative study shares the differing experiences of two social studies teacher interns completing their year-long clinical internship at the same rural high school in the southeastern United States. Kenny completed his internship virtually with a mentor who taught in-person, while Dolly completed her internship in-person with a mentor who taught virtually. The purpose of this study was to investigate how and if the dissonance between social studies teacher preparation and virtual teaching and learning at the intersections of content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological knowledge impacted the preparedness of two pre-service social studies teachers. Therefore, the research question that guided our study was as follows:

1. How do pre-service social studies teachers experience a hybrid clinical internship with a virtual mentor?

Review of Literature

It's important to reiterate that virtual teaching and other forms of digitally-mediated instruction that require substantial technology integration have consistently risen in popularity over the last decade prior to COVID-19 (Greaves et al, 2012; Molebash, 2004; NEPC, 2018; Waters & Russell, 2016). From the corpus of research on this topic, it is clear that effective virtual instruction is dependent on teachers having an integrated knowledge of content, pedagogy, and technology to support student learning within the context of the educational environment (virtual, hybrid, or in-person) as a whole (Angeli et. al, 2009; Desoff, 2009; Greaves et al, 2012; Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006, 2009; Molebash, 2004; Mouza, 2014).

Until this point, research has largely focused on optional virtual clinical experiences that were organized and planned for these environments, and the need for virtual pedagogical methods courses to keep up with the needs of P-12 schools (Desoff, 2009; Kennedy & Archambault, 2012; Waters & Russell, 2016). Few studies have reported the impacts of the rapid transition to a technology dependent classroom on pre-service teachers and in-service teachers navigating this abrupt shift (Dong, 2020; Huang et al., 2020). Our

study seeks to share the experiences of two social studies interns who were thrust into these environments, while relying largely on face-to-face practices learned in their EPP and guidance from their equally untrained mentor teachers. In studying the two interns' experiences, we aim to share how what we have learned about the critical role of social studies methods courses, and clinical experiences in this study may be used to address some longstanding issues needing attention prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. In the following sections, we review relevant scholarship surrounding virtual teaching and learning and social studies teacher preparation.

Virtual Teaching and Learning in the United States

The need for virtual pedagogical teaching methods to facilitate students' virtual learning has been growing substantially in U.S. public schools for years prior to the COVID-19 pandemic (Miron, Shank, & Davidson, 2018; Waters & Russell, 2016). In fact, the National Education Policy Center's (NEPC) 2018 annual report virtual schools have grown substantially in the U.S. with a reported 429 full-time virtual schools enrolling 295,518 students, and 296 blended schools enrolling 116,716 students (Miron, Shank, & Davidson, 2018). Also, the NEPC reports that enrollments in virtual schools increased by 17,000 students between 2015 and 2017, and enrollments in blended learning schools increased by 80,000 students during this same time period (Miron, Shank, & Davidson, 2018). While these numbers continue to grow, many EPPs have yet to design program pathways that prepare pre-service teachers to be "highly qualified" virtual teachers (Waters & Russell, 2016).

While the criteria for what exactly constitutes a "highly qualified" virtual teacher is somewhat ambiguous (Hemschick, 2009; Waters & Russell, 2016), scholarship highlights that teaching in virtual learning environments is idiosyncratic and requires a refined skill set that differs from traditional face-to-face pedagogies (Dessoiff, 2009; Hemschik, 2009; Waters & Russell, 2016). In fact, Koehler and Mishra (2009) posit that, "teachers need to master more than the subject matter they teach; they must also have a deep understanding of the manner in which the subject matter (or the kinds of representations that can be constructed) can be changed by the application of particular technologies" (p.65). Specifically, teachers must be able to discern which pedagogically-coherent practices are logistically sound for integration, such as how to use the technology, how to model its use, and how to scaffold students' user skills and understanding of the technology tools needed. Certainly, the evolution of pedagogical decision-making involving technology integration and facilitation

looks different across content areas (Molebash, 2004). Thus, for the purposes of this article, we focus on social studies education.

Social Studies Teacher Preparation

Social studies teacher development is complex, especially as there are nuances and intricacies that make the subject look different in each state in terms of curriculum and teacher preparation (Desimone, 2009). Social studies teachers must be trained not only to teach content curriculum, but also to teach the transferable skills associated with the content area (e.g. historical thinking, critical inquiry, and reasoning) to help cultivate students into well-rounded citizens (Desimone, 2009; Jacobs, 2013; Thacker, 2017). While the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has provided sound resources for purposefully teaching a complex federation of curricula, social studies teachers still require and deserve robust training to develop an integrated knowledge of content, pedagogy, and technology (Joo, Park, Lim, 2018; Molebash, 2004; Waters & Russell, 2016). In fact, Mishra and Koehler (2006) concurred with Molebash (2004) by positing that that technology integration around the specific subject matter requires “sensitivity to the dynamic, transactional relationship between these components of knowledge situated in unique contexts” (Koehler, 2012, para. 3). As with any instructional decision making involving the use of technology, if content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technology knowledge are not working synergistically, the teacher runs the risk of cheapening the sensitive lessons being taught (McBean & Feinberg, 2020; Mishra and Koehler (2009), Molebash, 2004).

For example, McBean and Feinberg (2020) examined virtual social studies curriculum and found several shortcomings, including the omission of racism in historical content. This is problematic as “the omissions of race and racism in historical events limit the knowledge and perspectives for students to develop critical perspectives” (McBean & Feinberg, 2020, p.73). Pre-service social studies teachers should be adequately prepared to reach their students and teach critical social studies content in ways that defy dominant mono-culture narratives. However, as Koehler (2012) posits, “good teaching [in all content areas] requires an understanding of how technology relates to the pedagogy and content” (para. 11). Thus, this signals a need for pedagogical technological knowledge to be integrated into teacher preparation and development.

A Need for Technological Knowledge in Teacher Preparation and Development
In 1995, the U.S. Congress called for national standards for training teachers on

the use of computers and technology for teacher licensure (Molebash, 2004). Some colleges and universities addressed this standard by including stand-alone foundational technology courses focused on the universal pedagogy of classroom technology integration (Molebash, 2004). In 2004, educational researcher, Philip Molebash explored preservice teachers' perceptions toward social studies, social studies teaching, and technology-enriched social studies instruction during a teacher preparation methods course. From his study, he posited that before preservice teachers can become effective users and facilitators of technology, they must first overcome aversions from previously held conceptions of social studies and technology integrated within social studies education (Molebash, 2004). Essential in this addition of technology to social studies education is the teacher's knowledge and ability to choose and integrate effective tools and specific and relevant strategies for the content being learned within the context of the educational environment as a whole (Porrás-Hernández et al., 2013). It is important to recognize that these practices and decision-making skills are not innate. Rather, they must be learned through a combination of EPP course work and clinical experiences, which are key indicators of pre-service teacher success (AACTE, 2010, 2018; Darling-Hammond, 2014).

EPPs are the primary agents responsible for preparing "highly qualified" teachers in the U.S. (Waters & Russell, 2016). Thus, they should be charged with redesigning their program pathways to offer pedagogically coherent methods courses that mirror the technological reality of public schools. In practice, this would involve weaving technological knowledge throughout their content-specific curriculum, as well as clinical experiences where pre-service teachers have the environment to refine their virtual teaching skills (Molebash, 2004; Waters & Russell, 2016). This specialized technological pedagogical content knowledge might empower teachers to leverage the most effective methods for teaching specific content to improve student learning outcomes that otherwise couldn't be accomplished without the use of technology (Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Molebash, 2004; Mouza, 2014).

Navigating Uncharted Waters...Again

In the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic, we have witnessed, yet again, social studies education, along with other content areas evolve in terms of how curriculum is delivered and the modality in which it is learned. It is clear from the existing literature that teaching in virtual learning environments is idiosyncratic and requires a refined skill set that differs from traditional

face-to-face pedagogies (Dessoiff, 2009; Hemschik, 2009; Waters & Russell, 2016). Shulman (1986) posited that teachers' understanding of pedagogy and content area knowledge are interrelated with both being important for effective instruction. Given the reality of the 21st Century classroom, it is important for teachers to have an integrated knowledge not only of content and pedagogy, but also technology. By studying the experiences of real pre-service teachers who are reliant on their constructed knowledge from EPP coursework and guidance from mentors who are struggling all the same, we aim to highlight considerations for EPPs moving forward. In doing so, hopefully, we can begin re-imagining clinical internship experiences to ameliorate some of the issues that have existed pre-COVID-19.

Theoretical Framework

Since our study focuses largely on the notion that virtual teaching and the corresponding technology integration requires a synergistic and integrated approach, we employed the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) theoretical framework (Mishra & Koehler, 2006) in this study. TPACK expands Shulman's (1986) Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) framework which maintained that teachers' understanding of pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge are interrelated, with both being important for effective instruction, and adds that technological knowledge is also an integral part of that instruction. Additionally, TPACK accentuates the new forms of knowledge that exist at the intersections between the three domains, namely: pedagogical content knowledge, technological content knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Additionally, research has pointed out that context is an important element of TPACK that must be taken into consideration as well (Rosenberg et al., 2015). The TPACK framework must be considered within the context of the subject matter, grade level, classroom type, and the technology available (Mishra et al., 2006).

Mouza et al. (2014) described TPACK as a "dynamic and flexible body of knowledge influenced by both rapid changes in technology and the bidirectional relationship between knowledge and practice" (p. 208). TPACK was germane to our study as it helped us conceptualize the two interns' idiosyncratic experiences through a framework that emphasized the synergistic integration of pedagogy, content, and technology for the purposes of learning design (Angeli & Valanides, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2009). Additionally, it allowed us to more purposefully identify and understand the dissonance between social studies teacher preparation and virtual teaching and learning

at the intersection(s) of pedagogical content knowledge, technological content knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge that emerged from the data. Figure 1 is a visual representation of the TPACK Framework.

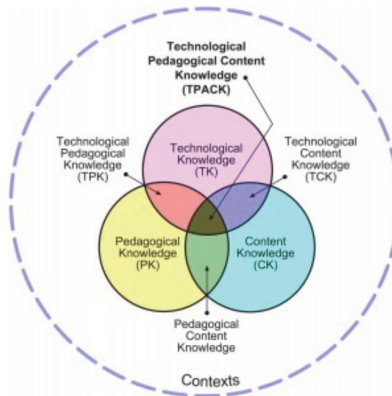


Figure 1. TPACK Theoretical Framework <http://tpack.org>

Methods

Participant Population & Recruitment

Our study explored the differing experiences of two pre-service social studies teachers completing their clinical internships at the same rural high school. The two interns were identified through recommendations by university professors who were familiar with the nature of their internship placements. Dolly completed her internship in-person and was paired with a mentor who taught completely virtually, while the second intern completing an internship virtually was paired with a mentor teacher who taught in-person. Both interns were recruited via email and invited to attend an informational Zoom meeting with us to discuss the purpose of this study. During the Zoom meeting, we explained the parameters of the study and reviewed the informed consent form. After the discussion, potential participants were sent the consent form to sign and return to us. Once the informed consent forms were received from both interns, we made interview requests via email.

Data Collection & Analysis

After reviewing the literature, we used a validated interview guide created by Waters & Russell (2016) to conduct semi-structured interviews to answer the research questions. Employing the semi-structured interview protocol allowed us to “see [secondary social studies teacher interns], and their interpretations, perceptions, and meanings and understandings, as the primary data sources” in the study (Mason, 2002, p. 56). We conducted one 60-minute interview via

Zoom with each intern. These interviews took place toward the end of their year-long clinical internship. To understand the two interns' experiences and perceptions of preparedness to enter the field as secondary social studies teachers, we employed a qualitative analytical approach.

During the interviews, we audio recorded the conversations and took field notes. Interviews were transcribed immediately following data collection. Transcriptions of the data were coded in two coding cycles. The first cycle made use of description, emotion, and values coding. Each type of coding was utilized to summarize the primary topic, classify the feelings of each participant respective to the primary topic, and examine the participant's attitude and belief systems at work, respectively (Saldaña, 2015). As the focus of this study was to examine the experiences of social studies interns completing their clinical experience, coding methods that honed in on various forms of expression relevant to each participant's clinical experience were utilized. The second coding cycle made use of pattern coding to identify any reoccurring themes that were then categorized using the TPACK theoretical framework (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Findings

Again, the purpose of this qualitative study was to investigate how pre-service social studies teachers experience a hybrid clinical internship with virtual mentors. The findings stemmed from the two interns, Kenny and Dolly, who completed their year-long clinical internship simultaneously at the same rural high school. Kenny completed his virtually in a U.S. history classroom and was paired with a mentor who taught in -person. Dolly completed hers in-person in a world history classroom and was paired with a mentor who taught virtually. Using the domains of knowledge from the TPACK framework (e.g., content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological knowledge) as themes, we examined how Kenny and Dolly articulated their experiences.

Content Knowledge

Content Knowledge refers to the disciplinary-specific subject matter, skills, concepts, and curriculum being taught. Data surrounding this theme are indicators of the role that content knowledge played in affecting Dolly's and Kenny's hybrid internship experience. Both Dolly's and Kenny's content preparation varied by discipline. Kenny had earned a bachelor's degree in geography whereas Dolly's content preparation was in history and political science. Despite these disciplinary differences in content preparation, both

participants expressed feelings of confidence in their level of preparation. Dolly described her level of confidence stating,

I feel like, in terms of social studies content and pedagogy, I still feel 100% prepared. I have never not felt prepared in that...

Kenny echoed similar sentiments stating,

In terms of content knowledge, I feel very prepared. That's been my guiding core in principle, but the issue is the peripherals if you will, how do I translate that content knowledge and make it engaging for hybrid learning.

While Dolly and Kenny both recognize that their content knowledge is valuable, it alone is not enough. Many of the challenges that they experienced while participating in their internship experience stemmed from pedagogical knowledge and the ways in which they could translate their confidence in their content to pedagogy.

Pedagogical Knowledge

Pedagogical knowledge refers to the knowledge and practice of teaching and learning. This knowledge extends to knowledge of purposes of education, planning, assessment, and classroom management (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Both Kenny and Dolly ascribed the challenges they experienced during their internship to their level of pedagogical knowledge and preparation, notably in the areas of lesson planning and classroom management. Participants attributed experiencing growth and development in their pedagogical knowledge to challenges in relationship development with their mentors as well as the quality of feedback that ensued.

Challenges in planning

Both participants described challenges they encountered when attempting to translate that content knowledge to lessons and lesson plans. These challenges often extended to how they could adapt their content and instruction to a virtual environment. Kenny described these challenges further,

...I probably felt the least prepared when it came to planning for a hybrid lesson. I sometimes struggled with figuring out what to

do to make things more engaging for the online students who aren't physically in the classroom.

The idiosyncratic nuances of their hybrid learning environment challenged both interns to consider the instructional implications of how technology might potentially modify the delivery of the curriculum content. Dolly elaborated on these challenges, saying,

I probably felt the least prepared...planning...I feel like something that I really lacked was how to properly manage my planning time to figure out like, hey, what can I do during this? You know, like what can I look ahead for? What can I do? That's something, probably, that I definitely think that I was lacking...

Kenny and Dolly both reported that they had to learn how to make connections to the content and teach it in ways that were conducive and engaging for everyone in the hybrid classroom. While they felt confident in their content knowledge, that level of confidence seemed to waiver as it became necessary to translate that content knowledge across multiple formats.

Challenges in format

Both participants engaged in their internship through a variety of formats. Kenny spent the first couple of weeks being physically present but with rising complications from COVID-19, switched to a virtual format. Kenny described the variables that he had to contend with as a result of this format shift while having a physically present mentor:

We have students who are present physically and students who are present virtually. So, in any given class period, we have four different variables, a physically present teacher, a digitally present teacher, physically present students, and digitally present students...

Dolly, who was physically present in the classroom with a virtual mentor described similar challenges with regard to the format, noting,

...because my teacher was virtual, they took his classroom and gave it to another teacher. So, he didn't have a classroom. He didn't have a base. So, we ended up having to go to different

classrooms because he didn't have a specific one. So, our set up was...we had speakers and I had like an extension cord with a Chromebook. And I would log on through the Google Meet every day of our classroom and we would set him up and then he would talk, we could hear him, and we could see him, but he couldn't [always] see everything that was going on...

Both interns indicated that the varying formats and the impact of teaching within such format variance often amplified the challenges that they felt. Both Dolly and Kenny were placed in the position of having to account for the needs associated with these multiple formats while also attempting to build relationships with both their students and their mentors.

Challenges in developing mentor relationships and receiving quality feedback

Both participants indicated that they respected their mentors and felt supported throughout their internship. However, participants had differing experiences in the development of their relationship with the mentor. Dolly described this relationship stating, "...I think it took longer to build the relationship between me and my mentor, to where I was comfortable even telling him, hey, these kids aren't getting what you are teaching...". While Dolly felt that having her mentor virtually present made it difficult for her to develop a relationship, early on, Kenny did not experience similar challenges with development of the relationship but rather, challenges in the level of feedback he was able to receive from his virtual mentor.

...there are times when I wish that I had a little bit like, a little bit more from him in terms of, like, when I teach a lesson, I'll be like, Well, how do you think that went? And then he would say, "I think it's good...I think they responded pretty well to it. We did the best we could, etc. Right?" And he does offer me feedback...I wish there was a little bit more feedback, I guess, or more specific...But I'm at the point now where I understand that, although his feedback is often short and a bit terse in ways that is not intended to be that way...

Both Dolly and Kenny described needing more feedback from their mentors and that the lack of feedback ultimately, had an impact on their perceptions

regarding the growth of their pedagogical knowledge. Dolly discussed the impact of having feedback from a virtual mentor, saying,

...that was really hard...he wasn't there to give feedback after each lesson. If a physical teacher is there and saw that the kids weren't getting it, he could be like, hey, why don't you ask this question? Where he's not there and he's not watching me the entire time or watching the kids the entire time...it's like, everything's on a lag.

As both participants were working to develop their pedagogical knowledge, experiencing this lag stagnated their perceived growth, in real time. Dolly elaborates on this lag and the impact it had when she was attempting new instructional strategies: "...if you do something new and I begin floundering... I don't have that backup in there watching me to help me...In real time, you can always address it in the moment or talk about it later..." Both participants felt that having the ability to discuss lessons, in depth, and receive feedback in real time, were crucial to their development as teachers.

Challenges in classroom management and student relationships

In addition to challenges associated with instructional feedback from mentors, both participants indicated that fostering student relationships and classroom management were an area of struggle for them. Kenny attributed these struggles in developing student relationships to the format noting,

...I was physically present there for the first couple of weeks last semester, where I would latch on to conversations between classes, or I would see a student in the hallway and say, hey, how are you doing? How did you feel about that quiz, etc. right? And so not being able to rely on those tools has forced me to be more creative with fostering these sorts of relationships with students. And so that I think is, is one of the negatives of this format, not impossible, but much more difficult, I think, overall, to foster student teacher relationships...

Where Kenny attributed these challenges to being virtually present in the classroom, Dolly experienced similar challenges despite being physically present, as she could not readily observe the ways in which her mentor interacted with the students. She stated,

...it's so different in person...having that teacher in person and seeing them, how they move around the room, how they kind of handle problem students or like their attitudes, like the shift in tones and stuff. Like body language...[since] he was virtual, classroom management was hard for me to kind of like gauge or learn because I couldn't see....

Both participants indicated that developing relationships with students and classroom management were pedagogical aspects of teaching that needed to occur in person and that in order for both to feel confident in these interactions, having the ability to observe their mentor teacher in these interactions was paramount to their growth.

Feelings towards the outcome of the internship

Despite the challenges that both participants faced during their internship, both felt that they were able to grow in their pedagogical knowledge and were confident in their abilities going forward. This perception regarding the outcome of their internship is attributable to each participant's approach to the format in which their internship took place. Kenny elaborated, stating the following:

...I am completing my internship, virtually, I still feel confident in saying that there are things that I have learned during this internship that are impossible to teach through any other means." He believed that the internship, in its virtual format, made him an even better teacher, better than if he had been physically present. He felt that he was still able to get the necessary practice in "...things like creating and evaluating assessments...direct instruction...to work on inquiry-based learning..." Dolly expressed similar sentiments, noting that while lessons could have been more engaging, lively, and interactive, she felt that her internship experience made her "...more independent in the sense of...I'm like, can I do it? Do you think I'm ready for this next step? And then once I got to the next step, I'm like, okay, I'm ready. I realize, I'm ready. I've got it...

Both participants felt that their level of preparedness, challenges with planning, level of feedback, and their relationships with both students and their mentor presented challenges during their internship experience. Despite these challenges, both participants felt that they were emerging from their internship

prepared and confident to enter the field. Both expressed the necessity of the internship year and the value of that internship when coupled with the effective pedagogical preparation they had received in their EPPs.

Technological Knowledge

Technological Knowledge refers to the knowledge and usage of technology with respect to the level of confidence possessed by an educator. This level of confidence in relation to the usage of technology is demonstrated in the educator's ability to effectively plan for the use of technology in the classroom even when technology may not necessarily be required. The use of technology during COVID-19 was an unanticipated adjustment to how both participants envisioned their internship year. Kenny described this shift of expectations noting, "I knew that technology and the importance of technology was rising in classrooms, but I never imagined that I would be teaching virtually for my internship." Dolly echoed these sentiments, stating that she has had "...a good experience but it is not one that I envisioned...." While the use of technology was not an anticipated element concerning the format of each participant's internship, both participants felt that their use of technology presented not only challenges, but also opportunities to expand their pedagogical knowledge and adapt their instructional approach.

Technological adaptability and support

Both participants discussed the ways in which their format encouraged them to develop and adapt their pedagogy with respect to their instructional approach. Kenny described how presenting virtually pushed him to develop alternate ways of presenting content:

...because I am present virtually, and because this creativity is required of me, through necessity, [I have] to teach in a number of ways using a number of different resources that are available, you know, online...I think that it has made me more diverse in terms of the way that I can present material or have student or facilitate learning....

While Kenny felt that he had a plethora of virtual options available to him, Dolly felt that locating these resources presented a challenge. Dolly described these challenges further noting,

It's really hard to do different kinds of instruction other than just like lecture or mostly, videos or like prerecorded things, because you have to always like, think about what if the internet goes down and I can't talk to the kids directly. So, you have like prerecorded lectures or like online resources....

Dolly felt that these challenges were exasperated by her inability to directly observe her mentor using different only resources and strategies.

I couldn't see different teaching strategies, different teaching styles, like physically. Like, I can look it up, but to actually see them in practice and to see my mentor teacher in action and going through the process to where I can kind of like model or like look at it to then implement myself...I think that element was lacking from the experience.

Given Dolly's physical presence in the classroom in relation to her mentor's virtual presence, she often felt that she was left to troubleshoot any technology issues that occurred. She described instances in which technology would go out and her mentor would not be able to log on resulting in her being left to "pick it up and do it" and feeling like she had to adapt to the situation. Her perceived level of support seemed to directly impact her perception regarding her ability to make technological instructional adaptations.

...because I am in an internship, I don't necessarily have the time or interns don't have the time to go and research all these new great ideas. So, you kind of rely on your mentor teacher to say, hey, this lesson, I've done this and this grouping strategy works or here's this really cool, like inquiry-based strategy, etc., to like really get your brain going. And I kind of missed out on that because I couldn't see it in action before really doing it. It's almost like you're kind of like fumbling through it and like there's hiccups obviously, which there is in normal cases, but maybe more so in mine because I don't really know in essence, what it's supposed to look like, or where I should start.

While Dolly indicated feeling the push to adapt in the classroom but also a reluctance to attempt new strategies, Kenny, despite feeling that virtual

instruction pushed him to be pedagogically creative, did not feel supported in his EPP to meet this creative challenge.

Obviously with my situation being a little bit unique in that I am virtually present, I didn't feel as supported as the rest of the students in the cohort...Going forward, especially if a virtual internship is offered as an option, I think our programs should offer a different section or certain classes for teaching virtually...because I think that there are certain things that do not translate...I did not feel as prepared as I could have been....

While both participants indicated possibilities that technology afforded their instruction and felt confident in their abilities to teach virtual students, they both identified a need for additional technological support from both their EPP and their mentor teacher during their internship. As COVID-19 placed both participants in the position of having to make adaptations while in the field, participants varied in their level of comfort in making those adaptations.

Implications

Our study explored how pre-service social studies teachers experience a hybrid clinical internship with a virtual mentor. By examining their articulated experiences, we were able to learn valuable information regarding how they navigated these challenges. Our findings demonstrate that their experiences were characterized by the lack of synergy at the intersections of both interns' content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological knowledge. Specifically, many of the challenges Dolly and Kenny experienced while participating in their hybrid internship stemmed from pedagogical and technological knowledge and the ways in which they could translate their confidence in their content to both pedagogy and technology. All things considered, we believe that our study has implications for educator preparation programs more broadly. The following paragraphs include our interpretations of the findings with respect to EPP methods courses and clinical experiences.

A major consideration that stemmed from our study's findings is that teacher educators should re-evaluate their methods courses to ensure they are appropriately addressing how technology alters the K-12 teaching and learning process. Dolly and Kenny completed EPP methods coursework prior to and during their year-long clinical internship. Both interns felt that their coursework and their respective instructors prepared them with pedagogically coherent

strategies for teaching and learning social studies in the secondary grades. Kenny elaborated on his experiences in the methods courses by stating, “these classes were incredible for me and I feel like they really just grabbed my idea of social studies pedagogy and just shaped it into what it is now.”

However, Dolly and Kenny recognized early on during their internship that the pedagogical knowledge and instructional strategies they had acquired from their EPP coursework were largely designed to be conducive for face-to-face instruction, not hybrid or virtual instruction. As such, they both attributed their challenges in planning, presentation of instructional content, assessment, and classroom management to their lack of knowledge regarding how to confidently translate these elements in a hybrid learning environment. This finding concurred with previous scholarship which highlights that that teaching in virtual learning environments is idiosyncratic and requires a refined skill set that differs from traditional face-to-face pedagogies (Dessoiff, 2009; Hemschik, 2009; Waters & Russell, 2016).

We realize that it is impossible to prepare pre-service teachers for every challenge they may face in the field, especially in an online or hybrid learning environment with so many compounding variables impacting teaching and learning. Nevertheless, the strategies and practices being learned in education methods courses should reflect the realities of the field as closely as possible. Our findings support that there is a need for technological pedagogical content knowledge to be woven throughout disciplinary-specific methods courses. EPP faculty can help their students develop reflexive skills and expose them to available resources and tools. Introducing pre-service teachers to technological pedagogies in methods courses might strengthen their confidence in planning learning experiences for online contexts they might experience in the field. Additionally, it might assuage the challenge of adapting their instruction to a virtual or hybrid learning environment. For social studies, this might entail exploring new web-based tools and devising new methods for appropriately converting learning tasks, such as primary source analysis, whole and small-group discussion, project-based learning, and other concept development activities. Moving forward, teacher educators must reimagine their EPP courses to ensure they are adequately developing pre-service teachers’ pedagogical repertoire by instilling conducive practices that demonstrate an impact on learning that may not otherwise be possible without technology.

Findings from our study also indicate that colleges of education should consider including virtual and/or hybrid clinical experiences as part of their educator preparation programs. Clinical experiences are vital components to teacher development, and they should be reflective of the field. They situate pre-service teachers to connect the theory learned in methods courses to practice in the field. Neither intern anticipated that they would be completing their clinical internship via a hybrid format. Similar to their methods course, their field experiences prior to their year-long internship did not include virtual or hybrid experiences.

Dolly and Kenny's comfort level varied in accounting for the needs associated with their hybrid learning environment. Kenny affirms this by stating, "We can read about theory and teaching strategies all day long, and it's great and it's important, but until we see how they manifest in the day to day through something like an internship, I don't think we can be prepared to teach without it." Though Dolly felt that sometimes her challenges were amplified because her mentor was virtual and she was in person, she echoed similar sentiments stating, "I feel confident in saying that there are things that I have learned during this internship that are impossible to teach through any other means." Despite facing challenges that waivered their confidence at times, Dolly and Kenny both believed their internship allowed them to grow in their pedagogical knowledge in ways not previously afforded by their methods course work.

As mentioned earlier in this article, hybrid and virtual models of teaching are not new phenomena. Since 2015, virtual and blended schools across the U.S. have experienced prolific growth with hundreds of thousands of students enrolling each year (Miron, Shank, & Davidson, 2018). Moreover, the COVID pandemic thrustured many schools across the country into compulsory hybrid and virtual learning environments, whether they were ready or not. Nearly two years later, many school districts across the country are still offering hybrid and virtual options to their students.

Findings from our study indicate that it is valuable to offer pre-service teachers experiences teaching a variety of contexts, not just face-to face. EPP program faculty have a duty to prepare pre-service teachers through a combination of methods coursework and clinical experiences that are reflective of the realities of the field. This means situating their pre-service teachers to experience as many modalities of instruction present in the field as possible. We recommend that EPP programs consider incorporating clinical field experiences that expose

pre-service teachers to online modalities of teaching, such as virtual or hybrid, prior to their clinical internship. Perhaps doing so will not simply prepare future interns in the event of another crisis similar to COVID; rather, it might allow them to simply experience an alternative route to traditional classroom teaching that is becoming more common.

Limitations

While this study produced findings and implications for educator preparation programs to consider, there were also some limitations of this qualitative study that must be highlighted. First, the findings and implications relied solely on Dolly and Kenny's perceived experiences of the hybrid clinical internship. To extract a more comprehensive understanding of the hybrid clinical experience presented in this study, we could have interviewed other members of the clinical internship triad (e.g., mentor teachers and university supervisors). Future studies should focus on the mentor and university supervisors' experiences to better understand potential challenges they were facing as they worked to support their intern. Additionally, our findings should not be assumed as generalizable considering the obvious limitations of our sample size. Future studies with larger samples in varying contexts would extend this body of research further. Finally, further research studies are needed to determine, more specifically, how traditional social studies teaching and learning practices are converted to be made adaptable to make sure virtual/hybrid learning environments is essentially moving forward.

Conclusion

As mentioned earlier, scholarship has largely focused on optional virtual clinical experiences that were organized and prepared for these environments (Desoff, 2009; Kennedy & Archambault, 2012; Waters & Russell, 2016). Few studies have reported the impacts of the rapid transition to a technology-dependent classroom on pre-service teachers and in-service teachers navigating this abrupt shift (Dong, 2020; Huang et al., 2020). Our study extends the corpus of scholarship related to virtual/hybrid teaching and learning by highlighting specific challenges that Dolly and Kenny faced when being thrust into hybrid learning environments. It is in no way our intention to soften or downplay the significant hardships experienced by pre/in-service teachers caused by COVID-19. Rather, we find it pertinent to recognize and commend the innovative ideas and opportunities that have emerged as teachers continue to navigate the challenges and overcome obstacles they are faced with daily in these alternative learning environments. As Waters and Russell (2016)

indicated, “education programs can no longer passively sit to the side and hope that online learning is a passing trend.” EPPs must consider ways they can they prepare and support their pre-service teachers moving forward. Initial steps include understanding not only how the technology used for online learning works, but also how it fits pedagogically and contextually within the learning environment.

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Kinesthetic Social Studies for Students with Exceptionalities

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Abstract

As classrooms are becoming more diverse and inclusive, general education teachers are now required to find innovative ways to teach content authentically. The implementation of kinesthetic learning, which incorporates whole body movement into instruction, may be a useful, cost-effective strategy to reach and provide access to all learners. This strategy has proven to increase student engagement and achievement (Culp, et al., 2020) and may also be effective for diverse learners as it provides a hands-on approach to practicing concepts and content knowledge. Keywords: kinesthetic learning

Introduction

Social studies has an image problem, particularly amongst students. For decades, students have not only decried the subject's lack of relevance to their daily lives but have also lamented the formulaic and often uninspiring ways in which it is presented (Chiodo & Byford, 2006; Gibson, 2012; Zhao & Hoge, 2005). Though numerous calls have been made to change this apparent paradigm of relational disconnection and instructional routinization, social studies remains rooted in the ubiquity of the lecture-read-show-write model of instructional design and delivery (Bolinger & Warren, 2007; Lintner & Kumpiene, 2017; Russell, 2010; Russell & Waters, 2016; Van Fossen, 2012).

Arguably, such disconnection and routinization effects the learning opportunities and outcomes of students. The lecture-read-show-write approach found in many social studies classrooms does little to support or

enhance the learning needs of students, particularly those with exceptionalities (Ciullo & Dimino, 2017; Ciullo, et al., 2015; Hughes & Parker-Katz, 2013). One instructional framework that does support the learning needs of students with exceptionalities – particularly in social studies classrooms – is kinesthetic or action-based learning (Bender, 2012; Casey, et al., 2018; Connor & Lagares, 2007; Crawford, et al., 2007; Minarik & Lintner, 2016; Paggi, 2018; Schulte, 2005; Scruggs, et al., 2008; Steele, 2007; Sunal & Haas, 2005; Taylor & Larson, 2000). Indeed, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) specifically encourages the use of “problem solving, debates, simulations, project-based learning, and role-playing” as active, kinesthetic strategies that facilitate student discovery and foster student engagement (National Council for the Social Studies, 2017). By incorporating kinesthetic strategies into social studies classrooms, learning becomes active, challenging, integrative, and both meaningful and relevant to the lives and experiences of all learners (Morris, 2008). Students understand social studies by experiencing social studies.

Kinesthetic Learning

A common misperception is that tactile and kinesthetic learning are similar. While there are certain physical and pedagogical overlaps between the two, there are clear distinctions in preferred learning characteristics. Tactile learning involves fine motor movements, often exclusive to the hands and, hence, focuses almost exclusively on the sense of touch. Conversely, kinesthetic learning engages the whole body. Kinesthetic learning allows students to “feel” – both literally and perceptually – the content being presented (Major, 2016). Students are out of their desks and physically interacting with their surroundings (Mobley & Fisher, 2014).

There is a direct correlation between active, kinesthetic learning and student comprehension and engagement (Culp, et al., 2020). Simply stated, providing students multiple opportunities to physically engage with the content fosters more sophisticated and personal understandings. Kinesthetic learning provides students another layer, if you will, of access and understanding that can complement other instructional modalities. Most importantly, it mitigates the lecture-read-show-write instructional model that may hinder content comprehension for many students, including students with exceptionalities.

Though admittedly cursory in scope and application, there are three distinct ways in which kinesthetic learning enhances student engagement through hands-on application of the social studies content. First, kinesthetic learning

bridges the often “so what” conceptual and practical divide by making learning relevant to the interests and experiences of individual students. Second, it fosters and welcomes creativity, innovation and curiosity in how students approach, interpret and ultimately demonstrate their understanding of the content. Lastly, kinesthetic learning is rooted in inquiry, thus affording rich opportunities for exploration, evaluation and action. Given this, kinesthetic learning has the potential to shape the way educators design instruction to support and enhance the learning opportunities of all students, particularly students with exceptionalities in the social studies classroom.

Rethinking Traditional Social Studies Instruction to Meet the Needs of All Learners

Traditionally, social studies instruction has consisted of teacher-led activities, including lectures, text-based activities (e.g., answering reading comprehension questions), and the use of primary and secondary sources. Student-led activities (e.g., group work, projects) typically consisted of analysis of documents and sources and research of historical people and places. Although these activities are important in the acquisition of social studies content knowledge and critical thinking skills, using only this type of instruction can make social studies seem monotonous, leading students to be uninspired and disinterested.

This is especially true for students who find text-based instruction challenging to comprehend and apply. Students with learning disabilities (LDs) often have processing difficulties, which can make reading comprehension challenging. These difficulties can “constrain students’ ability to engage in content area courses” (O’Connor, et al., 2019, p. 231). Thus, instruction that is primarily text-based may make skill and knowledge acquisition difficult for students with LDs as “understanding text remains an elusive goal” (Boardman et al., 2016, p. 409) for these learners.

Because students with LD spend the majority (80%) of their school day in general education classrooms (McFarland, et al., 2019) and require effective teaching strategies to learn (Cook et al., 2009), it is vital that all classroom teachers utilize research and evidence-based practices (e.g., explicit instruction) to reach all diverse learners, including those with exceptionalities. Thus, both general and special educators need to implement strategies that promote skill acquisition, application, and generalization.

To achieve this, teachers can utilize the Universal Design for Learning [UDL] (CAST, 2018) framework. In fact, Cook and colleagues (2016) noted the use of both UDL and evidence-based practices may lead to improved outcomes for students. UDL, which is student-centered, consists of three overarching principles, including multiple means of (1) engagement; (2) representation; and (3) action and expression (CAST, 2018). This framework can help teachers plan instruction using inclusive practices proactively (Cook et al., 2016), rather than reactively.

The engagement principle of UDL provides teachers with ways to encourage participation, such as maintaining student interest and effort (CAST, 2014). Activities promoting student choice and providing authentic experiences (CAST, 2014) can help students generalize the skills and determine the potential relevancy of such skills in their lives.

Moreover, practices encouraging student engagement are supported by research for students with disabilities. High-leverage practices [HLPs] (McLeskey, et al., 2017) concisely outline “what works” in special education. Although HLPs are intended to guide teacher preparation programs, they can be helpful for practicing teachers, as well. Specifically, McLeskey and colleagues (2017) identified 22 practices related to collaboration, assessment, social/emotional/behavioral practices, and instruction. One of the indicators related to instruction is the promotion of active engagement (McLeskey, et al., 2017). Researchers recommend the use of authentic activities that encourage participation and motivate students to learn the content.

To increase student engagement and promote authenticity of activities for students with LDs, teachers can integrate multisensory approaches to learning. Multisensory instruction encourages teachers to incorporate the five senses and movement into lessons (Morin, 2021). This approach is often found in the literature in reading and math instruction, yet it can be implemented across various content areas.

Whole-body movement activities (e.g., kinesthetic learning) in social studies instruction, can solicit student engagement by asking students to “experience” the content instead of just consuming it. Students become active participants in their own acquisition of knowledge and skills. Additionally, the use of authentic, relevant activities can encourage students to evaluate how they could use the social studies content or skills in real-world applications.

Kinesthetic learning has the potential to positively impact the learning outcomes for students with LDs as it encourages engagement and promotes generalization of content knowledge. Before implementing this type of instruction in inclusion classrooms, it is important to consider if students need pre-instruction. That is, students with LDs may need explicit instruction related to the background knowledge of the skill or concept in order to have access to the movement activities. This strategy, however, has the potential to solicit and maintain engagement and provide a hands-on learning experience that can serve as a useful, relevant practice opportunity for students with LDs.

Kinesthetic Activities in Social Studies

There are several methods to integrate kinesthetic learning in social studies inclusive classrooms. These methods promote student engagement by giving students the opportunity to “experience” social studies. These can include human maps, simulations, and anchoring devices.

Human Maps

Using students as physical landmarks is a great way to teach complex topics with movement. Here, students will learn about the lawmaking process by first physically mapping out both the Capitol Hill and the White House and then literally walking through the step-by-step process of how a bill becomes a law and the process of checks and balances. To begin, teachers will need a map of Washington D.C. that clearly delineates Capitol Hill and the White House. Creating a human map generally needs an abundance of space. An outdoor space or open space in the gymnasium or lunch room works best. Each student represents a building on Capitol Hill that supports the bill making process. To “Build the Hill” at least 11 students are needed.

How to Build the Hill

- Students line up to represent different buildings on the Capitol Hill
- Students should be arranged to reflect a map of buildings including:
- Capitol (3 to 5 students to construct the dome, senate and house chambers)
- Supreme Court Building (1 student)
- Library of Congress (1 student for each building — Jefferson, Madison, Adams)
- House and Senate Office Buildings

Senate Office Buildings	House Office Buildings
Russell (1 student)	Rayburn (1 student)
Dirksen (1 student)	Longworth (1 student)
Hart (1 student)	Cannon (1 student)

Table 1: List of Buildings

Also, at least one student can serve as the White House which is located off Capitol Hill grounds.

As the teacher arranges the students, a brief description of the House and Senate office buildings is provided, including who works there, the building's purpose, and a cursory historical overview of each building's namesake. Next the teacher selects students to represent the three distinct Library of Congress buildings, the Supreme Court building, and finally the White House.

Once the students are lined up, the teacher selects 2-3 students to represent a proposed piece of legislation (e.g. universal uniforms in all public schools). These students would then begin to move around the Hill representing how a bill works its way through the legislative process. Students (and their bill) would start as an idea in the Congressional offices before being introduced as legislation. Hearings on the bill would be held in a committee and a debate would take place on the floor of the chamber where the bill was introduced (either the House of Representatives or the Senate). The bill would then move from location to location with students identifying the current step and predicting the next step in the legislative process. If the bill is passed, students would repeat the same process but in the other branch of Congress. A student can represent the White House to illustrate the powers of the President to both influence legislation and subsequently veto the bill or sign it into law. The Supreme Court can also be included to demonstrate how the constitutionality of a law can be challenged.

Simulation

There are some kinesthetic experiences that students are familiar with that can be used to teach historic events. In this activity, students will build small LEGO or building block models of cars or other small vehicles in order to better understand the invention of the assembly line and its impact on

industrialization. For an activity like this, the teacher needs eight to ten small building block sets, each containing approximately six pieces and directions for assembly. The teacher creates one or two assembly line teams, with one person assigned for each piece of the model. The teacher also selects a couple students to be solo model assembly workers who will build the entire model without assistance. Students are tasked with assembling as many models as possible in two-minutes. The assembly lines are typically able to build multiple models while the individual students struggle to build one or two. Students then compare their experiences in relation to the impact of the assembly line on the mass production of goods.

Anchoring Devices

Anchoring devices are powerful tools to support the long-term recall of information by helping students connect new concepts to information they already know (Bulgren et al., 2013). In this lesson activity, kinesthetic movement is used as a cognitive and conceptual anchor to help students remember certain characteristics of the Cold War. The teacher begins by asking students to identify select features of a Tug-of-War game. The students then share a few features of the Cold War. After briefly discussing characteristics of both a Tug-of-War and the Cold War, students are divided equally into two teams. Each team takes one minute to strategize how best to win a Tug-of-War game. Once the directions are given (emphasizing both safety and civility), students use a 20-foot vinyl rope to engage in an actual a one-minute Tug-of-War. At the conclusion of the game, students are asked again to articulate characteristics of the Cold War. The teacher then facilitates a whole-class discussion where students compare their Tug-of-War experience to their understanding of the Cold War. A graphic organizer is provided to assist in student organization. Lastly, the teacher uses a Concept Anchoring Routine or a CIRCLES Venn Diagram to facilitate the connection between kinesthetic learning (Tug-of-War) and historical understanding (the Cold War).

Create the Venn diagram

Introduce concepts/events/people

Reveal characteristics

Compare characteristics

Locate always present characteristics

Explore concept definitions

Summarize the diagram

CIRCLES Venn Diagram

A Tug of war is a strategic struggle involving two teams using physical strength without direct contact to pull the opposing team across a line using rope.

The Cold War is a strategic struggle between two nations with different beliefs who use military power to dominate without violent confrontation.

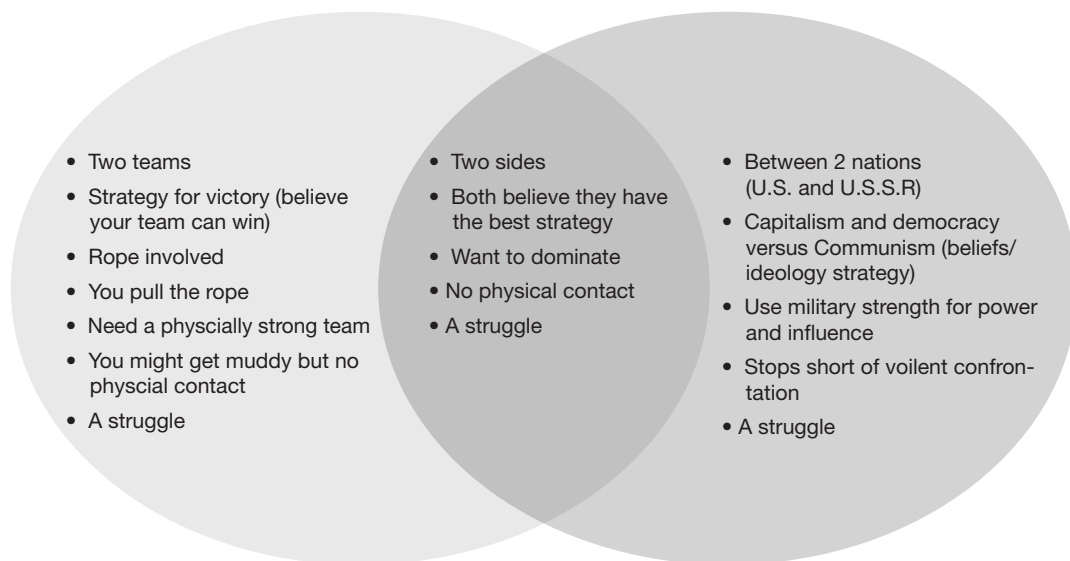


Diagram 1: CIRCLES Venn Diagram Example

Summarize

The Cold War is like a Tug of War because both have two sides believing they have the best strategy and they want to dominate each other without direct physical contact.

Source: Adapted from the CIRCLES Venn Diagram created by the American Civics Center, LLC

Kinesthetic activities are typically 20-minutes in duration and may involve a small number of students or the entire class.

Conclusion

Kinesthetic learning has proven to increase student engagement (Culp, et al., 2020) and may be effective for students with LDs as it provides meaningful activities that are relevant to students' lives. Social studies content can seem unwieldy for students, as it is full of complex concepts, difficult vocabulary, and at times topics without obvious real-life connections. Many students, including those with learning disabilities, struggle with short term memory recall and transferring information from short term memory into long term memory for later retrieval. Providing kinesthetic brain-based strategies that gain student attention through stimulation of the senses and bodily movement allows students to better recall information and apply it to higher order thinking tasks (Sanchez, 2017). Thus, this type of learning creates high energy inclusive classrooms where students generalize social studies content using interactive, movement-based activities.

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An Examination of What Motivates Parents to Take Advantage of School Choice in One Indiana School Region

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to analyze why Indiana's state school choice program was chosen by some parents. Specifically, the research wanted to know what the priorities were in choosing to enact school choice.

Introduction

Research has shown that school choice has existed in the United States for some time (Betts, 2005; Betts & Loveless, 2005; Rauch, 2015; Wolfe, 2003b). But, while school choice has been around for many years, it is still very much an issue. Feinberg & Lubienski (2008) noted of the issue of school choice, "Perhaps no school reform has generated as much interest and controversy in recent years as the simple proposal to have parents select their children's schools" (p. 1). Recently, regions from across the country have allowed a school choice model that enables families to choose from a vast selection of public schools— charter schools and other options regardless of where they lived (Rauch, 2015). Also, many states--such as Arizona, Florida, Indiana, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin--have developed school choice options (Brasington & Hite, 2014). In this regard, DeVos (2017) contended that families needed educational alternatives in addition to their traditional neighborhood schools and established grant funding to empower parents to enroll their children in the schools that best suited their needs.

Indiana, the state involved in this study, has one of America's largest school voucher programs (Ed Choice, 2021). It was perceived in Indiana that there was significant unmet demand for expanded public and private school choice, which was evident from the long waiting lists associated with most public voucher, private scholarship, and charter school programs (Viteritti,

2003). As Viteritte further noted, the demand was created predominantly by parents' motivation to leave failing schools and find more suitable educational opportunities for their children.

Advocates and opponents of school choice have held significant debates regarding the validity of school choice. However, researchers agree the concept of school choice is permanent and possibly growing (Betts & Loveless, 2005). In this process, supporters of publicly funded private school choices attempted to change education in the United States; however, they struggled against a public-school system that possessed a monopoly on education, assigned children to schools, and controlled the money (Van Dunk & Dickman, 2003). The latter educators and administrators held to Horace Mann's principles regarding government educations and schools (DeAngelis, 2019; Gutmann, 1999). Further, Van Dunk & Dickman, 2003, asserted that public schools dominated the provision of education and possessed no incentive to improve. On the other hand, some scholars contended choice made parents more active, especially those who possessed the ability to leave assigned schools and choose schools they felt were better for their children (Abernathy, 2005).

Some research showed that school choice can lead to a greater degree of inequity (Lenhoff, 2020). Glenn (2003) contended, for example, "One of the charges commonly brought against policies that would provide public funding to support parental choice of schools is that they could lead to a proliferation of schools of poor quality or harmful influence upon children" (p. 173). Also, Shaffer and Dincher (2020) feared schools in the free market are less likely to enroll students with special needs, limited English proficiency, LGBTQ+ status, and students from racial backgrounds.

However, whether one agrees with school choice, it is here to stay, at least for the time being. What may be essential for public schools to understand is what motivates parents to exercise their right of school choice, moving their child from one school to another; if school leaders understand why parents are seeking to send their child to another school, they may be able to address those needs and thereby keep those students in their school system.

Interestingly, researchers have typically argued that the main reason parents want their children to go to another school has to do with the academic ranking of the chosen school (Hasting & Weinstein, 2008). This would suggest that the most important quality of a school, to the parents, is academic achievement.

This study seeks to find out if the above idea is correct and if not, what qualities are they seeking. Again, it is important for schools losing students to school choice to know the causes so they might be able to address them.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze why Indiana's state school choice program was chosen by some parents. Specifically, the researchers wanted to know what the priorities were in choosing to enact school choice. Brown & McLaren (2016) noted that lawmakers initially promoted the Indiana state school voucher program to foster equality for students, as it offered children from poor and lower-middle-class families an exit plan from public schools that fail to meet the students' needs. At that time, the program excluded many students who were considered middle-class or wealthier families. However, Brown and McLaren noted that most of the school voucher recipients are not leaving schools that failed to meet the students' needs.

For researchers to better determine why parents were choosing to utilize their vouchers for their children in a school choice program, it was important to define the types of school choice. Research indicated school choice may include public-school options, vouchers, magnet schools, charter schools, schools within schools, examination schools, special non-zoned schools, and so forth (Gutmann, 2003; Rosenblum, 2003; Wolfe, 2003b). However, researchers pointed out problems with all types of these schools. According to learning gains on state tests, for example, many charter schools were not performing better, and some performed worse than neighboring public schools (Henderson et al., 2020). This goes against previously noted research that claimed parents were most interested in academic achievement. Interestingly, research also demonstrated that parental demand for charter schools was high and outstripped supply in many parts of the country (Henderson et al., 2020). Archbald (2004) contended that magnet schools remained the most common approach in relation to the number of districts and children involved. Magnet schools usually required students to pass certain tests to be admitted (Bell, 2008). This created issues because ethnic-minority students were accepted with lower test scores than their ethnic-majority counterparts who scored better on the entrance exams but were not accepted.

Method

In order to better understand what parents may have been looking for when making a choice to use school vouchers, this study used a survey which asked

parents a number of questions which allowed the researchers to identify 11 possible reasons for these parents using school vouchers. These reasons were the following:

1. Standardized Test Scores
2. Bullying
3. Large Class Size
4. Small Class Size
5. Sports/Extra-Curricular Activities
6. Teacher and/or Faculty Involvement
7. School Reputation
8. Family/Friend Influences
9. Politics
10. Socio-Economic Issues
11. Race/Segregation

As of 2019, there were 3,878 students who attended within the school districts surveyed. The sample size included all respondents (parents) to the 19-question research survey, which equaled 200 participants.

Results

After data from the surveys was analyzed, it was concluded there was a significant difference among the reasons for changing school venues. Between 139 and 143 parents responded to questions eight through 18, which involved the reasons for using school choice. Due to the facts the survey was optional and anonymous, the presumption was made that the parents were being honest.

Questions were divided regarding the use of school choice (Questions one through seven), why the parents and students chose to take advantage of school choice (questions eight through 18), and question 19 allowed the parents to offer additional insight or reasons for school choice. The largest percentage of students left their assigned public schools and enrolled in private schools. The second group of students left their assigned public schools and enrolled in public schools in different districts. These two groups represent 79.53% of the respondents.

The number one reason parents surveyed chose to move their students to different schools was teacher and/or faculty involvement. The question posed was, "Did teacher and/or faculty involvement in your child/student's learning

influence your decision to use school choice?” One hundred thirty-nine parents responded to the question. Fifty-seven parents responded, “a great deal,” 24 parents responded, “a lot,” and 20 parents responded, “a moderate amount.” One hundred and one parents, which was 72.67% of those who responded to this question, contended teacher/faculty involvement was a contributing factor to their decisions to move their students. Only 32 parents stated this reason had little or no impact on their decisions. (See Table 1.)

Reasons for Change post hoc Analysis

Reasons for Change		Number of Observed Significant Differences
1	Standardized Test Scores	5
2	Bullying	6
3	Large Class Size	8
4	Small Class Size	7
5	Sports/Extra-Curricular Activities	5
6	Teacher and/or Faculty Involvement	9
7	School Reputation	8
8	Family/Friend Influences	7
9	Politics	5
10	Socio-Economic Issues	5
11	Race/Segregation	7

Table 1

It was concluded that the significant difference found by the ANOVA was the result of teacher and/or faculty involvement, followed closely by school reputation, with large class size being the third choice. Teacher and/or faculty involvement and school reputation were the only two with statistical means less than three. Teacher and/or faculty involvement, school reputation, and large class size had the most observed significant differences.

Conclusion

In an effort to determine the motivation behind parents' use of school choice vouchers, researchers found in this study that teacher/faculty relations with students was a major contributing factor. Primarily, this research demonstrated that by far the two strongest reasons why parents use their school voucher was teacher/faculty involvement and school reputation. Information in this research may encourage schools to help improve teacher/faculty involvement as well as to find ways to address school reputation. As Feinberg & Lubienski (2008) noted, perhaps no school reform has generated as much interest and controversy in recent years as school choice. In this research, the survey results showed that 63.11% of the parents stated that the use of school choice had a significant positive effect on their students.

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Teaching Elements of a Command Economic System

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Abstract

Designed to be taught in a government, economics, or United States history course, this simulation focuses on a command economy's essential functions and principles commonly found throughout Eastern Europe from 1949-1989. Students, acting as consumers, must purchase all their goods found on their grocery lists. As with many Eastern Europeans, frustration quickly rises as students experience product shortages and surpluses based on the government's interpretation of consumer needs. Keywords: Command economics, simulation, communism, free-market and basic needs

Introduction

"I stood in line to buy toilet paper, coffee, and meat, only to learn there never was any toilet paper, and there was not the delivery of coffee or meat. So instead, I should have gone to another student store," described Jessica, an 18-year old government student. She participated in a class simulation on command economics when her class studied communism. Like most of her peers, Jessica intended to complete their assigned shopping list during the allotted time, only to realize that product scarcity and goods surpluses at government-controlled stores were common. After several rounds of student shopping, the result emerged a thriving black market economy, fueled by students who bartered and traded their way to complete the assignment successfully.

Characteristics of communism, precisely the concept of command economics, are often neglected or limited to a passing lecture when learning about the Cold War or comparative governments. Economic, political, and social movements are often abstract ideas with little student interaction. As former high school social studies teachers, we believe active, hands-on learning of abstract concepts such as communism increased student awareness and content retention. Such investigations of diverse political and economic structures blend well with the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, n.d.). Standards VI. Power, Authority, and Governance and VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption illustrate the relevancy of the political and economic structures divergent to the United States. To relate the concept of command economics and communism, we integrated the simulation technique to teach students alternative forms of government and economics. Students investigated and experienced frustrations of food shortages, product shortages, and favoritism for selected society members.

The use of simulations to teach social studies content can be traced to the New Social Studies movement in the 1960s and early 1970s. Projects such as the Harvard Social Studies Project, *Man: A Course of Study* and the High School Geography Project used the simulation approach to relay and explore content material while allowing students to engage in historical issues and historical events (Byford and Russell 2006). According to Pellegrino, Lee & d'Erizans (2012), classroom simulations may illustrate historical realities and a student-centered model. The positive effects of incorporating simulations into the curriculum are two-fold: First, students are subjected to classroom involvement while learning abstract concepts. Second, the use of simulations, small group interaction, and cooperative learning allows for students to 1) have a deeper level of insight; 2) become more active in the learning process; 3) retain knowledge and information longer than traditional (direct instruction) methods of teaching; 4) develop and reinforce critical and analytical skills, and 5) increase speaking, presentation and interaction skills (Slavin 1994; VanSledright 2004; Lennon, Byford, & Cox, 2015). Wright-Maley (2015) suggested that teachers who incorporate simulation qualities were significantly more likely to include value and engage in critical inquiry with their students than content acquisition alone through role-playing. Combined with open-ended responses, the activity role-plays provided students with historically accurate and realistic selections/actions. Such a dilemma encouraged students to become active participants whose actions or decisions directly influence the outcome.

Simulations often differ in complexity, length, and levels of interaction. While there are numerous methods of conducting a simulation, the following steps were helpful. Step One: Teacher instructions allow for a brief sentence of the general goal (non-measurable) one wishes to gain from the activity, in addition to measurable outcomes students are to achieve. Step Two: The procedure provides step-by-step instructions for the teacher and is presented sequentially to ensure all areas are submitted and covered. Step Three: Assessment or simulation outcomes provide students with clear expectations in either product or evaluation, an explanation of the winner or losers, or debriefing to discuss and illustrate critical attributes associated with the content material discussed in class (Byford, 2012).

Aim and Purpose for this Cold War Simulation

This simulation was designed to investigate the economic design and principles commonly practiced by communist Eastern European nations throughout the Cold War. As students wait in line to purchase common everyday materials, students are asked to confront three fundamental questions: 1) what are the potential strengths and weaknesses of a government-controlled and regulated structure of the distribution and sale of consumer goods, 2) what characteristics (if any) are similar to a free-market economy? 3) how might one purchase limited or scarce commodities while living in a communist society?; and 4) when do individual liberties and freedoms outweigh a government's power to control production and sell goods? Such a simulation activity lends itself when one teaches about the ideological and economic differences between command and free-market systems.

Historical Background of Eastern Europe's Planned Economics

All Eastern European economies under the sphere of the Soviet Union's influence operated on a planned economy concept modeled by the Soviet Union. Eastern European industry followed the strict heavy industry model of their Soviet occupiers from post-World War II onward to the fall of the Berlin Wall. Across Eastern Europe, steel industries and other heavy manufacturing forms dotted the landscape. All the communist governments in Eastern Europe indicated a planned economy's lasting benefits. They believed the radical transformation in society, a plentiful supply of raw material, and strong manufacturing would allow the government to provide goods and materials to satisfy their citizens' needs by planning products and allocating materials. This communist goal to meet the citizens' needs directly contradict and set it

apart from capitalism's demands for profit, and arguably, the working class's exploitation (Stitzel 2007).

By the late 1950s and early 1960s, most Soviet-occupied governments began the gradual shift from a heavily planned economy favored by the Soviet Union to a less restrictive proposed model that incorporated more personal responsibility. This theory became more sustainable to complete and sell products in East Germany, Czechoslovakia, and Poland. Salaries of both workers and supervisors depended primarily on the government-based competition among factories. Systemic flaws appeared within the planned economy model almost immediately after shifting from a substantial industrial base to a structured competition-based design. Such competition among government-controlled companies mainly proved unsuccessful. Since the government controls all products, retail prices, and supplies, competition among government-owned companies proved hopeless. Furthermore, supplying populations with basic needs (food, clothing, and shelter) eventually increased demand. Besides the basic needs in society, luxury items were not necessary under the doctrine of communism, and such leisure needs would be logistically impossible to produce and distribute among citizens (Rackel 2008).

A Command Economy

The rationale for low and affordable prices for the basic needs in Eastern Europe resonated with most socialist politicians. These politicians grew up under the previous post-war capitalist governments and lived in poor conditions with little food, supplies, and financial hardship. With the opportunity to establish a fixed pricing policy, every citizen would be guaranteed the essential needs in society at affordable rates for all. Such goods, production, and distribution would be set by the communist government's Office of Prices after careful planning and consideration from the country's Politburo. Thus, with the extreme exception of farmers, producing prices for products cost the same throughout a country whether it is sold or not.

The supply and demand issue created logistical issues for government-controlled companies operating within Eastern Europe. Products that would stay on store shelves in West Germany for weeks or months rarely stayed on East German store shelves for one hour. This rapid consumption of products was not due to their quality or taste. Instead, demand was due to the inconsistency of daily and weekly deliveries of goods from state-controlled factories. As a result, families often stockpiled selected products and saved

them due to the uncertainty of availability. Fitz (2009) illustrates a favorite Eastern Sphere joke that illustrates daily shortages of everyday supplies. “A man walks into a store and asks: “Do you have toilet paper?” The shop assistant replies: “No, the shop next door is the one where you cannot get toilet paper; we are the shop with no aluminum foil” (103).

Most shopkeepers and employees were honest and fair about strategically placing scarce products on shelves throughout the day to provide those who worked an opportunity to purchase goods from various government-controlled stores. While larger Eastern European cities received enough goods to meet consumers’ demands, this was not the case for most rural areas. Such areas with smaller populations received unreliable deliveries of goods. In rural areas, deliveries were usually once a week, either on Tuesday or Wednesday. If deliveries failed to arrive, residents waited until the following week. In addition, certain goods, such as fresh fruits, were difficult to obtain regardless of populated cities or geographical areas.

The Rationale for Government Control

To increase their status as a primary needs provider, communist governments wanted to distinguish between real and false societal needs. According to East Germany, for example, the individual’s needs mirrored the social relations of society. The government’s view towards money equated to the personal needs of the people, while the capitalist’s opinion of money equated to creature comforts and social status (Zatlin 2009). As a result, East Germany and Czechoslovakia believed they were superior to capitalism because a command economy removed the grounds of selfish desires by creating social conditions that promoted real needs to exist. There would no longer be a societal desire--other than the government--by denying the power of money and wealth in a communist society.

In the end, several Eastern European nations boasted that their command economic approach was superior to capitalism somehow: First, they claimed that through government control and regulation, conditions that foster only real need maintained a balanced supply and demand satisfaction. Second, they said that in communist nations throughout Eastern Europe, every citizen kept a job through strict government control and regulation of the markets to provide stability and monitoring. Third, they claimed that most citizens living in communist nations never experienced poverty as perceived by the Western governments. Lastly, they maintained that in communist countries,

the government ensured high social wages through fixed prices (commodities, rent, electricity, water, fuel, etc.) provided a stable economic system versus an individual established income (Byford 2012; Turner 1987).

Procedure and Preparation

For the Teacher

Teaching about Cold War events, especially a communist government's economic control of production, distribution, and sale of goods, may be difficult for students to comprehend. This model allows the teacher to use simulation to illustrate general characteristics commonly associated with the command economic system. This lesson expands and broadens students' collaborative skills and creativity as they attempt to purchase items found on their shopping lists. Before the simulation begins, the teacher should select two or three students to manage the student stores. Each store receives an inventory list (appendix A) accompanied by products (appendix B). The teacher determines what and how many products each store gets. Each store will have surpluses of selected products and limited quantities of other consumer goods for the activity.

Step One: Introduction

Set the simulation activity in the concept of what is studied and establish a purpose. To set the stage for the activity, students work individually. Inform the students that the year is 1988, and they currently live in an Eastern European nation. Each student will receive an envelope with a shopping list (appendix C) and money (appendix D). In addition, limited amounts of students will receive privilege cards (appendix E), allowing students to gain an advantage of long lines and product shortages—the goal is to purchase as many items as possible from their list. Students will likely need to queue in lines of several stores to complete checklists.

Step Two: Government stores receive products

Government controlled student stores open for business. Each government-controlled store has a limited inventory of selected products. For example, store A might have a surplus of candy bars, cola, and potato chips, while store B has a limited supply of other products. Individual products sold in all stores have a set price. The teacher will determine the price of products. When government-controlled student stores open for business, students should locate and stand in line to purchase goods. Selected students with privilege cards may use such privilege to their advantage at any given time. Once a card is used, it is surrendered to the shopkeeper.

Step Three: Comprehension and Development

The student synthesizes, evaluates, and adapts to the situation. As students queue to purchase products, the inability to fulfill their shopping list with all goods is realized. Regardless of the store selected, students discover surpluses and shortages of goods are common. The implications of privilege cards by selected students cause chaos and resentment among students. Students often resort to bartering to fulfill shopping lists.

Step Four: Reinforcement / Extension

Students transfer the learning of the topic in general with questions for review and reflection. Instruct each student to identify the number of items obtained. The teacher may ask students the following questions: 1) What happened when you could not purchase goods? Did anyone buy unneeded products and barter for selected products? 2) Are there potential benefits when the government controls the supply of goods? 3) Are there potential weaknesses when the government controls the supply of goods?

Conclusion

Utilizing a scenario, active learning becomes more encompassing for students, allowing them to experience more context and depth than direct instruction alone. Immersing the students into a context-based simulation encourages empathetic and critical thinking, explicitly created with limits and privilege. As students try to “understand” the situation, they will work through the options available to succeed, including bartering or setting up an “underground” economy, similar to what occurred in history. This can then be followed by critical or Socratic questioning to develop even more awareness.

As a teaching and learning tool, this simulation can be an excellent lesson for students in understanding the complex situation of economies and their effect on citizens of that system. By comparing how students shop with their parents now, realizing what citizens in controlled economies went through can elicit better awareness for the students and highlight crucial aspects of the Cold War and government-controlled economic countries versus that of the U.S. and our allies. This, in turn, creates an understanding that will impact memory and recall for the students in a way regular instruction cannot

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Appendix A
STORE INVENTORY

PRODUCT	COST	INVENTORY
SEWING MACHINE	_____	_____
CAMERA	_____	_____
T.V.	_____	_____
MENS SHOES	_____	_____
WOMENS SHOES	_____	_____
SUNGLASSES	_____	_____
WATCH	_____	_____
SUIT	_____	_____
PURSE	_____	_____
CANDY BAR	_____	_____
COLA	_____	_____
POTATO CHIPS	_____	_____
TOY CAR	_____	_____
DOLL	_____	_____
KITCHEN MIXER	_____	_____
CHARCOAL	_____	_____
STEAK	_____	_____
COFFEE	_____	_____
BANANAS	_____	_____
RIBS	_____	_____
PEANUT BUTTER	_____	_____
RICE	_____	_____
TOILET PAPER	_____	_____
ASPIRIN	_____	_____

Appendix B

SEWING MACHINE



CAMERA



SMALL TELEVISION



MENS DRESS SHOES



WOMENS DRESS SHOES



SUNGLASSES



WATCH



MENS BUSINESS SUIT



PURSE



CHOCALATE CANDY BAR



COLA



POTATO CHIPS



Appendix C

**HOT WHEELS TOY
CAR**



AMERICAN DOLL



KITCHEN MIXER



**NEW YORK STRIP
STEAK**



PREMIUM COFFEE



BANANAS



RIBS



PEANUT BUTTER



RICE



TOILET PAPER



ASPIRIN



SEWING MACHINE	_____
CAMERA	_____
SMALL T.V.	_____
MENS SHOES	_____
WOMENS SHOES	_____
SUNGLASSES	_____
WATCH	_____
SUIT	_____
PURSE	_____
CANDY BAR	_____
COLA	_____
POTATO CHIPS	_____
TOY CAR	_____
AMERICAN DOLL	_____
KITCHEN MIXER	_____
CHARCOAL	_____
STEAK	_____
PREMIUM COFFEE	_____
BANANAS	_____
RIBS	_____
PEANUT BUTTER	_____
RICE	_____
TOILET PAPER	_____
ASPIRIN	_____
TOTAL	_____

Appendix D

<p>Socialist State of _____</p> <p>1</p>	<p>Socialist State of _____</p> <p>1</p>
<p>Socialist State of _____</p> <p>2</p>	<p>Socialist State of _____</p> <p>2</p>
<p>Socialist State of _____</p> <p>2</p>	<p>Socialist State of _____</p> <p>2</p>

Appendix E

**FRIEND IN THE WORKERS
PARTY PROVINCIAL
COMMITTEE**

(A FRIEND HAS TIPPED YOU OFF
ABOUT THE DELIVERY SCHEDULE –
YOU CAN PEEK AT THE INVENTORY
SHEET AT THE STORE)

**CRITICIZING THE
GOVERNMENT**

(SOMEONE IN THE LINE HAS
PUBLICLY CRITICIZED THE
GOVERNMENT – MOVE ANOTHER
SHOPPER BACK TWO PLACES IN
LINE)

A COMMUNITY LIST

(A COMMUNITY LIST THAT ENTITLES
PEOPLE TO CERTAIN PLACES HAS
BEEN DRAWN UP – TURN THE
ENTIRE LINE AROUND)

THIS IS NOT YOUR PLACE!

(YOU NOTICE THAT A PERSON IN
THE LINE IN FRONT OF YOU – MOVE
UP ONE PLACE IN LINE)

Rural Secondary Inclusion Teachers' Level of Efficacy Toward Teaching in an Inclusive Environment

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore rural secondary inclusion teachers' sense of efficacy when working with students with special needs by examining the impact of teacher characteristics on their efficacy. This study used a survey research design using quantitative methods for analysis. A linear regression showed that the overall model determining if specific teacher characteristics predicted teacher self-efficacy was not significant; however, there were some significant partial correlations. Additionally, an ANOVA determined that there was a significant difference in efficacy to use inclusive instruction and the specific area in which teachers are certified to teach.

Introduction

According to the 37th Annual Report to Congress (U.S. Department of Education, 2015) on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, inclusion classes are increasingly more common in today's schools, with 95% of students with special needs receiving a portion of their learning in a general education classroom. Rural secondary inclusion teachers are now commonly responsible for teaching students with special needs within an inclusive classroom, a task for which general and special education teachers may not feel prepared. This study is designed to explore rural secondary inclusion teachers' sense of efficacy when working with students with special needs by examining the impact of teacher characteristics on their efficacy.

Special Education Legislation

Inclusion is a familiar topic to most educators, both new and experienced, but that has not always been true. In November 1975, President Ford signed into effect the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142), which would later be reauthorized and renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 2004. Under IDEA, children with special needs are mandated to receive a free and appropriate public education as determined by their individualized education plan (IEP) team. This act includes federal funding for special services for children with disabilities from birth to age 21. IDEA reports that since these laws were enacted in 1975, the number of students with special needs receiving services within public schools has risen to more than 6.9 million (2004). The majority of these students are being taught, with support and accommodations, in regular classrooms for most of their day. According to the 37th Annual Report to Congress (U.S. Department of Education, 2015) on the Implementation of the IDEA, 70% of students with special needs spend at least 80% of their day in a general education classroom. Another 25% of students with special needs spend a portion of less than 80% in a general education classroom. These numbers reflect that only 5% of students with special needs do not currently participate in any classes with their general education peers.

Legislation continues to play a significant role in the delivery of special education services in U.S. public schools. IDEA changed the playing field for many teachers who were considered to be highly qualified by the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in the subject they taught but had little experience in the modifications and expectations with providing accommodations and managing the expectations of teaching students with special needs in a general education setting (2002). NCLB was passed in 2001 and was aimed at students who were not making adequate progress in their education. Students with special needs and teachers were heavily affected by the requirements of testing at grade level and making adequate yearly progress (AYP). It left many teachers feeling that they were failing their students and that the education they were providing was not effective. In 2015, Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) replaced NCLB. ESSA maintained the NCLB testing requirements but allowed the individual states to decide how they would hold students and teachers accountable for the scores. ESSA requires each state to submit an accountability plan to their state's department of education (Darrow, 2016). ESSA maintained the testing requirements of NCLB for all students, including students with special needs,

but it did alter the goals. NCLB required that all students reach the proficient level, while ESSA allowed the states to set ambitious, but perhaps more realistic, goals for their students with special needs. However, under ESSA, only 1% of students are allowed to take a modified test that meets their needs. The remaining 99% must take the same test as general education students. This legislation poses a threat to the school's ability to meet AYP, as many students with special needs perform below grade level, some far below grade level (Kossar, Mitchem & Ludlow, 2005). These mandates have the potential to decrease feelings of efficacy on the part of both the teacher and the student.

Inclusion in Rural Education

Rural schools are often at a disadvantage when it comes to inclusion for a variety of reasons that typically center around funding. Rural schools are often faced with lower enrollment, fewer special education teachers, less funding for training, and a smaller pool of candidates to hire effective teachers (Shoulders & Krei, 2016). While student enrollments are generally lower than urban schools, rural schools often face a higher percentage of students with special needs, which creates challenges within inclusive classrooms (Kossar, Mitchem & Ludlow, 2005). In addition to the higher number of students with special needs, teachers must adapt to fewer resources and less support. Research shows that special education teachers who have the work-related support of other special education professionals and paraprofessionals have a higher level of satisfaction in their job (Kossar, Mitchem & Ludlow, 2005). This level of support is difficult to obtain in small rural schools where the budget does not allow for a team of special education teachers or support professionals. Additionally, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (2019a), rural schools are provided with less funding per student. The amount provided by IDEA through the federal government for students with disabilities is significantly less in rural schools than in urban schools. Rural schools have typically struggled more with the modifications needed to create the best possible environment in the classroom for students with special needs due to a lack of funding to provide support staff (Brownell, Bishop, & Sindelar, 2018). As previously noted, self-contained classrooms are becoming increasingly rare since 95% of students spend a large portion of their day in a general education classroom; this is creating a higher need for support staff in general education classrooms (The U. S. Department of Education, 2015). Co-taught inclusion classes, where a special education teacher is paired with a general education teacher to teach with and without disabilities in a general education setting, has become the preferred method of teaching students with special needs in most schools

(Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain, & Shamberger, 2010). This delivery model allows students with disabilities to be served in the least restrictive environment (LRE), which is a core principle in IDEA. This method allows both general and special education teachers to learn from each other. Additionally, rural schools often lack classroom and learning resources needed to provide a quality education to their students (Showalter, Klein, Johnson, & Hartman, 2017). Simple differences, when compared to rural areas, such as more funding for support and training and a larger base of qualified special education teachers, have made these transitions easier (Shoulders & Krei, 2016).

Teacher Efficacy

Self-efficacy is commonly defined as the self-belief in our competence or chance of accomplishing a task and producing a favorable outcome. Bandura (1977) is the founder of social cognitive theory, which encompasses the concept of self-efficacy. Bandura (1996) explained that our sense of self-efficacy is also dependent on the need we have to learn from others, which is present in the construct of social cognitive theory. He stated that a belief in our efficacy can affect our sense of motivation as well as how we act and feel. He posited that there are four ways or sources in which self-efficacy beliefs form (Bandura, 1993). Mastery experiences are based on how the teacher feels about his or her personal performance and skills. Vicarious experiences refer to the teachers' feelings of self-worth when comparing their skills with others. Verbal persuasion occurs through encouragement and discouragement to someone's performance or ability to perform the specific task. Emotional and physiological states refer to the ability to judge our strengths and capabilities. In our lives, we are surrounded by "models" that serve as pillars from which to learn, and this learning affects our sense of self-efficacy in future tasks.

Many experienced teachers have a sense of efficacy in the specific subject they teach (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998). Their years of classroom experience engenders a strong sense that they are equipped to handle most experiences a professional educator faces because they have seen many models and have had opportunities to practice. New teachers may feel a sense of apprehension at facing the requirements of teaching, but with experience, they often also build feelings of efficacy. Teacher efficacy has a direct effect on the learning of the students. Teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more likely to set high goals and to persevere to accomplish them (Bandura, 1993). The changes that were set in motion by IDEA (2004) mandated that students be placed in their least restrictive environment and therefore created a

push for inclusion classrooms. In turn, this engendered a sense of apprehension for many teachers who felt confident in the area they taught but had not been trained to teach in an inclusive setting (Monsen, Ewing, & Kwoka, 2014).

The idea of inclusive classes has received mixed results. While experienced teachers were confident in their ability to teach, their education generally lacked specific skills for working with students with special needs (Monsen, Ewing, & Kwoka, 2014). Studies show that teachers who completed a teacher preparation program with some training in the inclusion classroom were more accepting of inclusive classes and practices (Colson, Sparks, Berridge, Frimming, & Willis, 2017; Klassen et al., 2012; Shoulders & Krei, 2016). Due to funding deficits in rural schools, teachers without prior coursework in special education are less likely to receive inclusion training. Their training is generally limited to interactions with students with special needs, and collaboration or co-teaching experiences with special education teachers. Research has suggested that when teachers have a negative experience working in a co-taught classroom or in their collaboration with special education teachers, they have been more likely to have students who have negative inclusion experiences (Shoulders & Krei, 2016). A positive experience for the teachers has been more likely to build a sense of efficacy and a better experience for the students.

Secondary teachers are trained in course-specific knowledge, and classes are often divided by ability, meaning that the majority of students in that class have a similar starting point in their learning. Remedial classes are for the lowest-performing students. General classes are for those meeting grade-level appropriate benchmarks. Honors and advanced placement classes are offered for those performing above grade level. Secondary teachers may struggle with appropriate resources, common planning time to work with inclusion teachers, and the need to plan appropriate lessons for students with special needs while they lack the training they need. These challenges, when coupled with the sheer volume of information that is taught in a short period of time, have contributed to negative feelings about inclusion in secondary schools (Smith, 2000).

While inclusion can pose challenges for teachers, there are valuable and positive aspects of an inclusion model. Inclusion classes encourage interactions between students with special needs and general education students. Research shows that students who lack social interactions with a wide variety of people will struggle to interact with the world around them as they leave the classroom for adulthood (Willis, 2007). General education

students also benefit from interaction with a diverse group of peers. The world in which these students will live is not divided by ability; therefore, they benefit from an educational environment where they understand that each person has strengths and challenges (Willis, 2007).

Methods

This study utilized a survey research design using quantitative methods for analysis. This study was designed to explore rural secondary inclusion teachers' sense of efficacy when working with students with special needs by examining the impact of teacher characteristics on their efficacy. The following research questions guided the study 1) Do specific characteristics (certification area, gender, years of teaching experience, amount of training to teach students with disabilities, level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities, and number of years of experience teaching students with disabilities) of rural, secondary teachers predict self-efficacy in teaching in an inclusive classroom? 2) What difference, if any, does rural, secondary teachers' certification (general education content, special education, or both) have on their overall efficacy, efficacy to use inclusive instruction, efficacy in collaboration, and efficacy in managing behaviors among rural secondary teachers?

Participants

Setting

The selected schools are in a rural county in the Midwest. The county has three high schools, four middle schools, and ten elementary schools that span across six towns. According to the 2018 U.S. Census Bureau (2019), the county population was 62,586. The racial makeup of this county is 93.8 % white, 1.7% black or African American, 0.3% American Indian, 2.7% Asian, and 1.9% Hispanic. The United States Census (2018) states that 93% of the population of this county have a high school diploma or higher, but only 29.2% have a bachelor's degree or higher.

Sampling

The study asked current middle and high school teachers to complete a survey to determine their feelings of efficacy toward teaching in an inclusive classroom. A total of 180 surveys were sent to potential participants. The survey response rate was 33% (n= 59).

The participants in this study were middle and high school teachers from the same school district in the Midwest. The demographics of the participants are represented in Table 1.

Description	Percentage
Gender	
Male	36%
Female	61%
Other	2%
Missing	1%
Years of Teaching Experience	
0 - 6	22%
7 - 15	32%
16 - 25	26%
26 or more	20%
Area of Certification	
General Education	80%
Special Education	12%
Both General & Special Education	8%

Table 1: Participant Demographics (N=59)

The participants were asked additional questions in the demographic section of the survey. Participants reported the amount of training they had received in teaching students with disabilities. Sixty-nine percent of the participants reported having a great deal to a moderate amount of training in teaching students with disabilities, and 31% reported having little (less than 5 hours) or none.

Table 2 represents the participants' report of their level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities. Fifty-seven percent of the participants

reported their level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities were average to very low, whereas 43% reported high to very high confidence.

Description	Percentage
Very high	23%
High	20%
Average	49%
Low	6%
Very low	2%

Table 2: Participant Level of Confidence to Teach Students with Disabilities (N=59)

Table 3 depicts how participants reported their experience in teaching students with disabilities. Experience was defined as having students with disabilities in their respective classrooms. An overwhelming 83% of the participants reported at least one full school year of teaching students with disabilities.

Description	Percentage
A great deal (at least 5 full school years)	48%
A lot	20%
A moderate amount (at least 1 full school year)	15%
A little	15%
None at all	2%

Table 3: Participant Level of Classroom Experience in Teaching Students with Disabilities (N=59)

Data Collection Procedures

Using the rural school district's website, potential research participants were identified and sent a recruitment email to request their participation in the study if they were teaching at the middle or high school level. In the email, participants were notified that their participation in the study was voluntary and that if they chose to participate that they could withdraw from the study at any point in time without consequence. They could withdraw from the study by not completing the survey or by contacting the primary investigator and asking not to have their responses included in the analyses. The study was approved by

the school district and the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Data was collected through a link included in the recruitment email. The link directed the participant to the TEIP survey through the Qualtrics data collection system.

Instrumentation

Data were collected using a pre-existing, validated, and self-report survey called the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (TEIP) scale (Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012) and a demographic questionnaire. The TEIP was made up of 18 items about the participants' perception of their ability to successfully perform inclusive teaching practices. Each statement was worded positively and was task-specific. All 18 statements were assessed through a 6-point Likert item scale consisting of strongly disagree, disagree, disagree somewhat, agree somewhat, agree, and strongly agree. The highest possible score on the scale was 108, which indicated a very high sense of self-efficacy toward teaching in an inclusive classroom. Conversely, 18 was the lowest possible score, and it indicated a very low sense of self-efficacy toward teaching in an inclusive classroom. The TEIP scale was made up of three subscales that were comprised of six items each. The three subscales were efficacy to use inclusive instruction (EII), efficacy in collaboration (EC), and efficacy in managing behavior (EMB). The three subscales allowed for a fine-grain analysis of the construct of efficacy toward teaching in an inclusive classroom.

Results

The first step in analyzing the data was to determine the overall efficacy using the 18 questions on the TEIP. A mean score was determined for all 59 participants to represent their overall efficacy score. Then, to determine the TEIP subscale scores, a mean score was determined for each of the three factors, EII, EC, and EMB using the corresponding questions from the survey (see Appendix A). To determine secondary teachers' efficacy, research questions were analyzed using SPSS software.

In response to the first research question, a linear multiple regression was used to determine if specific characteristics (teaching certification area, gender, years of overall teaching experience, amount of training in teaching students with disabilities, level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities, and number of years of experience in teaching students with disabilities) of secondary teachers predicted self-efficacy in teaching in an inclusive classroom. The model was not statistically significant, $F(6,51) = 1.611$, $p = .163$, and accounted for approximately 6% of the variance of efficacy ($R = .399$,

$R^2 = .159$, adjusted $R^2 = .060$). However, partial correlations were significant between the following characteristics: gender and overall efficacy, the amount of training in teaching students with disabilities, and teaching certification area; level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities between certification area, years of experience, and the amount of training in teaching students with disabilities; classroom experience teaching students with disabilities and teaching certification area, the amount of training in teaching students with disabilities and level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities. Correlations for the individual characteristics of secondary teachers' perceptions of efficacy are in Table 4.

	Overall Efficacy	Teaching Certification Area	Gender	Years of Experience	Training	Confidence	Experience Teaching SWD
Overall Efficacy	—						
Teaching License Area	.011	—					
Gender	-.245*	0.700	—				
Years of Experience	-.145	0.187	.088	—			
Training	.010	-.761*	.206	-.123	—		
Confidence	-.141	-.653*	.197	.287*	.790*	—	
Experience Teaching SWD	-.043	-.386*	.085	-.174	0.470*	.514*	—

Table 4: Correlations of Secondary Teacher Perceptions of Efficacy

Note. $N = 58$

* $p < 0.05$

To determine the results of the second research question, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there was a significant difference in overall efficacy, efficacy to use inclusive instruction (EI), efficacy in collaboration (EC), and efficacy in managing behaviors (EMB) among secondary teachers who were certified in general education (content area), special education, or both.

Generally, what are you certified to teach?

General Education				
	EII	EC	EMB	Overall Efficacy
Mean	6.034	5.371	5.837	5.747
N	47	47	47	47
S.D.	.723	.934	.724	.701
Special Education				
	EII	EC	EMB	Overall Efficacy
Mean	4.929	5.024	4.881	4.944
N	7	7	7	7
S.D.	2.645	2.754	2.671	2.685
Both				
	EII	EC	EMB	Overall Efficacy
Mean	6.200	6.300	6.233	6.244
N	5	5	5	5
S.D.	.794	.776	.760	.743
Total				
	EII	EC	EMB	Overall Efficacy
Mean	5.916	5.408	5.757	5.694
N	59	59	59	59
S.D.	1.147	1.267	1.127	1.127

*Table 4: Correlations of Secondary Teacher Perceptions of Efficacy**Note. N = 58*** $p < 0.05$*

To determine the results of the second research question, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there was a significant difference in overall efficacy, efficacy to use inclusive instruction (EII), efficacy in collaboration (EC), and efficacy in managing behaviors (EMB) among secondary teachers who were certified in general education (content area), special education, or both.

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
EII * Generally, what are you certified to teach?	Between Groups	(Combined)	7.883	2	3.942	3.942	.047*
	Within Groups		68.542	56	1.224		
	Total		76.425	58			
EC * Generally, what are you certified to teach?	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.076	2	2.538	1.614	.208
	Within Groups		88.079	56	1.573		
	Total		93.155	58			
EMB * Generally, what are you certified to teach?	Between Groups	(Combined)	6.807	2	3.403	2.754	.072
	Within Groups		69.211	56	1.236		
	Total		76.018	58			
EC * Generally, what are you certified to teach?	Between Groups	(Combined)	5.581	2	2.791	2.295	.110
	Within Groups		68.088	56	1.216		
	Total		73.670	58			

Table 5: ANOVA Table Results

* $p < 0.05$

The results displayed in Table 6 indicate there was a significant difference in the efficacy to use inclusive instruction and the area in which they were certified. The eta square index indicated that 10 % of the variance to use inclusive instruction was accounted for by the area in which a secondary teacher was certified.

Discussion

In this study, the teachers were asked about the amount of training they had received to work with students with special needs. Of the 59 teachers

surveyed, the most, 42%, reported that they had a moderate amount of training in working with students with special needs, while a total of 31% reported that they had little (less than five hours) or no training to work with this group of students. Additionally, 23% of teachers surveyed had very high confidence in their ability to teach students with disabilities, 20% had high confidence, and the most, 49%, felt that they had average confidence in their ability to work with students with disabilities. The data scores for average confidence and moderate training reflected a correlation. It is important to note that while 20% of the teachers felt that they had received a great deal of training in teaching students with disabilities, and 23% felt they had high confidence in their ability to teach students with disabilities, 12% of the teachers who participated in the study were special education teachers, and 8% were both special education and general education teachers, whose training would have been significantly different than that of a general education teacher.

Additionally, the survey instrument (TEIP) included questions in three different areas of inclusion (See appendix A). The first questions addressed teachers' sense of efficacy in using inclusion education in their classroom (EI). The second set of questions addressed the feeling that teachers are efficacious in collaboration with other teachers in an inclusion classroom (EC). The last set of questions addressed the feeling of efficacy in managing behaviors within an inclusive classroom (EMB). The data reflected that teachers who have dual certification in special education and general education have a higher sense of efficacy in all three sections of inclusion. They were more confident that they could succeed with an inclusion class, could collaborate well with other teachers, and that they could manage difficult behaviors within an inclusion class. These numbers supported the research which suggested that when teachers have had some college or in-service training in teaching in an inclusion classroom, they felt that they could be successful in working with a wide variety of needs within their classes (Anderson, 2010; Kossar, Mitchem & Ludlow, 2005; Berry & Gravelle, 2013; Shoulders & Krei, 2016; Colson et al., 2017; Klassen et al., 2012). General education teachers with no special education certification and special education teachers with no core subject certification scored themselves lower in all three areas than those that had been trained in both. General education teachers scored themselves higher than special education teachers by a fairly significant amount in all three sets of questions. This data supported that, in rural school districts where special education teachers were limited in numbers, special education teachers would benefit from being certified in a content area(s) in which they would be co-teaching (Gelman,

Pullen, & Kauffman, 2004). Their lack of certification in a core-specific subject could limit their feelings of efficacy in co-teaching that subject.

This study explored whether certain variables predicted teacher efficacy regarding feelings, or a lack of feelings, of efficacy in a rural secondary inclusion classroom. The correlation between training and efficacy that was seen throughout research on education (Anderson, 2010; Berry & Gravelle, 2013; Shoulders & Krei, 2016; Colson et al., 2017; Klassen et al., 2012), further supported the claim that teachers need specialized training either in working with students with disabilities or high school content as it relates to co-teaching. When teachers receive training to work with students with special needs, not only do they have a cadre of skills in employing accommodations and adapting learning activities, they also have greater confidence in their abilities to use them.

Limitations

The most substantial limitation to this study and many studies that require self-reporting was the likelihood that participants would rate themselves by how they want to be perceived, instead of answering the survey questions honestly. The use of self-reporting data runs the risk of allowing participants to choose socially acceptable answers, or they may answer carelessly, which is not an accurate reflection of their beliefs (Northrup, 1997).

Other limitations included areas of generalized data, data collection methods, participant sampling, and district setting. Data collection occurred in a single Midwestern rural school district and spanned across one month at the end of the school year. Therefore, only one set of teachers within the same district participated in the study. A more detailed look into the area would have been achieved by including more districts from surrounding areas over a longer period. Additionally, findings may not generalize to other districts that possess demographic variables that significantly differ, and findings may not be representative of all school districts in the nation.

Conclusion

Research has shown that when teachers receive training in working with students with special needs, they have a higher sense of efficacy and they can provide a high level of learning for all students that enter their classroom (Anderson, 2010; Berry & Gravelle, 2013; Shoulders & Krei, 2016; Colson et al., 2017; Klassen et al., 2012). In rural schools, the needed in-service training for

working in an inclusion classroom is often unavailable to teachers due to funding concerns created by a lower tax base (Berry & Gravelle, 2013). Also, the number of special education teachers available to work in co-taught classrooms is likely low due to lower enrollment in smaller rural communities, but the percentage of students with special needs may be higher (Kossar, Mitchem, & Ludlow, 2005). This study aimed to gauge teachers' sense of self-efficacy in teaching in inclusive classrooms. After researchers examined the results of the TEIP survey that was sent out to teachers in a rural district, they found a significant difference in teachers' feelings of efficacy when utilizing inclusive instruction and the certification area of the secondary teachers. Teachers who held a dual certification in general education and special education reported a significantly higher level of efficacy when working within an inclusion classroom. General education teachers scored below these dual-certified teachers, and special education teachers scored themselves the lowest in working in an inclusion classroom. Based on the research and the results of this survey, it is clear that additional in-service training, more collaboration between special education and general education teachers, and more preservice training in special education for all teacher candidates would build the sense of efficaciousness in teachers that work within an inclusion classroom (Anderson, 2010). This is a worthwhile endeavor for schools to address because when teachers feel more successful, students with special needs will have more positive experiences in inclusion classrooms (Shoulders & Krei, 2016).

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Appendix A

TEIP Subscale questions

EII

5. I can accurately gauge student comprehension of what I have taught.
6. I can provide appropriate challenges for very capable students.
10. I am confident in designing learning tasks so that the individual needs of students with disabilities are accommodated.
14. I am confident in my ability to get students to work together in pairs or small groups.
15. I can use a variety of assessment strategies (eg. portfolio assessment, modified tests, performance based assessment, etc.)
18. I am able to provide an alternate explanation or example when students are confused.

EC

3. I can make parents feel comfortable about coming to school.
4. I can assist families in helping their children do well in school.
9. I am confident in my ability to get parents involved in school activities of their children with disabilities.
12. I can collaborate with other professionals (e.g., teachers, related service providers) in designing educational plans for students with disabilities.
13. I am able to work jointly with other professionals and staff (e.g., teacher assistants, other teachers) to teach students with disabilities in the classroom.
16. I am confident in informing others who know little about laws and policies relating to the inclusion of students with disabilities.

EMB

1. I can make my expectations clear about student behavior.
2. I am able to calm a student who is noisy or disruptive.
7. I am confident in my ability to prevent disruptive behavior in the classroom before it occurs.
8. I can control disruptive behavior in the classroom.
11. I am able to get children to follow classroom rules
17. I am confident when dealing with students who are physically aggressive.

An Examination of High School Dropout Grade Level and Parents' Education Level

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Abstract

This study was an attempt to look more deeply into the parents' education level as a determinant of the specific grade level that students will drop out of high school. Previous studies have focused on parents' education as part of a family-related factor affecting dropouts. The work adopted a quantitative hypothesis approach by applying the Somers' d test on the two ordinal variables. Findings confirmed a high linear relationship between the two variables and called for further research into why students with highly educated parents dropped out at the higher grade levels. Keywords: dropouts, parents' education, variables, class grades, somers' d test.

Introduction

The definition of a school dropout does not have a universally agreed standard and formula. (Christie, Jolivette, & Nelson, 2007). "Dropout" is generally defined as a residual status, indicating someone who has not graduated from, or is not currently enrolled in a full-time, state-approved education program (Rumberger, 1987). ChildTrends Data Bank (2018) defined dropouts as individuals ages 16 to 24, who are not currently enrolled in school and have not completed high school or obtained a GED. There have been extensive studies on the factors associated with dropping out, ranging from demographic, family-related, peer, school-related, economic, and individual. There is not one single cause of students dropping out. Dropping out is often a process rather than the result of one single event, and therefore has more than one proximate cause (Rumberger, 1987; Hunt, 2008; Sabates, Westbrook, Akyeampong, & Hunt, 2010). The family-related factors for students dropping out revolved around parents' educational level, late involvement, and level of awareness of impending dropout issues of their children. (Bridgelan, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006).

This paper focuses on the parents' education level as it relates to the high school grade level of students dropping out. The main objective of this study

was to determine whether a relationship exists between high school students' dropout grade level and the parents' education level.

This examination is an extraction from a research survey of adult high school students in a metropolitan city of a mid-western state. The action research study was an all-school survey that covered the profiles and experiences of the students who have all been former high school dropouts (Ige, 2018). The adult high school was an initiative of a non-profit organization that offered a second chance to former high school dropouts to complete and earn a high school diploma. All the participant students dropped out of high school in the past at one grade level or other as captured from their responses to the survey. The rationale for this paper is to explore the connection between the parents' educational level and the grade level of students dropping out. Parental education and income level have been determined as very strongly correlated with students dropping out, students' aspirations, and educational support. (Ingrum, 2006; Rumberger, 2020; Lee-St. John, Walsh, Raczek, Vuilleumier, Foley, Heberle, & Dearing, 2018). However, previous studies have not extensively emphasized the use of parents' education level to determine which grade level the children would stop school. This has created a vacuum for this study to examine the association between the parents' education level and the grade level at which their children would drop out of high school.

Methodology

Quantitative approach was applied in this study. Out of the school's total population of 197 students, a sample of 109 students completed and returned the questionnaire. This gave a response rate of 109/197 or a 55% response rate, which is acceptable for quantitative studies.

The research question for this study was "Is there a relationship between parents' education level and the students' high school dropout grade level?" The null hypothesis stated that there is no relationship between the parents' education and the students' high school dropout grade level.

Data Collection

In this study, the data used were directly obtained from the responses of the previous high school dropout adult students who enrolled at the focus school. The school was one of the many locations in the network of second chance adult high schools. The parents' education level data were also collected through their responses to the questions on the educational achievement of

their mother and father separately. However, in data analysis, the minimum educational level of both or one parent as applicable was used for this paper. Students with missing or unknown responses to both parents' educational attainment were not included in the analysis.

Dependent and Independent Variables

The grade level of high school dropouts were used as the dependent variable. This is an ordinal type of variable classified and coded into five grade categories: (0) Less than 9th grade, (1) 9th grade, (2) 10th grade, (3) 11th grade, and (4) 12th grade. The parents' education level was used as the independent variable. This is also an ordinal type of variable classified and coded into six levels; (0) Elementary, (1) High School Dropout, (2) Completed High School, (3) Completed Trade School, (4) College Dropout, (5) Completed 2/4-year College. The minimum education level of one or both parents was used as applicable in accordance with the students' responses.

To enhance participants' information, basic counts on the gender and the ethnicity of the respondents were included in the data analysis for this study.

Statistical Test

Considering that both the dependent and independent variables are ordinal type, the most ideal quantitative statistical test selected for this study is the Somer' D test. The test examines the statistical relationships between ordinal variables and commonly uses cross tabulation. It showed the measure of association between the two variables and was particularly reliant on the variable used as the dependent. For this study, the dropout grade level was the dependent variable. The test also showed the direction of the relationship and can range from -1.0 to +1.0 with the value of 0 indicating no relationship. (Solutions, 2017). The result was used to test the hypothesis of the study and determined the statistical significance of the results. The test was carried out using the IBM SPSS application version 24.

Results

Input Data

The input data had 109 student participants with 15 missing cases representing those with missing or unknown responses for the parent's education level. The dropout class grade level with the most participants was the 11th grade at 25%. A majority (79%) of the parents had a minimum education level up to high

school. African American (47%) and Latino (37%) constituted 84% of ethnicity of student respondents, while female students were 63% in gender category.

*Parents' Education * HS Dropout Grade Level Crosstabulation*

Table 1 is a crosstabulation of the two variables, the parents' education level and the students' dropout class grade level. As the parents' education level increases, the students' dropout class grade level increases and vice-versa. The table showed that a majority of dropouts at 12th grade had parents with a college education, whereas parents with a low education at high school level and below had their offspring dropping out at the 10th grade and below. (Figure 1). The African Americans (10 - 12th grades) and Latino (<9 -10th grades) minority ethnic groups constituted the majority of the lower grade level dropouts from the crosstabulation of ethnicity and dropout grade levels.

				HS_Dropout_Grade					
				<9th grade	9th grade	10th grade	11th grade	12th grade	
Parents' Minimum Education Level	Elementary	Count	21	6	0	0	0	27	
		% of Total	22.3%	6.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	28.7%	
	HS dropout	Count	0	8	15	0	0	23	
		% of Total	0.0%	8.5%	16.0%	0.0%	0.0%	24.5%	
	Completed HS	Count	0	0	8	16	0	24	
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	8.5%	17.0%	0.0%	25.5%	
	Completed Trade School	Count	0	0	0	2	0	2	
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	0.0%	2.1%	
	College dropout	Count	0	0	0	7	0	7	
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	7.4%	0.0%	7.4%	
	Completed 2/4yr College	Count	0	0	0	1	10	11	
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	10.6%	11.7%	
Total	Count	21	14	23	26	10	94		
	% of Total	22.3%	14.9%	24.5%	27.7%	10.6%	100.0%		

Table 1: Parents' Education * HS Dropout Grade Level Crosstabulation

* $p < 0.05$

Directional Measures

Table 2 shows the results from the Somers' d test. Using the high school dropout grade level as the dependent variable resulted in a delta value of .897 or 90%. This implies that using the parents' education level to predict the outcome of students' high school dropout grade level will result in a 90% reduction in error. This is the same as using the parents' education level in the

crosstabulation allowing us to improve the students' dropout class grade level prediction by 90%. This result is at statistical significance at .000, which is less than the .05 significance level, allowing for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Count Distribution

Figure 1 is a bar chart diagram of the spread of the high school dropout grade level by parents' education level. It showed that more students with low level educated parents dropped out at 9th and 10th grades (freshman/sophomore), while those with college educated parents dropped out at the 12th grade (senior) class.

			Value	Asymptotic Standard Error ^a	Approximate T ^b	Approximate Significance
Ordinal by Ordinal	Somers' d	Symmetric	.893	.013	43.636	.000
		Parents' Minimum Education Level Dependent	.889	.016	43.636	.000
		HS_dropout_grade Dependent	.897	.018	43.636	.000

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 2: Somers' d Directional Measures

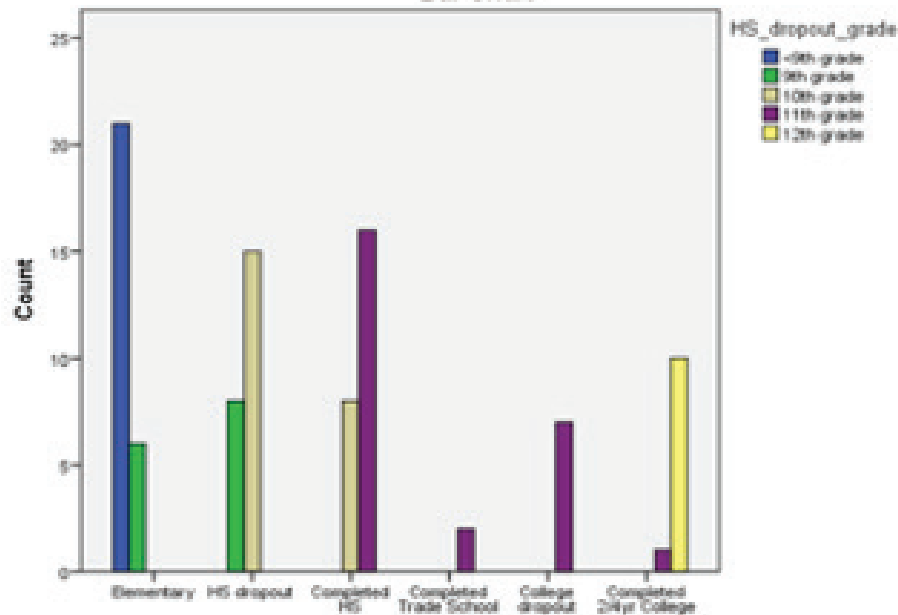


Figure 1: Parents' Education Level Bar Chart

Discussion

As noted, this study involved an effort to fill the gap regarding the relationship between the parent's education level as a determining factor for the high school grade level students will dropout. The study used the data from adult high school students who have dropped out previously to determine the extent to which the grade level they left high school was influenced by their parent's education level.

Limitations

There is no doubt that the use Somers' d test is limited to assessing relationship between ordinal variables but cannot be used for predictions of the dependent variable (dropout grade level) using the independent variable (parents' education level). The analysis in this study is limited to just one reason under the family-related factors that could influence dropping out of high schools by students.

Implications

In the area of research on parents' influence on children's education, the findings confirmed the basic of what Bridgeland et. al., 2006; Hunt, 2008;

Ingrum, 2006; Lee-St et. al., 2018; and Sebates et. al., 2010; Rumberger, 2020 have observed—that parents play great roles in the personal educational pursuit of their children. This is beyond direct involvement in the children's educational affairs but in the overall educational attainment of the parents as a silent influencing factor. The statistical test confirmed the alternative hypothesis that parents' education level had a great influence on the dropout grade levels of high school students at almost 90% certainty and statistically significance level.

One surprising revelation from this study is the fact that most high school dropouts at the senior classes were students with college educated parents. It is not clear why this situation happened when the senior class is the last year to graduation. Another implication on educational policy is the need for more focus by educators and policy planners as part of efforts to reduce the menace of high school dropouts among the minority ethnic groups especially at the early grades at the high schools.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study's focus is one of the first attempts on the silent issue of the grade level of high school dropouts as related to the parents' education level. The study allowed for the deeper analysis of the relationship between the two variables using students who have been through the dropout experience. The directional measures analysis revealed a very high linear association between parents' education and dropout grade level. However, there can be further study into the use of interactions between parents' education to predict the dropout grade level. The aspect of students dropping out at senior high school grade level by students with more highly educated parents is concerning and thus requires some further research to reveal the underlying reasons. These recommended future studies will enhance better understanding and contribute to providing solutions to the issues of high school dropouts.

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Teaching the Phases of the Cold War with Film

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Abstract

Today's students are more technologically attuned than any previous generation of teenagers. Due to this, classroom teachers are heavily encouraged to integrate technological resources, such as websites and interactive whiteboards, into their pedagogical practices in an attempt to maintain students' attentions and promote deeper connections to the content material. However, the use of Hollywood feature films remains a neglected educational tool for many schools, as teachers use film as a reward system or passive activity, rather than exploring its potential to promote student involvement and interest in a particular historical topic. However, research conducted in the past two decades has indicated that using film in the classroom to supplement instruction increases students' content retention, promotes empathy, and increases students' historical thinking and media literacy skills. While film can be used to teach a variety of topics in the secondary social science curriculum, this article will focus on using film to promote critical thinking and understanding about different phases of the Cold War. Specific films, activities, and resources to teach different phases of the Cold War with film are provided.

Introduction

As one of the longest conflicts in American history, the Cold War played a large role in the formation of American popular culture in the 20th century through its depiction on television, in comic books, and, most notably, in feature films. From the end of World War II until the fall of the Soviet Union in the late 1980s, American society became infatuated with the depiction of the Capitalists vs. Communists saga and its effect on every aspect of daily life, from the Space Race to the Red Scare. As tensions between the two superpowers evolved over time, so too did the fictional movies depicting the skirmish. Therefore, one

effective strategy to convey the transforming climate of American politics and military tactics to students is to integrate feature films over the span of each phase of the Cold War into the curriculum and allow students the opportunity to examine and evaluate how those films give insight into overarching themes in society. By purposefully selecting clips from films over the course of the entirety of the Cold War, students can create a more comprehensive understanding of the significant events and evaluate its effects on modern society in their own lives.

Since the Cold War had such a prominent effect on American daily life from the 1950s to the 1990s, teaching the topic through popular culture sources such as films helps students understand the common conception of the historic event and its impact on society overall. Films allow teachers to introduce an interactive source that infuses the human narrative into the story and presents unique opportunities to teach students how to evaluate fictional sources as indicative of a time period overall. With proper scaffolding, films depicting the Cold War can help students understand the increasing fear, distrust, and anger that permeated much of American society during these tumultuous years. It can also serve as a platform for teaching crucial media literacy skills of evaluating bias, interpreting author's intent, and identifying the subtext of the argument. Used effectively, films can introduce students into the historical narrative and promote crucial historical thinking skills they can adapt to other sources and topics throughout their lives.

Rationale

The authors of this article believe that using film to teach the events and consequences of the Cold War can create a more engaging and interactive unit within the United States History curriculum. One research study conducted in 2015 found that students spend at least six hours a day watching some form of media, from television, internet videos and movies (Wakefield, 2015). By integrating digital media sources, such as feature films, into the classroom, secondary teachers are able to capitalize on a source already familiar and interesting to students. As supplemental teaching sources, films can offer students a gateway to access complex topics and material that may not be as engaging to them in traditional text format. As feature films are the product of the perceptions of writers, producers and directors, they also offer a new forum in which to teach students historical thinking skills in a digital age. Giving students those crucial analysis skills and helping them translate them into a digital format can help educators teach their students how to navigate an increasingly digital and media-saturated world.

This article will also focus on examining the types of films that teachers may choose to use for teaching each phase of the Cold War. By breaking the Cold War films into the various phases of the conflict, secondary teachers can implement a more defined and purposeful structure for the use of film. Students will be able to effectively compare how perceptions of the Cold War evolve over time and what those differences indicate about society overall by examining each stage before advancing to the next. Presenting varying accounts over an extended period of time will challenge the students to evaluate the film's perspective and the way its depiction of a common theme reflects the evolving narrative in society.

Literature Review

In the past three decades, the use of film within the classroom has become the subject of increasing interest in the field of social studies education. While many educators identify the benefit of using feature films to teach secondary social studies, few educators indicate having a comprehensive understanding of how best to introduce and implement film within the curriculum. Many secondary teachers identify the lack of attention paid to the subject of film analysis in their preservice training, and the negative perception of using film in the classroom from the outside community as reasons for their hesitation to use film as a historical source (Donnelly, 2014). However, research indicates that, with proper implementation and instructional supports, films help students retain and relate to content material over any text-based source (Stoddard, 2010). In fact, while 65% of teachers in one study indicated that they used films primarily to pique student interest, 90% of those students indicated that the movies helped them retain the information and helped them perform better in summative assessments (Donnelly, 2014). While films' ability to help students make connections from the curriculum appears to be apparent to many educators within this study, only 8% of teachers observed used the feature films to increase students' historical understanding and analysis skills (Donnelly, 2014). These research findings indicate the necessity to properly educate preservice teachers in effective instructional strategies for the use of film and the priority for teachers to properly integrate the films into the curriculum in such a manner that promotes students' retention as well as analysis skills.

This pattern is especially true for the topic of the Cold War in mid to late 20th century America. Feature films and the Cold War have been an interwoven aspect of American culture, as citizens flocked to the movie theatres during the political conflict to help make sense of what was "a peculiarly abstract

conflict” for many people (Shaw, 2016, pg. 2). While the war was fought in political boardrooms, space stations, and overseas territory, it was difficult for the average American to envision the conflict in a tangible and concrete manner that they had experienced with other military conflicts, such as World War II. As a conflict based on ideological differences, the Cold War was highly motivated by emotion, and movies of the time period reflected this, with their dramatization of events and depiction of the core values of America being threatened (Gokcek & Howard 2013). Due to this emotional undertone, feature films offer a unique glimpse into the human side of the conflict that instructional materials such as textbooks may exclude. Indeed, movies were such a powerful vehicle during the Cold War, that the American military and government became active participants of the film industry. J. Edgar Hoover’s Federal Bureau of Investigation warned against the potential of communist movies “radicalizing the moviegoers” with their appeal to human emotion (Noakes 2003). Due to this, many depictions of communists during the first phase of the Cold War focus on communists as aliens, or non-humans, to exhibit their otherness to audience members (Rogin 1984). American military officials also saw the potential these films had in helping fight the conflict, so much so that the action-packed 1990 film *The Hunt for Red October* had the full support of the U.S. Navy when it was produced in the final years of the Cold War conflict. As the political and cultural state of America were so entwined with the portrayal of events on the big screen, they offer modern students an invaluable insight into the state of affairs in America during this tumultuous time.

Films and Strategies

In order to teach such a broad range of American history as the Cold War in a manner that allows for deeper historical analysis, we have chosen to divide the films into phases of the Cold War. By breaking the films down into each phase of the conflict, students can compare how perceptions and motivations evolve with the changing social and political tide of the Cold War. This structure also acts as a visual timeline to help students conceptualize the tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States from the 1950’s to the 1990’s. To be effective assets to the curriculum, the films should be used in conjunction with a primary source from the time period to provide a broader context from which the film is based. Additionally, the analysis and evaluation process of the films should actively evolve as the students’ progress to challenge their existing skills and advance their historical thinking to the next level. By actively introducing the film, integrating analysis within the source of the film, and applying the

film's message to higher order thinking, the students can apply their content knowledge and delve deeper into the historical process. It is also important to note that these strategies and resources have all been classroom tested by the authors in both the high school and post-secondary setting.

First Phase, Beginning of the Cold War

The first phase of the Cold War is characterized by science-fiction films and film noirs, such as, *The Thing from Another World* (1951) and *I Was a Communist for the FBI* (1951). These films allow the educator to introduce students to the Cold War in a more thematic and abstract manner. Within this phase, have students view the film, *I Was a Communist for the FBI* (1951), and follow this activity with the inclusion of excerpts from the Saturday Evening Post series (archived materials available [here](#)) written by the inspiration for the title character, Matt Cvetic. Then have students compare the two accounts and evaluate the different portrayals the author and director chose to follow. Next, have the students read an excerpt from Cvetic's testimony to the House Un-American Activities Committee in the 1950's (available [here](#)) and compare it to the earlier accounts. As these three sources center around the same narrative, it would allow the students to hone their analysis skills by examining what events were occurring at the three different time periods that led to the modification in the story. This activity challenges students to take a common text and apply it to three separate contexts to see how they affect the subtext of the film overall.

Second Phase: Escalation Period

The second phase of the Cold War is characterized by spy movies and the growing threat of annihilation, as seen in *The Manchurian Candidate* (1962) and *On the Beach* (1959). For this phase, have students build upon their prior knowledge and analysis skills from phase one by challenging them to make predictions about the film and its meaning. Teachers could begin the learning segment of the second phase by showing students a still image of the film's poster and asking them analytical questions, such as "What do you think this film is about?" and "What emotions does it convey?" This activity allows the teacher to pique the students' interest and challenge them to analyze the poster as a source itself. To help students make connections, the teacher can continue this line of thinking after showing them a short clip from the film, such as the scene in which Miles is told of the impending doom of his own invasion, and evaluate if their answers have changed. Once students have completed this activity, the teacher can include a source to provide context, such as an

article detailing the arrest and conviction of Ethel & Julius Rosenberg, and continue the discussion of how the context influences the meaning of the film. To wrap the film analysis up, the teacher can challenge students to use the text and the context and write their own subtext of the meaning of the film and its implications of the state of the Cold War. This activity will allow the students to evaluate and synthesize the sources, but also create their own perception to add to the narrative.

Third Phase: Détente

The third phase of the Cold War includes more humorous undertones, a focus on unstable leadership, and the threat of an accidental nuclear attack. One great film teachers could use for this section would be *Seven Days in May* (1964). This film challenges the students to engage in a discussion about the merits and downfalls of agreeing to a nuclear disarmament treaty with the Soviet Union. This activity will challenge the students to put their selves in the mindset of an American in the 1960's and use the characters of the film to guide their discussion as each side, those who favor and those who oppose, figure prominently in the film. This will also allow the students to witness the complex nature of the years of détente and the uncertainty that permeated every political decision.

Fourth phase: Second Cold War

The fourth phase of the Cold War depicts a growing escalation of violence and the increasing importance of the individual. For this phase, teachers could use clips from the film *Red Dawn* for the students to analyze. As the students watch clips from the film, each student would be assigned to a particular character to follow. This allows students to personally connect to an individual within the conflict and also allows for a more structured manner in which to challenge the students to delve deeper into the material. Next, the students will be given a particular character from the 2012 remake of *Red Dawn* and they will follow that character's path as well. Once the class has seen each adaption, the students will use their character analysis to engage in a discussion about the differences between the characters' experiences in the films. Students will be challenged to view the situations through the eyes of their character, and also ask why the films' depiction of the story has evolved in the past forty years. As *Red Dawn* is a fairly recent remake, this activity can allow students to make connections to current events and their own lives to make the content more meaningful and engaging.

Fifth phase: Final Years

The fifth phase of the Cold War includes more militaristic themes and conveys a stronger sense of finality. Films from this era include *The Hunt for Red October* and *Rocky IV*. For this section, have the students use their analysis of the films from each prior section and evaluate how their perception has changed over the span of the unit. For instance, the teacher can begin the unit by having students create a concept map in which they focus on a particular overreaching concept, such as democracy or national pride. As they watch each film from each phase, the students will make an addition of how that concept is portrayed through the films of the era. In this final section, students will discuss how those concepts have changed over time and the implications those changes have on interpreting the Cold War overall. This activity allows the students to engage in a culminating discussion, and also serves to challenge them to use the concrete examples from each section and apply them to an abstract concept.

Conclusion

As film continues to become an integral part of students' lives, educators continue to examine the possibility of including film within the curriculum to promote student engagement and historical thinking. By using film in a unit on the Cold War, educators can introduce students to the emotional and conflicting environment of America from the 1950s to the 1990s in an approachable and familiar format. From the beginning of the conflict between the Soviet Union and the United States, film became both a reflection and critique of events occurring on the national and global scale for all Americans. Consequently, feature films present a unique opportunity for educators to weave students into the historical narrative of the Cold War through the eyes of the films' characters in a manner that promotes historical empathy that text-based sources can neglect. Including films from each phase of the Cold War and challenging students to examine them as primary sources of the time period to evaluate changing perspectives and motivations can promote students' historical awareness and teach them the crucial skills necessary to become active citizens in the digital age.

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