### Table of Contents

**Uniting Core Content and Teacher Education a Necessity for Improving Mathematics Instruction**
Amelia Allen, Carol Manigault, Elizabeth Uptegrove, Felician College

**Effects of Experiential Learning Projects on Political Attitudes and Efficacy: Lessons for Faculty Mentors**
Christopher M. Baxter, The University of Tennessee at Martin

**Implication of Dental Care on Quality of Life**
Tanubuddi Chiranjeevi (Student), Rajamanoj Kondaveeti (Student), Shiv K. Gupta, University of Findlay

**Would Standards for Online Instruction Enhance Student Learning?**
Betty A. Cox, Becky J. Cox, The University of Tennessee at Martin

**Providing Effective Feedback in a Co-Teaching Field Experience Model**
Dan Fennerty, Carol Butterfield, Central Washington University

**Eritrea, Taking Care of its Wounded War Veterans: A Lesson to be Learned**
Yegin Habtes, Hossana Solomon, University of the Virgin Islands

**Fostering Tolerance and Accommodation of Cultural Differences in Teaching Youth through Social Science Discipline**
Elizabeth U. Henshaw, Rhode Island College

**Women Living with HIV/AIDS in an Urban Slum: Confronting the Crisis through Counseling**
Saraswati Raju Iyer, Acharya Nagarjuna University

**Bridging the Divide: The “We” Factor**
Brystal Karber (Student), Brandon Harris (Student), University of Colorado - Colorado Springs

**The Range of International Opinions vis-à-vis Pro-Environmentalism**
Allen F. Ketcham, Texas A&M University Kingsville
Jeoffrey T. Schulz, Central Community College

**“Patriotism Is Not Enough”: Nurse Edith Cavell, World War I Hero**
William M. Kirtley, Central Texas
Patricia M. Kirtley, Independent Scholar
Comparative Analysis of China and India (2000-2012)
Vani Kotcherlakota, University of Nebraska at Kearney
Melissa Trueblood, Michael Lundeen, Nebraska Department of Economic Development 114

Teachers’ Perceptions and Use of E-Readers
Paulina Kuforiji, Bonita Williams, Columbus State University 126

Study on Poor Handloom Weavers in Guntur District of Andhra Pradesh
Ashok Kumar, Acharya Nagarjuna University 133

Red State, Blue State, Conscientious State: Predicting The Presidential Vote In 2008 And 2012
David Lester, Richard Stockton College
Bijou Yang, Drexel University 146

Perspectives on Sustainability: The Divide
Elizabeth Matta (Student), Laura Parsons (Student), University of Colorado - Colorado Springs 155

Locked Up for Life: The Supreme Court on Life without Parole for Juvenile Offenders
Joseph A. Melusky, Saint Francis University (PA)
Michael J. Melusky, Villanova University School of Law 165

Fundamental Approaches in Teaching Macroeconomics to International Political Economy (IPE) Students
Antonio E. Morales-Pita, DePaul University 177

Corporate Style Education Reform and the Latino Community
Steven Pray (Student), Central Washington University 191

Revolutionaries Off The Street - Sequel Number Six: The 1990’s
Lem Londos Railsback, Independent Scholar 201

The Promise and the Pitfalls of Ideology: An Inquiry into a Much Used and Abused Concept
Richard Reeb, Barstow Community College 213

Realities of Foreign Language Translation in Medical Settings
Kenneth Troy Rivers, Dianna Lipp Rivers, Edythe Kirk, Lamar University 222

Arriving at a New Normal: Married Couples Adjust to Their Child’s Diagnosis of Autism
Sandra J. Romo, California Baptist University 233

The Dream Act
Jessica Serrano (Student), Central Washington University 251

Bridging the Cultural Gap in the Foreign Language Teaching
Virginia Shen, Chicago State University 254
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Institution(s)</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge Development</td>
<td>Abhijith Shyandilya C.P. (Student), The University of Findlay</td>
<td>266</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three-Stage Testing as a Tool to Enhance Learning</td>
<td>Ilie Puiu Vasilescu, Kathy Blaydes-Walczak, Union College, Kentucky</td>
<td>272</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gridlock USA: The Left-Right Political Quandary and Worldview Angst</td>
<td>E. Annie Wilson Whetmore, California State University, Dominguez Hills</td>
<td>283</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can Online Learning Be As Effective As Classroom Learning?</td>
<td>Diane Wright, Valdosta State University</td>
<td>298</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The &quot;Motor City&quot; Project in Luizhou, China: Building the Foundation</td>
<td>Hui Xu (Student), Central Washington University</td>
<td>305</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighborhood Built Environment and Leisure-time Physical Activity</td>
<td>Calvin H. Yu (Student), Hillcrest High School</td>
<td>313</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation among Adults in Utah</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Uniting Core Content and Teacher Education a Necessity for Improving Mathematics Instruction

Amelia Allen
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Elizabeth Uptegrove
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Currently there is limited research on the importance of uniting mathematical content and mathematical pedagogy. Richardson (2010) stated that the negative views that pre-service teachers have towards the teaching of mathematics in the elementary grades stems from their own experiences during those formative years. She also talked about the need to intersect the teaching of mathematics with the pedagogy of teaching mathematics. Elementary students across the country primarily learn mathematics in classrooms taught by regular education teachers. Very few of these teachers have formal degrees in mathematics. Therefore, mathematics education at the elementary school level is being taught by teachers who are prepared by one or possibly two individual mathematics courses that they have taken in college and by in-service training or other faculty development opportunities.

These factors emphasize both the need and importance for increased communication and collaboration between K-12 schools and colleges and universities, on mathematical content and effective teaching of that content. However it is not only important that these connections be made but that the connections between individual disciplines and teacher education occur within colleges and universities. Our students need to see the connectedness between the disciplines, that the learning in one course complement others as well as relate to high stakes tests, for example, the Praxis II. By coordinating the course work, learning can be enhanced and not just rote. This effort allows time for in depth study, fostering learning of the Common Core, and modeling techniques for our pre-service teachers especially of mathematical expectations. Chard (2013) emphasized that pre-service teacher training must focus content as well as pedagogy. Today’s teachers must not only plan on how to deliver the content to students with varying levels of ability in mathematics but must also keep them engaged and interested in the content. We have recognized this need through not only the results of our pre-service teachers’ Praxis scores but also through our on-going dialogue regarding the mathematical abilities of our students.

Added to these concerns is the necessary emphasis on STEM education (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics). Since mathematics is the foundation for each of these other content areas, the learning of mathematics (what is taught and how it is taught) in K-12 becomes extremely important. President Obama has emphasized the administration’s desire to support the graduation of a much higher number of students in the STEM disciplines, to support the preparation of an additional 100,000 teachers in STEM areas, and to encourage a closer communication among K-12 schools, colleges and universities, and employers. The current national budget (White House Office of Science and Technology Policy, 2013) supports these initiatives. President Obama stated, in a 2010 speech titled “Science, Technology, Engineering and Math: Education for Global Leadership,” that “...Leadership tomorrow depends on how we educate our students today – especially in science, technology, engineering and math” (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). He further stated in 2013, “We’ll reward schools that develop new partnerships with colleges and employers, and create classes that focus on science, technology, engineering, and mathematics – the skills today’s employers are looking for to fill jobs right now and in the future.” ("Preparing a 21st Century Workforce: Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) Education in the 2014 Budget", 2013).
Process

In August 2013, representatives from Felician College’s Mathematics Department and School of Education, along with representatives from other colleges and universities throughout New Jersey, attended a conference entitled “Beginning the Dialogue: Preparing Pre-service Elementary Teachers for the Common Core State Standards in Mathematics,” held at Monmouth University in West Long Branch, New Jersey. This conference was co-sponsored by the New Jersey Association of Mathematics Teacher Educators and Monmouth University’s School of Arts and Sciences. The primary purpose of the conference was to have the two and four-year colleges and universities in New Jersey come to agreement on the appropriate mathematics education for pre-service elementary teachers. The concept of cooperation and coordination between the mathematics and teacher education faculty of Felician College has been a long-standing tradition, but this conference along with fervor of the faculty members, fostered this renewed discussion.

The Mathematics Department within the School of Arts and Sciences and the School of Education at Felician College have always been in communication. This dialogue has led to discussions of the mathematics program of pre-service teachers majoring in Mathematics, the need for Praxis review, the sharing of instructors across the two disciplines, and the creation of new courses designed specifically for Teacher Education students. The ease with which faculty have been able to converse has been largely due to the collegial relationship coupled with a shared goal on the part of Mathematics faculty and Teacher Education faculty. The shared goal has always been for pre-service elementary teachers to successfully and effectively teach mathematics, knowing the content and pedagogy. However, these connections between the two departments in the past have been more on a random basis rather than through organized efforts or directed projects.

A group comprised of two mathematics and two School of Education professors began discussions in August 2013 and met every three weeks or so thereafter, at first brainstorming ideas about the ways our two schools could collaborate. Our goals were to be in this collaborative effort and to determine our expected outcomes. We agreed that there was much that the two areas could do together to improve the curricula in mathematics for pre-service teachers and to set up a framework for working together on an ongoing basis into the future.

The initial sessions yielded the following discussion references and ideas:

- Analyze and examine the syllabi of mathematics-for-elementary-teachers courses at several colleges in New Jersey besides our own – schools such as Monmouth University, St. Peters’, and The College of New Jersey (TCNJ).
- Analyze and examine the syllabi of our own courses in Mathematics and in Mathematics Methods taken by our pre-service teachers.
- Coordinate the two courses (one of which was in the Mathematics Department and one in the School of Education) and address overlapping content.
- Follow the procedures and time lines for curriculum changes approval.
- Address concerns about the Mathematics course requirement.
- Discuss whether the Mathematics for elementary teachers should be required for Mathematics majors.
• Discuss other issues important to an effective coordinated implementation (Teacher Education Certificate (TEC) students, Praxis tutoring sessions, and websites with videos and other aids for teaching and learning mathematics).

• Establish who would work on the changes for the new syllabi of the two coordinated courses.

Initially, the content and textbooks of the existing courses were reviewed to determine the sequence of content and most appropriate text. Once that was decided, problem solving sets and methodology of the courses were examined. Specific outcomes and measurement of those outcomes were determined. The respective syllabi were then written and submitted for faculty approval.

Therefore, based on these discussions, during the 2013 Fall Semester, the Mathematics Department in collaboration with the School of Education developed two semesters of mathematics for elementary pre-service teachers. This will enable a mathematics methods course to support the mathematics courses. The design will help to develop the pedagogical skills of pre-service teachers along with their own understanding of mathematics (Wilson, Cooney, & Stinson, 2005).

Implementation Issues

As with the implementation of any new course modifications will be made, and continuous adjustment of the course will occur to address the changing nature of every set of students. At this point it is premature to evaluate the implementation of this initiative, as the first half of the sequence of courses was just offered once during the spring of 2014, and the second half in the School of Education will be introduced in the fall of 2014. Revising the syllabi will occur as needs are recognized. We realize that the Mathematics and the Education courses will need to foster students’ positive attitudes towards mathematics, creating greater comfort and confidence. Disengaged students in the spring course implementation presented the biggest challenge. Learning about them, their interest, and their plans helped them to feel more connected with the class. This new course design has allowed for more time and is more focused on content and the needs of the students. Scaffolding of content and enhancing confidence levels will foster this development. During the first semester of implementation, there were issues that occurred with regard to assignments and projects. A new edition of the text was used by the Mathematics professor who found that the text had some variations from the older edition. She noted that her concerns centered upon familiarity with the text. Assignments needed to be reviewed differently in that the answers to all exercises were given at the end of each section. While this could have been useful for the students to check their work, it did not provide assessment data to gauge learning. In addition, assigned projects needed to reflect the size of the class with regard to whether the project would be group or individual in design. The continued communication between the Mathematics Department and the School of Education will help to facilitate and minimize these issues, while also discovering other positive things that we are yet to realize.

Conclusion

The ultimate goal of this initiative is to improve the mathematical competitiveness of students in grades K-12 along with forming more positive attitudes toward
mathematics. Ma (1999) stated that the poor performance of children in mathematics
classes is a direct result of the limited training that we provide our pre-service teachers
both in content and pedagogy. Pre-service teachers unlike members of other
professions come with a background filled with teachers who have imprinted in their
minds ways of teaching mathematics, some good, but many bad. We believe that we
can only change those beliefs in the teaching of mathematics if the articulation and
collaboration that we have established continues. Being able to communicate course
information about strengths, weaknesses, and content depth for each student is one
definite advantage of this initiative. In addition having a consistency where mathematics
and pedagogy go hand in hand in both semesters maintains a critical emphasis on
content and teaching mathematics. While some glitches have occurred we all can see
the potential benefit which should be evident in our curriculum assessment.

New Jersey is a partner in a 17-state consortium, Partnership for Assessment of
Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC). PARCC is engaged in creating
assessment instruments for the new common core state standards. In the past six
months, at least three Felician faculty members from the School of Education and the
Mathematics Department have participated in PARCC assessment workshops across
the country, establishing how the new core content standards, once implemented, will
be assessed nationwide. The Felician faculty from both areas have approached this
work as a team, keeping all parties informed of individual participation and the results.

Representatives from the School of Education and the Mathematics Department
have continued to meet on a regular basis with our discussions continuing about the
new courses and next steps. We are discussing the possibility of another Education
course for Mathematics majors. We had the jointly-sponsored Pi-Day celebration; this
year collecting over 314 cans of food for a local elementary school’s food bank. Also an
important connection between the Associate Deans and their respective schools has
been established to begin discussion of other joint projects for the future.

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Effects of Experiential Learning Projects on Political Attitudes and Efficacy: Lessons for Faculty Mentors

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Government and policy internships have long been a common component of undergraduate political science programs. More recently, service-learning projects and other experiential learning opportunities, such as model UN’s and mock legislatures, have also become familiar extracurricular offerings on college campuses. Collectively these activities hold significant opportunities to develop not only students’ political knowledge but also their engagement, efficacy, trust, and other civic attitudes. Researchers have been particularly responsive to the growth of service learning activities over the last fifteen years or so. The literature has already begun to paint a broad picture of how service learning projects can (and cannot) be used by educators to promote knowledge, engagement and social capital, and we are beginning to see how these activities, when applied to a broad and diverse student population, affect students’ attitudes and overall political socialization. This recent academic interest is both understandable and valuable. Service learning activities are often utilized to engage students who are otherwise not particularly politically active or informed. From a research standpoint, there are potentially huge changes to be measured in how these engagement activities impact the attitudes and behaviors of relative political novices.

The purpose of my article is to continue to acknowledge the potential impact of experiential learning activities on undergraduates, but I am choosing to redirect the focus back to one of political scientists’ “core constituencies”: political science majors and other politically engaged students. For many of us who are teaching political scientists, mentoring political internships and political simulations is a routine (and rewarding) part of our duties. In comparing notes with other such mentors over the years, I have regularly found that each of us can point to at least one example of a particular student whose internship experience resulted in a significant shift in that individual’s perceptions of the political system. Despite this anecdotal evidence, there is relatively little literature devoted to the impact of such experiences on efficacy and other civic attitudes. There are certainly logical explanations for this void, not least of which is the fact that the relatively small number of interns are obviously not conducive to sufficiently large sample sizes for quantitative research. Further, interns, whether majoring in political science (and related fields) or not, tend to be relative “elites” in terms of political knowledge, engagement, efficacy, and other civic attitudes. The justifiable assumption is that their internship experiences will yield little in the way of measureable changes in their attitudes or behavior (particularly when compared to the significant changes measured in political novices engaged in the service-learning projects mentioned above), despite this apparent conflict with our anecdotal evidence that some interns are, in fact, deeply affected by their experiences. Freie (1997), Elder, Seligsohn and Hofrenning (2007), and Mariani and Klinkner (2009) have all studied the impact of campaign-related internships on attitudes. Collectively, their results were mixed. Freie found attitudinal changes closely related to how positive the experience was for the intern (e.g., how welcome they were made to feel as part of the campaign effort). Elder, et al. found that campaign participants demonstrated higher levels of engagement and expressed greater interest in pursuing a career in politics; however, they found little evidence of differences in levels of efficacy or trust. Mariani and Klinkner found that campaign interns demonstrated higher levels of internal efficacy and trust in officials, but their data suggested lower levels of external efficacy (i.e., the responsiveness of institutions and authorities to citizen demands).
With this article I hope to contribute to two distinct dialogues: first, an effort to devote more attention to the study of students who participate in political internships and other experiential learning projects, and second, an attempt to derive lessons for those who mentor students in these activities. For this project I interviewed two groups of undergraduates. One group had recently participated in a statewide intercollegiate mock legislature. As part of this program, undergraduates from approximately thirty-five colleges and universities spend four days simulating the legislative process using substantive legislation they themselves have drafted. Students assume the roles of legislators and lobbyists as bills are argued in committees and in floor debates. Participants are encouraged to negotiate with peers and to form coalitions and caucuses in what ultimately becomes a remarkably thorough simulation of the legislative process. The other group of students I interviewed was composed of students serving as interns to the actual state legislature. At the time of the interviews they had completed three months of a five-month assignment to leadership and committee offices in the state legislature.

I spoke with a total of thirteen students as a part of my focus group; ten had participated in the mock legislature, and three were legislative interns. Each completed a written questionnaire that included both common closed-ended questions related to trust and efficacy and open-ended prompts inviting observations and reflections about their respective experiences. Participants were asked how their experiences affected not only their views of governmental processes and actors but also their personal aspirations for future involvement in politics.

Survey Data

The Participants

Given the significant time and effort involved in participating in these particular experiential learning projects, it should come as no surprise that the participants uniformly expressed a high interest in politics generally and scored highly on an index of knowledge of current events and figures in American politics. (On a 15-point scale, the average political knowledge score was 14.) They were, predictably, relative “elites.” While most were majoring in political science, students from communications, history, and education were also represented. Republicans outnumbered Democrats 5 to 3, with a third of the participants claiming an independent or other affiliation. The group was an ideologically moderate one; on a 10-point ideology scale (-5 to 5, liberal to conservative), the average was just under 1.0, with a standard deviation of 2.46.

The Data

Not surprisingly, all of the participants’ attitudes in the area of efficacy and trust in government in general were quite positive. When asked a general question about whether passing legislation through the current system was too easy, too difficult, or about right, the vast majority said it was “about right,” with too easy and too difficult receiving only one response each. Those expressing doubts about the system generally were primarily concerned by partisanship and the ability of narrow interests to derail right-minded initiatives. One participant noted that the one-party dominance in the state limited the scope of ideas being considered. Lamented one: “What may be right might get shot down due to politics.” (Interestingly, those expressing doubts about
The system would be considered relative “elites” on knowledge of the political system, as they were upperclassmen majoring in political science and scored highly on the political knowledge index.)

The students’ support for the officials and other actors in government, while still relatively strong, was less impressive. Respondents were asked the familiar question, “How much of the time do you think you can trust the [state legislature] to do the right thing?” No one gave the “Always” response, though seven of the twelve (58%) gave the optimistic “Most of the time” response. Four students (33%) indicated the legislature could be trusted only “Some of the time,” while only one responded “Never.”

When it came to the confidence in the legislature’s problem-solving abilities, responses were distributed across a near-perfect normal distribution (see Figure 1). Participants were asked “How would you say your experience affected your confidence in the state legislature’s ability to solve problems and make the state a better place to live?” One student indicated that he had “significantly less confidence” than before their experiential learning project, while one professed “significantly more confidence.” Three (25%) indicated that they had “slightly less confidence” than before, while three others expressed “slightly more confidence.” Four expressed no change in their confidence.

(See Figure 1)

These changes in confidence, both positive and negative, should again be viewed with an eye to the particular students involved. These participants already enter these projects with a high sense of external efficacy; in that light, it is perhaps surprising that there was as much of an increase in confidence as there was. Those who lost confidence may have emerged from their experiences with, to quote Mariani and Klinkler (2009, 287), “a better, but less rosy and idealistic, sense of how the American political system actually works.” Faculty mentors cannot predict a priori which of their students will experience such a loss of confidence, but the fact that they exist in significant numbers does underscore the need for faculty members to create realistic expectations for their students prior to their projects.

The survey results were noticeably more optimistic when respondents were asked specifically about the trust they had in individual legislators. Almost half of the panel (five of the twelve) indicated no change in their level of trust, and four actually indicated a slight increase in their level of trust. Two respondents did indicate a significant loss of trust; both of these were participants in the mock legislature, not in internships. These negative responses should not cause any particular legislator to worry about his approval rating, but clearly this “transference” suggests that these students drew some type of negative inference about how legislators behave, and this inference was based upon their experience in the simulation. It is perhaps encouraging to note that of the three interns who had worked with actual legislators, two felt a slight increase in trust while one felt no change. Previous research (see, e.g., Freie 1997) suggests that such positive feelings toward legislators generally could emanate from serving in a welcoming and receptive experience in the intern’s particular host office. These apparent feelings of “transference” and “empathy” merit further study in the future, but in the short term, we again see that faculty mentors clearly have an interest in creating and maintaining realistic expectations about what their students will experience during their projects.
The final topic of the survey dealt with the participants' political aspirations, and there are few surprises in the responses. All of the respondents had considered running for office prior to their project, and nine of the thirteen said they were either slightly or significantly more likely to run after the experience. Indeed, only one respondent claimed to be less likely to run for office (“significantly” so, in fact). Outwardly this statistic seems to both validate expectations about the subject group and affirm the educational promise of projects such as these. There is, however, an interesting caveat that can be drawn from the lone “disaffected” of the group. In the interest of confidentiality I am limited in my ability to elaborate on that respondent’s traits and background, but it is sufficient to say that this student was an elite among this group of elites. In terms of political knowledge, interest, and experience, the student was unsurpassed within this cohort. While expressing only a “slight” loss of trust in confidence in the system and in officials, the student emphatically rejected the idea of personally running for office after her experience. In terms of evaluating the data, this student may easily be dismissed as an outlier. The student may, however, represent an important lesson for those who mentor internships and other experiential learning projects, and it is to that group that I wish to direct my concluding remarks.

Discussion
Gauging Expectations: *Mr. Smith or House of Cards?*

From the evidence presented here, I assert that while students interested in experiential learning projects such as internships and legislative simulations tend to be largely uniform in many important attitudinal respects (e.g., internal and external efficacy, trust), the nature of their *expectations* may vary significantly. As a result, the impact that these experiences have on the participants’ attitudes may also vary significantly, and for some, the lessons they learn may be disheartening ones. Most of these students perceive these experiences as opportunities both to learn and to develop resume-enhancing experience, and my colleagues and I enthusiastically encourage these perceptions on a regular basis. My colleagues and I also know from experience, however, that some of these students will have their faith in the system and in their leaders weakened (and for a few of those in a life-altering way, at least in terms of their career plans). The data presented here and elsewhere confirm that this outcome, while fortunately not prevalent, is a persistent one.

How then, should a faculty mentor prepare students for internships and other experiential learning projects? There are obviously countless environment factors that the mentor cannot control. The students’ knowledge, trust, and sense of efficacy have been years in the making. What the students see and hear during their experiences is just as uncontrollable; when mentors release their mentees into the political wilderness, they cannot (and for honesty’s sake, should not) shield students’ eyes from instances of gridlock, conflict, or even misconduct that are very real elements of modern political processes. Ultimately what mentors *can* do is (1) be aware of their students’ expectations and (2) foster more realistic expectations of what their students’ experiences might entail.

There is little research to concretely identify what interns’ expectations are prior to their experience. However, one need only take a perfunctory look at the data here or in the research cited earlier to identify potential “problem areas” relating to students’
expectations which could lead to negative effects on their trust and efficacy. As a faculty supervisor of internships for over ten years, I have come to recognize common recurring mindsets in prospective interns. While it is hardly a scientific typology, I am confident that my colleagues in this area of service will recognize some of the types on my list:

a. the “worldly optimist”: a student with no delusions about the “seamier” side of politics, but who still maintains high sense of efficacy in the system and relatively high levels of trust in individual actors in general (often acknowledging that there are actors in the system with less than admirable methods or motives, believing such actors are in the minority);

b. the “worldly pragmatist”: another student who has no delusions about the world of politics and accepts it as the nature of things; despite seeing the political world as fundamentally combative and assuming *House of Cards* as more truth than fiction, he or she retains a relatively high sense of external efficacy, in that those who are skilled at “playing the game” produce meaningful results;

c. the “modern *Mr. Smith Goes to Washington*”: a young idealist who, while likely ranking highly in political knowledge by virtue of introductory American government classes, is only abstractly aware of the nature and degree of conflict in modern politics and is often surprised and disheartened by seeing this conflict manifest itself in the daily interactions of the officeholders they serve.

My point in differentiating these “types” is to assert that when we only measure common variables such as political knowledge, activity, and efficacy, each of the three students I have described above would appear identical to the others, though there is clearly the potential that they will have radically different experiences as interns or in a legislative simulation. To further complicate matters, identifying the students most at risk of having a negative experience might not be as easy as it seems. Of the three types I describe above, the third would intuitively seem to represent the greatest risk; however, the “disaffected” student in my group of interviewees who reported abandoning plans of running for office would easily have been included in the second group (i.e., the pragmatists).

**Future Research**

Assessing a student’s expectations need not involve developing a complex survey instrument (though that may be a worthy goal for future research). One of the primary goals of an experiential learning project is simply to produce a student with a more learned view of the political system and not a pessimistic view. If we logically assume that disappointment is a product of witnessing behaviors that one was not expecting, then setting reasonable expectations as to what participants will witness should serve to minimize these surprises and the resulting disappointment.
participants begin their experiences, faculty mentors should take steps to help students mentally envision the types of behaviors, constructive and otherwise, to which they might be exposed. For example, any student who has completed an introductory American government class will be familiar with concepts such as coalition-building, logrolling, and legislators’ role perceptions (i.e., trustees vs. delegates), at least as abstractions. Mentors should develop exercises in which the students are asked to envision how these concepts might play out in real-world interactions between legislators (e.g., “how might a party whip or other legislator, in a face-to-face meeting, attempt to encourage a colleague to vote a certain way on a bill?”). I often recall the words of a legislative intern, fresh from completing her assignment, who said of the legislative process, “It doesn’t live like it reads.” Bridging the gap between textbook and reality may be an effective way to minimize the occurrence of participants with a “less rosy” view of politics. I hope my colleagues will join me in developing such exercises and reporting the results.

It is my hope that future research will continue to explore all aspects of the impact of internships and other experiential learning projects on political attitudes, particularly efficacy and trust. While the existing trend in studying the impact of service learning projects on political newcomers is certainly valuable, researchers should not discount or neglect the effects of these more intensive and long-term experiences on more politically engaged and advanced students, if for no other reason than that population is considerably more likely to seek elective office or other positions of political leadership. Survey research involving interns is usually complicated by the difficulty in being able to compile samples large enough for meaningful study, particularly on a single campus; perhaps in the future political scientists at multiple institutions will be able to collaborate on surveys or to otherwise aggregate their data. While such studies certainly have the potential to contribute to our understanding of attitude formation and other broad bodies of literature, in the short run they have the promise of providing those in political science who deeply believe in the value of experiential learning with the ability to make such projects even more meaningful for our students.

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Figure 1: Confidence in Legislature’s Ability to Solve Problems

![Bar chart showing confidence levels in the legislature's ability to solve problems. The categories are significantly less confidence, slightly less confidence, no change, slightly more confidence, and significantly more confidence. The chart indicates a peak in confidence at no change, with significantly more confidence showing the lowest level of confidence.]
Implication of Dental Care on Quality of Life

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ABSTRACT
About 43% of people in United States and 41% in European countries are concerning about their oral Health. There are large number of people because of their negligence led to cause impact on overall health and personal life. In this research paper, we found out relationship among factors, which are influencing cost of dental treatment. Our approach is to evaluate the relation between indicators, which include (1) cost of dental evaluation (2) Dental equipment cost (3) High scale rate of dentist (4) dentist to population ratio. Finally we conclude our research work by exhibiting some important ways to increase the awareness and availability of dental care that would benefit the people.

Introduction
The current dental health status in the United States has a lot of inequalities. Most people do not have much knowledge, or do not get treated due to other reasons. This paper focuses on how oral health can influence a person’s life culturally, physically, economically, and systemically. Oral health condition affects an individual’s physical appearance significantly. One’s social responses and relationship depend on the oral health to a great extent. The most basic daily activities like eating, sleeping, etc. depend on the oral health to a great extent. Hence, any slight deviation from the normal can affect the overall health and mental condition of a person. Many systemic diseases are interrelated to the oral health condition. Either the symptoms manifest in the oral region or aggravate each other. Hence, the oral health needs to be maintained for a better living. Better and more innovative interventions need to be made in order to reach every group of the nation’s population. The interventions should be planned in such a way that they cultures are not barriers, and are reachable to every citizen. Only when each and every citizen is educated enough through the health education programs, can the nation be healthier.

Diseases and disorders that result in oral and facial defects can disturb self-image, self-esteem, and the overall well-being. Toothache or loss of sensory functions can limit food choices and the pleasures of eating, speaking, and delimit intimacy. The effects of many systemic diseases on oral region can also compromise the quality of life.

This paper reviews oral-health-related quality of life findings along functional, psychological, social, and economic perspectives, considering the influence of cultural and spiritual values. The paper concludes with a discussion of the need and possible methods to improve access to dental care.

The Cultural Context
Different cultural niches differ in their opinion on health, and in how they consider a health problem, examine its seriousness, and decide whether or not to see a doctor. Most individualistic decisions regarding whether or not to take the treatment, whether to take self-care and whether to go back for a follow-up; are culturally influenced. Cultural beliefs regarding the body and its state of health or disease are mostly influenced by historical backgrounds, which ultimately influence how diseases are regarded and treated.
Some might practically combine many alternative-healing practices with participation in traditional care delivery systems. These beliefs are comforting and satisfying to people. The influence of the Western culture and science on quality of life still depends on how people accept them into their lives. Migrations from conventional community rural life to modern civilization have led to family disturbances and
violence, drug addiction, sexually transmitted diseases, and chronic diseases like hypertension in most places.

However, Western science may teach some cultural niches that certain conventional child-rearing practices can be injurious to oral health. For example, since early childhood caries has complex etiologies, researches are being conducted among certain cultural groups to explore the extent to which traditional means of calming crying babies or handling bedtime routines play a role; as well as investigating the roles of prenatal nutrition and transmission of infection from mother to child.

The white population in America is expected to no longer represent the majority by 2050. In this process, the cultures and traditions of the minority groups may become more accepted and dominant. However, cultural traditions are neither static nor omnipotent in shaping people's lives. Hence, the direction of these changes and their effects may be hard to predict.

**Oral-Health and Life**

**Functional Dimensions**

Dental health affects the ability to eat and enjoy the full range of dietary choices. The result of poor oral health also has been known to be associated with insomniac conditions, mainly due to oral-facial pain.

**Eating**

Dental and systemic diseases can significantly affect appetite and the ability to eat, and ultimately can compromise the overall health of a person. The effects of chronic illness and medications are mostly evident among the frail elderly. Most of the elderly have under nutrition problems because of eating and swallowing difficulties. The efficiency of artificial teeth is at least 30 to 40 percent lower than that of natural teeth, and hence, elderly populations in the United States report chewing troubles. The chewing function of an individual gradually reduces as the number of missing teeth increases and the artificial teeth help to improve only a part of the chewing function. Missing teeth can affect the taste buds, chewing ability, and eating frequency. Impaired eating can result due to conditions other than tooth loss like reduced salivary flow and temporomandibular joint disorders, which is also associated with problems in eating, talking, or swallowing. These conditions are often associated with limited mouth opening and severe pain, which may be constant or only when jaw movements are made. Sjögren's syndrome, a disease in which the salivary glands are progressively destroyed, results in a dry mouth, which leads to discomfort that affects talking, eating, and swallowing.

**Sleeping**

Sleep problems due to oral conditions may result from chronic pain, in a direct way or indirectly where pain and sleeplessness are agglomerated with depression. Acute or chronic oral-facial pain and temporomandibular (jaw) pain are the two most common reasons for sleep disturbances.

**Psychosocial Dimensions**

Psychological distress is caused by certain dental diseases particularly those that affect appearance or involve extensive tooth loss, pain, deformities (like the clefting syndromes), and oral and pharyngeal cancers. Overall, they result in a poorer quality of life and a tendency to avoid social contact due to concerns over facial look.

**Cultural Significance of Teeth**

Certain cultures have approved a variety of modifications to teeth by shaping and restoring, embedding jewels, bleaching, crowning, or orthodontic treatments to improve occlusion and appearance. These procedures have been numerous designed to enhance the status, power, and physical attractiveness of a person.
Social norms have an influence on the decisions regarding aesthetic surgeries. The perceived attractiveness of the human smile depends on the length of the teeth, color, and shape, lip line and fullness, and tooth exposure. Most patients are seeking bleaching these days.

**Dental Problems and Social Function**

Mouth and teeth play the most important role in verbal and nonverbal communications. Any deviations from the normal, which disrupt their functions, are likely to damage self-image and deteriorate the ability to maintain and build social relationships. Social relationships range from the most intimate like dating and mating behaviors, to other contacts, to participation in social and community recreational activities. Oral diseases and disorders can interfere with these social functional roles at any or all levels. Patients with oral conditions may avoid verbal conversations or nonverbal expressions like laughing, smiling, etc. that show their mouth and teeth, probably due to embarrassment or functional problems. These expressions and conversations have a huge impact on social relationships. People who lost teeth might feel uncomfortable chewing in front of others and feel embarrassed during social interactions. They might also avoid close relationships due to the fear of rejection because of their missing teeth. Oral health affects quality of life—either positively or negatively. Less severe oral conditions may also have huge adverse effects on social relationships.

**Impacts of Oral-Facial Pain**

Acute pain resulting from dental caries can usually be treated completely or, will resolve over time like in the case of aphthous ulcers. The cause may not be removable in case of chronic pain in the oral-facial region and treatment focuses on pain relieving. Anxiety and depression are more common in patients suffering with TMD pain. Recent studies suggest that depression in TMD patients could be due to various reasons like uncertainty about the cause(s) and the lack of effective treatments.

**Social Responses to Facial Appearance**

Compared to any other body part, face reflects the individual's identity; a fact neurobiology confirms in identifying an area of the brain that recognizes only faces. Physical attractiveness has a significant effect on psychological development and social relationships. People with deformities are often discriminated and stigmatized. The decisions about what an inherited genetic disorder and a birth defect means and what should be done about it are still being influenced by religious or spiritual beliefs. Progress in medical technology has raised confidence in deformed or injured persons that they can be treated to improve their appearance.

**Indirect Economic Costs**

The per capita costs of oral conditions and treatments as well as the costs of publicly supported dental care programs depict the financial impact of oral conditions on quality of life. Overall costs of chronic pain conditions in America are very high compared to other countries. Since headaches and temporomandibular disorders are very prevalent, the amount for chronic oral-facial pain would definitely be in the billions.

**Relation between oral health and systemic health**

Good oral health care, such as daily brushing and flossing, usually keeps bacteria under control. But without proper oral hygiene, bacteria can multiply excessively and might lead to oral conditions, like tooth decay and gum disease. Certain medications like antihistamines, decongestants, diuretics and painkillers can reduce saliva flow. Since saliva washes away food and neutralizes the acids
produced by bacteria in the oral cavity, protecting from microbial invasion or overgrowth that might lead to disease, these medications could be harmful. A few systemic diseases, such as diabetes and HIV/AIDS, can lower the body’s resistance to infections, resulting in more severe oral health problems.

**Oral Health and Diabetes**

People with diabetes have difficulty digesting sugar because of a lack of insulin, the hormone that converts sugar into energy. Gum disease further complicates diabetes because the inflammation deteriorates the body’s ability to utilize insulin. Diabetes and periodontitis are inter-related. High blood sugar provides optimal conditions for bacteria to multiply, resulting in gum infections. However, managing either of them can help bring the other under control.

**Oral Health and Heart Disease**

The two conditions have numerous risk factors in common, such as smoking, unhealthy diet, and overweight. Periodontitis might have a direct role in increasing the risk for heart disease. Inflammation in the mouth results in inflammation of the blood vessels. These inflamed blood vessels allow less blood to flow between the heart and the rest of the body, raising the blood pressure. Once bacteria enter the blood stream, they can form plaque deposits on blood vessel walls, which can decrease the blood flow, create blockages and result in heart attacks or strokes.

**Oral Health and Pregnancy**

Babies born too early or at a low birth weight often have numerous health problems, like lung conditions, heart diseases, and learning disorders. There is a possible role of gum disease in this because infection and inflammation usually seem to interfere with a fetus’ development in the uterus.

**Oral Health and Osteoporosis**

Osteoporosis and periodontitis are similar in one thing, bone loss. Even though osteoporosis mainly affects women, whereas gum disease is more prevalent among men, it is seen that women who suffer from osteoporosis have gum disease more often than those who do not.

**Oral Health and Smoking**

A smoker is always at three time’s higher risk of severe gum disease than a non-smoker. Nicotine in cigarettes results in constriction of blood vessels. This results in inability of gums to fight infection. Smoking also interferes with treatment such as gum surgeries, which tend to become more complicated and recovery becomes more tedious.

**Neurodegenerative Diseases**

Difficulties with talking, biting, tasting, olfaction, and swallowing are common in neurodegenerative conditions such as Parkinson's disease. Inflammation in the mouth or periodontitis could be one of the factors attributable to developing Alzheimer’s disease.

**HIV/AIDS**

Few of the oral complications of AIDS include painful mouth, dry mucosa, infections, and Kaposi's sarcoma. Good oral health is essential for anyone diagnosed with HIV or AIDS, as they need to be able to consume healthy diets to reduce the loss of strength and overall health.

**Oral Health and Other Conditions**

Rheumatoid Arthritis: Treating periodontal disease has been shown to alleviate pain caused by rheumatoid arthritis. Lung Conditions: Periodontal disease may affect pneumonia and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease negatively, possibly by
increasing the amount of bacteria and infection in the lungs. Obesity: It is seen that periodontitis progresses more quickly in the presence of higher body fat. Cancer therapy: can result in ulcerative mouth, inflamed mucosa, and rampant dental caries. Hence, the body and mouth are interrelated. Taking good care of teeth and gums by brushing twice a day, flossing once a day, and going for regular dental cleanings and check-ups; can really help people live longer.

**Steps to be taken to protect Oral Health**

It is highly essential to take care of teeth, gums and oral health as poor oral maintenance can lead to tooth loss, gum disease, and also seriously affect overall physical health and quality of living. Daily brushing and flossing after every meal is mandatory to maintain a near perfect oral health, along with regular scaling and dental check-ups. For patients suffering from periodontitis, it is highly necessary to continue regular examinations for the treatment and cure of the gum disease, before it turns into a more serious illness. Sore, inflamed and bleeding gums or a dry mouth, can be indicators of another systemic illness such as HIV/AIDS, or could result in diabetes and heart disease.

To protect oral health, good oral hygiene needs to be practiced every day. A few practices like brushing teeth at least twice a day, flossing every day, consuming a healthy diet and limiting between-meal snacks, replacing toothbrush every three to four months or sooner if bristles are frayed, and scheduling regular dental checkups. The current information should help to focus in greater detail those objectives aimed at decreasing unmet oral health needs among certain populations and, therefore, remove the existing inequalities in dental health status. Future studies need to be conducted to know why people in particular age and socioeconomic groups are not using the dental services despite having pain of dental origin. However, agglomerating that social determinants of poor oral health exist along clearly delimited socio-demographic gradients shows that health promotion should begin by covering environmental, socioeconomic, developmental, and lifestyle components that influence health outcomes. The current results should be used to identify the real risk factors such as poverty, poor education and health customs, and limited access to healthy dietary patterns. Hence, future interventions should first identify culturally acceptable, economically viable, and clinically sound programs that deals with the challenges of pursuing overall oral health promotion. To bring change in the current system, policy builders, health care administrators, health care researchers, epidemiologists, intervention evaluators and health care providers should me more innovative in planning interventions. These interventions should also be useful to patients, family members, third- party payers, and employers and help from a healthier nation.

**Conclusion**

After reviewing all the affects of dental and oral care on quality of life, a change needs to be brought in the system to minimize the current inequalities. Dental and oral health has a significant effect on the overall well being of a person, physically and mentally. Since the United States spends the highest amount of its GDP on health care compared to the other countries, it should not be very difficult to plan and implement programs that are useful for all the citizens. Equitable distribution of health care should be focused upon, and the interventions should be planned in such a way that there would be no cultural or any other barriers. People need to be educated on the basic oral health care routines. A small step could make a significant change in their lifestyle. A change in every citizen’s basic routines could
improve the nation’s health to a level that matches the amount of money spent on health care.

References


Would Standards for Online Instruction Enhance Student Learning?

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Introduction

The phenomenal growth of online learning at the college/university level has resulted in an influx of institutions and teachers utilizing the instructional delivery approach. (Ortagus and Stedrak, 2013). In fact, due to the savings from eliminating a bricks-and-mortar environment coupled with increasing tuition costs and enrollments, offering online courses presents a “cash cow” for the higher education organization. Nevertheless, despite the increased popularity of online instruction, much remains to be understood concerning its instructional effectiveness. As illustration, a 2009 survey conducted by the Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities – Sloan National Commission on Online Learning - found that “70 percent of all faculty members believe the learning outcomes of online courses to be either inferior or somewhat inferior, compared with face-to-face instruction” (Parry, 2009, n.p.).

Regardless of the instructional venue, effective teaching results in student learning. Education leaders, politicians, and researchers have proposed various ideas about what are effective teaching standards, ideas which are affecting education policy at every level. Not only are teachers using these standards to assess their own practices, school administrators use them to evaluate teachers and make employment decisions.

From a traditional perspective, professional standards for teachers have long been recognized as an essential to quality teaching as well as student learning and achievement. The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards uses “five core propositions” to define accomplished teaching. These include: teachers are committed to students and their learning; teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students; teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning; teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience; and teachers are members of learning communities (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1987). Similarly, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accredits teacher education institutions on the basis that a new teacher graduate will be able to do the following: “help all pre-kindergarten through twelfth grade (P-12) students learn; teach to P-12 student standards set by specialized professional associations and the states; explain instructional choices based on research-derived knowledge and best practice; apply effective methods of teaching students who are at different developmental stages, have different learning styles, and come from diverse backgrounds; reflect on practice and act on feedback; and be able to integrate technology into instruction effectively” (NCATE, 2008, p. 4).

Additionally, specific to online learning, the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) has published the following standards for use in K-12 education: “facilitate and inspire student learning and creativity, design and develop digital-age learning experiences and assessments, model digital-age work and learning, promote and model digital citizenship and responsibility, and engage in professional growth and leadership” (ISTE, 2012). The organization touts the purpose of the standards is “for evaluating the skills and knowledge educators need to teach, work and learn in an increasingly connected global and digital society” (ISTE, 2012). Nonetheless, careful consideration of the enumerated items reveals that, generally speaking, the first standard is the sole one that addresses instructional strategies. Similarly, standards
have been developed for K-12 online education by the International Association for K-12 Online Learning (iNACOL) and the Council of Regional Accrediting Commissions (C-RAC) established guidelines for the evaluation of distance education primarily to “assist institutions in planning distance education and to provide an assessment framework for institutions already involved in distance education and for evaluation teams” (Higher Learning Commission, 2009, p. 1). However, these standards are directed to K-12 teachers and not higher education instructors. In fact, a literature review of the existing online teaching quality standards demonstrates that national standards are not available for higher education, a disturbing fact considering that in 2011, “nearly three-quarters (74.5%) of all four-year institutions reported increased demand for new online courses and programs while 73% saw an increased demand for existing online courses and programs” (Ortagus and Stedrak, 2013, p. 30).

That information begs the question: are standards needed for online teaching in higher education? In this same vein, are online courses as good as or better than face-to-face courses? Do instructors in online courses require a different set of skills than face-to-face instructors?

As in all educational venues, student learning is the first priority. The researchers teach in online graduate education programs, and have experienced a variety of rewards of teaching in this environment. However, several examples highlight the unique challenges of online learning in the realm of higher education. Online students who are academic advisees have repeatedly sent emails voicing concerns encountered with their online coursework and faculty. One student went so far as to change academic advisors because he was not receiving the support needed from his academic advisor. The pattern continued when that advisor became his instructor; emails were not answered in a timely fashion. The student was asking for coursework information not available in the textbook. He emailed to ask for a face-to-face meeting with the instructor but did not receive a reply (K. Minten, personal communication, January 25, 2013).

Another advisee voiced disapproval of an instructor who seemed more concerned with style formatting than content in assignments. Additionally, the student had been accused of plagiarism but was not given specific input as to where or how the plagiarism occurred. The instructor did not respond to emails requesting further guidance or information about plagiarism (L. Sapp, personal communication, January 28, 2013).

These two examples of student concerns are representative of complaints students reported. They led to the researchers questioning the consistency and effectiveness of online coursework. Several questions came to mind. What is the major focus on online learning? How are online courses organized? How often are online instructors expected to communicate with students? Are student questions and concerns addressed in a timely manner? What is expected of online instructors? What is expected of online students? Granted, many of these same concerns are present in the traditional classroom, but they are exacerbated when confronted by students in an online venue where the problems involve the only mechanism for remedying them.

Using the lack of standards for online education and the legitimate concerns of online students as a basis, a research project was conducted to gain perspective from the college instructor’s point of view.
Literature Review

An incredible number of institutions offer only online courses, and many colleges and universities have added this approach. But how effective are online courses? Quality learning is the result of effective teaching, regardless of the venue. Online coursework is available for all ages of students; many states have online standards for P-12 students. While the literature shows several challenges encountered in online learning, there is not one specific set of online standards for higher education. In an attempt to address this need, several organizations have developed guidelines, competencies, and recommendations for quality online learning.

P-12 Standards for Online Teaching

The Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states “Each student needs a quality teacher. That means someone who knows how to teach – and can show it. It also means someone who knows the subject matter well – and can prove it. Most of all, it means someone who is successful in raising student achievement (2002).” The SRB created a checklist of principles of effective online K-12 teachers based on three premises: 1) an effective teacher knows the content and how to teach it, 2) since it is rare for online teachers to meet their students, strategies are required that provide for active participation in a course that can be accessed at students’ preferred time; 3) quality online teaching must be assessed.

Similarly, the Idaho State Department of Education has created Standards for Online Teachers. “The characteristics of online instruction can be vastly different from teaching in traditional face-to-face environments. Online schools and programs serving K-12 students should be structured to support the unique needs of students and teachers in online environments (2013, 61).” Therefore, the ten standards address the instructors’ effectiveness in these areas: comprehends online education concepts; understands human development; modifies teaching for diverse needs; utilizes various teaching strategies; motivates online students; communicates clearly in an online environment; plans instruction with content and student needs in mind; varies evaluations and assessments; continuously engages in reflective practice; creates partnerships in a professional learning community.

Likewise, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) presents “Educational Technology Facilitation Program Standards: What an Educational Technology Facilitator Must Know and Be Able To Do” (2008, p. 52). These standards support P-12 teachers in utilizing technology within their classrooms. However, they do not include support for online instructors in higher education.

Suggested Guidelines for Higher Education

Roberson and Klotz (2002) state that many online courses are formatted more like independent study or correspondence courses. This organization may impede interaction between students and instructors. They submit that students benefit from personal contact with instructors and interactive coursework. Similarly, Fillian, Limayem, Laferriere, & Mantha (2009) surveyed 841 students taking either online or hybrid classes. They found that all students needed professors who utilized technology satisfactorily, used active learning, were dynamic, and were available to students.
The North Central Association created a document containing “nine hallmarks of quality for distance education” (2009, p.1). *Guidelines for the evaluation of distance education (on-line learning)* offers principles for planning a new program and strategies for program assessment for higher education institutions that currently provide online learning. Further, examples of expected evidence are included, such as appropriateness to institution’s mission, incorporated into academic oversight, curricula requirements, faculty success in online venues, student support services, and online course integrity.

Further, six specific factors are recommended for consideration when creating and assessing distance education programs in higher education (Levy, 2003). The institution must have a vision of and plans for successful online programs. Curriculum and delivery methods should be up-to-date. Instructors need specific training for online teaching in order to be effective. Online students expect and deserve experiences that are the same as on-campus students. Additionally, online students benefit from online study groups and training and support systems. Policies to address copyright/intellectual rights are necessary in the online venue.

In an effort to insure effective online teaching, Creighton University created *Online Teaching Best Practice Standards* (2012). These five standards include 1) use strategies that foster a community of learners; 2) utilize objectives and assessments suitable for online coursework; 3) guide the teaching and learning environment through a variety of strategies; 4) incorporate the University’s best practices in online course design; and 5) exhibit a knowledge of Creighton University’s instructional technologies.

In a similar fashion, Western International University produced *Fifty-One Competencies for Online Instruction*. Smith (2005, p. 1) states that “Teaching online requires specific skill sets (competencies).” Additionally, the document includes a training program for instructors of online courses, and guidelines for brick-and-mortar colleges to move to an effective online component.

**Methodology**

The current research was meant to answer two primary questions: 1.) Would definitive quality standards for online teaching in higher education advance student learning and achievement and support excellence in teaching? 2.) If quality standards would achieve these goals, what specific standards should be embraced? After conducting an extensive review of the literature, the researchers determined that any research specific to the aforementioned questions was remarkably absent. As a result, the researchers decided that the most appropriate approach to this study was the use of a survey for online university teachers with respect to online teaching practices.

**Participants**

The sample in this study included 28 online instructors at a four-year southeastern university, which is fully accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and that grants bachelors and masters degrees. Respondents taught either a course completely online or a blended one, i.e., a course that meets face-to-face primarily but is supported through online access. An overwhelming majority (N = 16) indicated that they had one to five years of online teaching experience and that, during this time, they taught completely online. The next highest category (N = 9)
consisted of teachers with six to 10 years of online experience in a blended course
environment. Ten of the respondents were male while 18 were female. With respect to
the number of years in their present position, the figures were as follows: 1-5 (N=7), 6-
10 (N=5), 11-15 (N=8), 16-20 (N=4), 21-25 (N=3), and more than 25 years (N=1). When
asked which area best described their teaching assignment, 50% represented
education, health and behavioral sciences while 32% represented humanities and fine
arts.

Procedures and Instrument
Since participation was voluntary and, accordingly, since those completing the
survey ceded their informed consent, the study was exempt from full review by the
university’s Institutional Review Board. University staff distributed the instrument on the
Internet through the electronic mail system to all faculty with the caveat that it should
only be completed by those members who had experience with online or blended
courses.

The survey consisted of the following questions:
1.) My institution provided training for teaching online courses before I taught my first
online class.
2.) My institution currently provides training for teaching online before teaching an online
class.
3.) I received adequate training for teaching online.
4.) Online courses taught at my institution have the same level of effectiveness.
5.) I am concerned about quality control in online courses at my institution.
6.) I am concerned about quality control in online courses in higher education.
7.) Definitive quality standards for online teaching would advance student learning and
achievement and support excellence in teaching.

Answers were based on a 5-point Likert scale with “1” being strongly disagree and “5”
representing strongly agree. Additionally, participants responded to two open-response
questions:
1.) If quality standards would achieve these goals, what specific standards should be
embraced?
2.) Different pedagogical skills are required for teaching online and face-to-face. If you
agree with this statement to any degree, provide specific skills required for teaching
online that are not as important in face-to-face instruction.

Results
A total of 28 individuals completed the survey, with the vast majority of
participants having taught an online course for less than five years, with 28% having
taught in their area of expertise for 11-15 years and 50% from education, health, and
behavioral sciences. The overwhelming majority believed that the institution offered and
currently provides training for teaching online before teaching an online course, thereby
constituting adequate training for teaching online. Fifty-seven percent either disagreed
or had no opinion as to whether online courses taught at the institution have the same
level of effectiveness. Similarly, 50% had no concerns about quality control in online
courses at the institution while 64% expressed concern about quality control in online
courses in higher education. Over 67% agreed or strongly agreed that definitive quality
standards for online teaching would advance student learning and achievement and support excellence in teaching.

The open-ended questions generated significant and numerous responses with mixed results.

The first question asked if quality standards would achieve these goals, what specific standards should be embraced?

- “…the effectiveness of online delivery should be benchmarked specifically to on-site classroom based methods – that is what they are supposed to replace”
- “Basically to me just make it as close to f2f format as possible”
- “There is a lack of accountability in the on-line environment. There is no replacement for a proctor for exams and while there are some safeguards there is still too wide of a gap that allows for cheating”
- “policy of how often the instructor is online with specific requirements”
- “work that supports higher order thinking, problem solving”
- “Definition of an exceptional course. What should be included? What methods work well?”
- “There is no way to create across the board standards – science classes are different from literature classes…. An instructor needs to figure out how to engage a class…… My main gripe against programs such as Blackboard…. turn courses into cookie cutter creations and take the passion and excitement out of the creation of the class.”

The second open-ended question posed: Different pedagogical skills are required for teaching online and face to face. If you agree with this statement to any degree, provide specific skills required for teaching online that are not as important in face-to-face instruction.

- “ability to provide prompt feedback”
- “computer literacy”
- “A lot of feedback and lots of personal attention and sensitivity in communication is needed online. In f2f courses students interact with the professor and can see body language and hear voice inflection”
- “1) Technological competency and curiosity; 2) writing clarity; 3) meticulous attention to detail and planning; 4) Personal accessibility- quickly responding to email, forum posts, phone calls, etc.”

Concerning question eight, while nearly half of the comments recommended that online standards should be the same as those for traditional courses, others believed that differences between the two mediums existed. Nevertheless, despite the respondents’ lack of discernment between requisite skills for online versus traditional teaching, a variety of specific skills required for teaching online that the participants considered not as important in face-to-face instruction were offered in response to the last query.
Discussion and Conclusions

The major findings of this study were threefold: (1) teachers of online courses are concerned about quality control in online courses in higher education, (2) teachers of online courses believe that definitive quality standards for online teaching would advance student learning and achievement and support excellence in teaching, and (3) there is a lack of concurrence among teachers of online courses as to what specific standards should be embraced. Comparing these results to other studies is impossible due to the lack of any real previous research on this topic. Yet, the fact that the overwhelming majority of survey respondents indicated the need for standards for online teachers in higher education indicates that further research is needed in this area. Moreover, the results from this study may not be generalized beyond the immediate population due to the small number of participants.
References


Providing Effective Feedback in a Co-Teaching Field Experience Model

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Introduction

Co-teaching practices in the K-12 school system have been utilized since the 1960's. Since the 1990's, one co-teaching model has focused on collaboration between a special education teacher and a general education teacher. The special education teacher and the general education teacher co-teach in the general education classroom. Cook and Friend (1995) identified six types of co-teaching practices: one teach, one observe; one teach, one assist; parallel teaching; station teaching; alternative teaching; and team teaching. One teach, one observe involves one teacher teaching and one teacher collecting data on pre-determined information. One teach, one assist has one of the teachers, usually the general education teacher, teach the class while the other teacher walks around the class assisting the students. Parallel teaching has each teacher taking half a class and each teacher delivers instruction to their group at the same time. Station teaching focuses on teaching in sections in separate areas of the classroom. The students move to each teacher teaching each section. Alternative teaching involves one teacher teaching a small group of students while the other teacher teaches the rest of the class. The last type of co-teaching is team teaching, which includes both teachers teaching together in multiple ways; such as taking turns, modeling, or role playing. In a review of the existing research on co-teaching, Scruggs, Mastropieri, and McDuffie (2007) found that co-teaching benefits included increased collaboration and that students with disabilities and without disabilities benefited from the co-teaching. Communication is necessary for collaboration to be successful in a co-teaching model (Stivers, 2008). Co-planning is one form of communication that is essential in a co-teaching model (Mastropieri, 2005).

Since co-teaching is an established practice in the K-12 school system, it would seem that university teacher training programs would include co-teaching in course work and field experiences. However, a review of the literature involving co-teaching has very few articles where teacher training programs have consistently included co-teaching within the curriculum and field practices. The following information involving a one teach, one observe co-teaching experience for students in a pre-service special education teaching program is designed to increase the data base involving co-teaching in the teacher training literature.

Background Information

The Special Education program at Central Washington University in Ellensburg, Washington, offers both a major and a minor in special education. The special education major leads to a supporting endorsement to teach pre-school through 12th grade students qualifying and needing special education services.

The capstone course for the special education major is a sixteen credit practicum experience. The practicum includes a full time experience in a special education service classroom in a public school for eleven weeks. The classroom options include preschool through high school. Historically, one practicum student is placed with one teacher in the classroom.

The practicum student has multiple competencies to complete by the end of the eleven weeks. Most of the competencies involve instruction, behavior management, assessment, and communication. The classroom teacher’s responsibility is to assist the student in completing the competencies. A special education faculty member from Central Washington University visits the practicum student once a week to give
feedback to the practicum student regarding progress toward meeting the competencies. The faculty member and classroom teacher also observe the practicum student teaching the students in the class and provide feedback to the student. The number of opportunities to observe the practicum student varies. Variables associated with the number of opportunities to observe include: classroom teacher’s perception of the practicum student’s ability to teach, classroom teacher’s lack of time to observe and the faculty member’s opportunity to observe.

The classroom teacher’s perception of the practicum student’s ability to teach effectively, at times, has limited the number of opportunities for the practicum student to teach consistently. This perception has impacted the opportunities to receive feedback and has relegated the practicum student to assisting students in the classroom when they need help, while the classroom teacher teaches. Classroom teachers have many responsibilities within and outside of the classroom. For those practicum students who have demonstrated the ability to teach effectively, many of the classroom teachers have utilized the extra time for completing other tasks they are required to do within their job responsibilities. Consistent feedback for the practicum student becomes less of a priority for the classroom teacher. Often times the faculty members’ opportunity to observe the practicum student is dependent upon their teaching schedule for that quarter. Based on the schedule, faculty members may be limited to certain times or days to observe the practicum student.

Providing feedback to practicum students who are working in the classroom is critical since, for most of the students, this is their first experience teaching students in the classroom environment. Consistent feedback is critical for the practicum students to identify their strengths and areas needing improvement as teachers.

**Co-Teaching Feedback Model**

Students who are Special Education majors complete a sixteen credit practicum field experience in the quarter prior to their student teaching. Students who want to utilize the co-teaching model sign up for that option. The students are required to attend a seminar in the quarter prior to their practicum field experience. The seminar is a dialogue between the practicum students and the faculty supervisor that include the following required competencies:

1. Daily journal writing
2. Communication skills action plan
3. Philosophy statement
4. Research on the practicum population
5. Comprehensive case study
6. Instructional plan
7. Individualized education program
8. Transition plan
9. Advocacy plan
10. Behavioral study
11. Comprehensive assessment plan
12. Effective teaching strategies
13. Instructional lesson videotape
14. Student feedback form
15. Paraprofessional interview
The seminar also includes information regarding professional behavior expectations, school district policies, and communication procedures. After the conclusion of the seminar, the students are responsible for contacting the school and teacher they will be working with prior to the start of their practicum field experience.

During the first two weeks of the practicum, the two practicum students observe the teacher while she is instructing. The students use the observational data sheet which includes how the teacher interacted with students prior to instruction, during instruction and after instruction. Data prior to instruction includes the questions; were all lesson materials prepared prior to the lesson? How did the teacher greet the students? How did the teacher transition the students from greetings to preparing them for the lesson? During the lesson, the practicum students collect data on the teachers pace of instruction, how behavior was managed and how the teacher transitioned the students between activities. At the conclusion of the lesson the practicum students observed how the teacher structured the transition of students from the lesson time to the next environment the students were moving to. During these first two weeks, the practicum students, independently, reflect on the data collected through their observations of the teacher and discuss what each observed. The goal for having the practicum students collect data through observation for the first two weeks is to have them see how research supported instruction is utilized with fidelity. The practicum students are able to actually observe, over an extended period of time, how an experienced teacher effectively utilizes instruction.

For the rest of the quarter, the classroom teacher schedules the practicum students two hours of instructional time where they are co-teaching and four hours of individual instruction with students in the class. One goal of this process is for the practicum students to experience both types of instructional models. When the students are co-teaching, one student teaches and the other student observes. The observation process is the same process the students utilized when they observed the classroom teacher during the first two weeks of the practicum. In addition to the observation feedback, the student being observed must discuss the information from the observational data sheet with the practicum student who was observing the instruction. After discussing the feedback, the practicum student being observed must identify, in writing, the strengths of the lesson, the areas of the lesson needing improvement, and what changes to the next lesson they will focus on. Each student receives written feedback, at least twice a day, for nine weeks from their co-teaching partner. In addition to the written feedback from their partner, both students receive written feedback from the classroom teacher and university supervisor during their co-teaching and individual teaching times. All observations are recorded on the same observational feedback form discussed previously.

At the end of the eleven week practicum, both practicum students and the classroom teacher write their reflections of the strengths and areas of concern of the co-teaching and individual teaching models. The reflections are utilized each quarter by the university supervisor to make any changes to the feedback model.
Discussion and Recommendations

The co-teaching model has been utilized for the last two years in two elementary classrooms. The cooperating teachers in both classrooms have stated that the model has been effective. Both teachers have had practicum students and student teachers in their classrooms. The teachers believe that the co-teaching model is superior to the one teach model for the following reasons:

1. The practicum students receive feedback on a consistent basis. In the co-teaching model, the practicum students receive formal feedback from their peers at least two times a day for eleven weeks. They also receive feedback from their cooperating teacher and university supervisor. Specific feedback allows the students to use the information to identify their strengths and areas to focus on for improvement in their teaching. The cooperating teachers stated that the practicum students’ ability to teach with fidelity was implemented earlier compared to the one student model.

2. The practicum students use each other to discuss ideas and strategies to assist student learning. Both cooperating teachers stated that the practicum students would discuss how to assist students who were struggling during their breaks and would create plans for how they would change current practices to meet the needs of their students.

3. The practicum students initiated discussions with their cooperating teacher on a consistent basis. Both cooperating teachers stated that the practicum students would take the initiative in setting up times to sit down with their cooperating teacher. They would be prepared with a list of questions and suggestions for things they wanted to try to assist student learning. The cooperating teachers believed the co-teaching model taught the students to be more assertive when communicating with their cooperating teacher.

4. The students being taught by the practicum students made great gains in the learning goals. The cooperating teachers stated that during the eleven week practicum, utilizing the co-teaching model, the academic and behavioral gains in students exceeded results when compared to gains when the co-teaching model was not utilized.

Feedback from the practicum students and cooperating teachers over the last two years has been overwhelmingly positive for the co-teaching model. When pre-service teachers receive consistent, structured feedback and implement changes based on the feedback, their teaching effectiveness increases dramatically.

The co-teaching model for pre-service teachers should be a possible effective alternative to the traditional model of one teach. Having options that are found to be effective, allows for more flexibility for program faculty and students. Having options to the traditional approach of one teach pre-service experiences should be considered, especially when there is data to support the approach.
References


Eritrea, Taking Care of its Wounded War Veterans:
A Lesson to be Learned

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Abstract:

A study was conducted in the summer 2013, in Eritrea, interviewing individuals and organizations involved in the rehabilitation of war-disabled veterans. The study examines Eritrea’s successes and the challenges it faced in rehabilitating its war veterans. Eritrea is one of the youngest and smallest nations in Africa, located along the Red Sea coast, in the Horn of Africa. It declared its independence, in 1991, after waging 30 years of armed liberation struggle against Ethiopian occupation. This 30 years’ war however came at a heavy cost. During the war, more than 150,000 Eritreans died. Some 65,000 freedom fighters were martyred and tens of thousands sustained disabilities. Most of them were freedom fighters. After independence, despite many of the problems that it was facing, including a completely devastated economy and infrastructure, the young nation never forgot its veterans. Eritrean War Disabled Fighters Association was set up to assist the disabled fighters to become independent and productive members of their communities.

Introduction: Brief History of Eritrea

Eritrea is one of the youngest and smallest nations in Africa. The total area is 46,842 square miles (121,320 sq.km), about the size of Indiana, with a population of 6,086,495 (www.infoplease.com). Much of the country is mountainous. The Eritrean highland is at an altitude that gives it a mild temperature so that one can dress comfortably in a three-piece suit, all year long. Its narrow Red Sea coastal plain is one of the hottest and driest places in Africa. The cooler central highlands have fertile valleys that support agriculture. Eritrea is bordered by the Sudan on the north and west, the Red Sea on the north and east, and Ethiopia and Djibouti on the south.

It is also a nation that has been under different colonialisr flags. In the 16th century it came under the control of the Ottoman Empire and later on under the Egyptians (L.Cliffe & B. Davidson1988). The Italians captured the coastal areas in 1885 and the Treaty of Uccialli, May 2, 1889 (Marcus 1994), gave Italy sovereignty over all of Eritrea. At the end of the Second World War, the British drove the Italians out of Eritrea and administered it as a UN Trust Territory, until it became federated with Ethiopia on Sept. 15, 1952. The United Nations decided that the Eritreans should have a referendum and decide whether or not to join Ethiopia permanently (Wrong 2005).

Ethiopia was advised and warned to abide by the UN Resolution 390-A (V) and not to annex Eritrea. It was further advised that refusal to abide by this resolution would cause them to run the risk of Eritrean discontent and eventual revolt (Trevaskis 1960). Unfortunately, the Emperor of Ethiopia, Emperor Haile Selassie I chose to ignore Resolution 390-A (V), which clearly articulated the federation would only be “null” and ‘void” through a referendum. Consequently, on November 13, 1962, Ethiopian troops, stationed in Eritrea, were ordered to take up positions at the main points of the capital city and other major Eritrean towns. Ethiopian jets were flying over Eritrea’s leading towns to intimidate the people. Prior to this, members of Eritrean the parliament who opposed the union were let go. Even then, when the notion to dissolve the federation was put to vote, the Eritrean Parliament voted it down four times (Haile 1988). Regardless, with the blessing of the United States and Great Britain, on Nov. 14, 1962, Ethiopia declared that Eritrea willingly became part of Ethiopia. The Eritreans sought to protest this illegal annexation. All attempts to reach the United Nations,
through letters and telegrams, however, were to no avail. As a result, they took their guns and went to the mountains and plains of Eritrea.

**Literature Review:**

**The History of Eritrean Armed Struggle for Independence**

The first “bullet of freedom” was fired September 1st, 1961. Fighting continued over the next 30 years. Throughout the conflict, Ethiopia used "anti-personnel gas (Johnson & Johnson1981) and weapons of mass destruction, including napalm, and other incendiary devices (Keller, Edmond J. (December 1992). The Eritreans fought many fierce battles, but the one that changed the tide and ushered Eritrea’s independence was the defeat of the Nadew Command.

This was the largest command of the Ethiopian Army Corps. It was composed of three combat divisions and accompanying support units with Russian advisors. The Nadew Command was preparing to launch an offensive campaign against the Eritrean Popular Liberation Front (EPLF) during the month of March, 1988. However, they were pre-empted by the EPLF. On the morning of March 17, the EPLF deployed troops on three fronts around Hedai Valley to encircle the Ethiopian garrison. Upon their attack, the Ethiopian forces began to withdraw but were cut off. By the end of the three-day battle the Eritreans had killed or captured over 18,000 Ethiopian soldiers.

Of all the different battles that the Eritreans fought, the authors want to mention and point out the significance of this battle. This victory of the EPLF over the Nadew Command is considered, by the historian Basil Davidson, to be the most significant victory for any liberation movement since the Vietnamese victory at Dien Bien Phu (Cliffe, Lionel, and Basil Davidson, 1988). This account was supported by a Canadian journalist and founding editor of the Toronto Sun, Peter Worthington. His visit to Eritrea was an eyewitness account of the Eritrean struggle more than two decades ago. In his last article, “Remarkable to witness birth of Eritrea,” he wrote the following: “I was there for the battle of Afabet — walking among dead bodies, witnessing the pillaged Ethiopian army headquarters where Canadian food aid for refugees had been diverted to army kitchens for soldiers”. In more years than I like to remember attending wars and crises, I’ve never seen anything to match Eritrea’s war for independence — almost totally self-reliant, dependent no one but themselves. It was one of the rare decisive battles that change the course of history. It is often compared with Dien Bien Phu that defeated the French in Indochina, and Kursk, the largest tank battle of WWII where the Russians beat the Germans. “(Worthington 2013)

It was not too long after the demise of the Nadew Command that the Eritrean People’s Liberation Front (EPLF) defeated the Ethiopian army and was able to gain control of Asmara, the Eritrean capital. A provisional government was established May 23, 1991. A referendum on Eritrean independence was held, supported by the UN and the new Ethiopian government. Eritreans voters almost unanimously opted for an independent republic and Ethiopia recognized Eritrean Sovereignty.

Eritrea declared its independence as sovereign state on May 3, 1993, and joined the United Nations. This 30 years’ war however came at a heavy cost. During the war, more than 150,000 Eritreans died. Some 65,000 freedom fighters were martyred and tens of thousands sustained disabilities (Haben no.1 (n.d.)). Most of them were freedom fighters. For a country that fought 30 years, the number of disabled people mentioned
above is not large. It is very possible that this small number is because this movement was able to create an efficient health care system that took care of those wounded in the field.

Many freedom fighters who were wounded were treated quickly and properly and were sent back to continue fighting. This was done through the creation of medically sound preventative and curative primary health care services. This health care service was created in 1970 and by 1987 there were 800 barefoot doctors, 41 laboratory and radio technicians and about 151 nurses. These individuals served in six regional hospitals and a central hospital at Orotta (Pateman 1998). Additionally, many of those wounded fighters who were treated continued serving in different ways and remained contributing members of the liberation movement. Even those who were now using wheelchairs taught and supported their paraplegic fellow soldiers (Firebrace & Holland, 1984).

From early on, the Eritrean People’s Liberation Front (EPLF) gave close attention to their war disabled fighters. As early as 1978 the war disabled fighters were organized under the Social Affairs Department which was created to assist the elderly, people with disability and those who were orphaned, because of the war (Haben No. 1, 1997). As the EPLF became stronger and liberated more areas, their commitment to disabled veterans became even stronger. The National Democratic Program of the Second and Unity Congress of the EPLF met on March 19, 1987. There, the EPLF, committed to extend the necessary support and provide care to those fighters who sustained disability during the struggle against the Ethiopian colonialism.

The Establishment of the Eritrean War-disabled Fighter’s Association (EWDF). Immediately after independence, many of the wounded veterans were put together in one location. Most were housed in Mai Habar Central Zone and were sitting idle. The country was in shambles and the wounded veterans were not able to find work because some fifty per cent of the urban force was unemployed (Pateman 1988). In addition, the young government was forced to demobilize some 20,000 fighters who joined the struggle in the last year of the war. This was in addition to having to accommodate the thousands of refugees who came back from the Sudan and other neighboring countries.

All of these people needed jobs and the young government was in no position to assist all those who were unemployed. Additionally, these young fighters did not have any accumulated capital or the skills necessary for becoming productive citizens since they had joined the liberation movement at an early age. As a result, many disabled ex-fighters became frustrated and went on strike, asking for jobs, rehabilitation and other compensation that they were entitled too. The government went to the drawing board to come up with ideas regarding how to support and rehabilitate its disabled veterans. Steps needed to be taken to safeguard and defend the human dignity and rights of wardisabled fighters. One such step was to see to it that service rendering agencies took into consideration the needs of disabled persons as they formulated operational programs such as the construction of buildings and roads.

After independence, and despite the many problems it was facing, the young government never forgot its disabled veterans. On December 10, 1991, the provisional government proclaimed that it would collect a rehabilitation tax that would be channeled
to the benefit of war disabled fighters (published in the official gazette VOL. 1, 1991) (Haben No.1 (n.d.)) This proclamation was followed by a public meeting on September 3, 1991, attended by President Isaias Afwerki. The meeting resulted in the selection of a committee tasked with the reintegration of war disabled fighters, in order for them to be able to live happy and productive lives, as fully included members of the Eritrean society. This committee raised a sizable amount of funds. These funds became the seed money for EWDFA to open its doors on October 17, 1993 (Haben No.1(n.d.)). EWDFA was established as an independent, non-government entity with the following objectives as its guiding principles:

- Ensure a guaranteed future as far as the lives of war disabled fighters are concerned;
- Assist the disabled to become self-supporting through launching income-generating and rehabilitation schemes, and thus enable them to overcome dependency, lack of self-confidence and possible feelings of inferiority;
- Reactivate and keep up the spirit of self-sacrifice and hard work that was vividly demonstrated in the days of armed struggle and hence be able to make use of these assets at the present phase of national reconstruction based on self-reliance.
- Overcome the barriers of disability and thereby create equal opportunities in all spheres of life.
- Fully exploit the positive attitudes toward the war disabled that are being manifested by governments and international bodies as well as making the former benefit from priority treatment whenever the need arises;
- Organize professional, administrative, technical and accounting training programs in favor of the disabled so as to enable them to make full use of available opportunities;
- With a view to promoting the all-round organizational strength of the Association, properly identify the problems that need to be tackled as well as do away with instances of emotional and non-practical attitudes on the part of some disabled persons, conscious endeavors must be made towards enabling the Association and the disabled themselves to become self-supporting. (Haben No.1 (n.d.)).

Profile of Eritrean War Disabled Veterans

During the war, the EPLF fighting force grew to almost 110,000 fighters, almost 3% of the total population of Eritrea. Eritreans in the trenches described themselves as “fighters,” not as “soldiers,” and this included women in the front lines. EPLF “fighters” were comprised of roughly 30% women. (Peter Worthington 2013).

As for the different types of disability, 87.6% sustained physical disability. Of the physical disabilities sustained, 10.1% and 1.7% were sight and hearing impaired respectively, with a small number, 0.6%, incurring mental illness. The average age of the fighters who became disabled was 32 years. They had fought for approximately 9 to 10 years and had been disabled for an average of 8 to 9 years, (Haben No. 20, 1999-2001, December 2002). Approximately 20,000 individuals sustained disabilities resulting from the war. Of those, 81.7% were males, compared to 18.3 % females. Today, there are approximately 4000 female war disabled veterans. Of those, 300 are paralyzed female war veterans, some confined to wheelchairs. Others have lost limbs. Some are
blind or suffer varying degrees of deafness. Since most of them were in the battlefield, their injuries are similar to their male counterparts. In addition to their disability, some have children and reported that there is a high rate of divorce among veterans. The rate is close to 50%, with the disability sometimes being the cause. Also with this group, the factor of rearing children as single parents becomes even more problematic in that child rearing is more often than not, the burden of the women. With a limited amount of pension income (1000 Nakfa) and the high cost of living, women with disabilities often find the situation unbearable. Approximately 800 female disabled veterans run their own businesses. (Abeba Tuku, Personal Communication, May 17, 2013).

According to the Special Edition of Haben No. 20 (1999-2001 December 2002) published in Tigrigna language, the total number of registered war disabled Eritrean freedom fighters was 18,311. Registration, at the time, however, was on going and the number of disabled fighters was expected to rise to 25,000. This would include those fighters who were wounded during the recent border war with Ethiopia that took place in 1998-2000. When EDWFA was organized, of the 18,311 disabled fighters registered, 35.2% had minor injuries that allowed them to work. They were consequently demobilized. Some 20.1% of them sustained heavy injuries that qualified them for constant care. They remain under the Association’s care. Another 24% of the disabled are working regular jobs with the government and other private agencies. (Haben No. 2, (n.d.)).

EDWFA Membership
There are three kinds of membership:

1. Active permanent members. These are members who are in good standing, according to the articles of the association. To be in good standing, a member must pay his/her membership fees regularly, participate in the ongoing activities of the association and attend the association meetings.

2. Inactive members. This group comprises approximately 65.2% (11,939) of the total number of disabled fighters. Although they are not active, card-holding members of the association, due to a variety of reasons, the association is doing everything possible to include these individuals as active members of the association.

3. Associate and honorary members. These are government officials as well as successful community members who are there to help the association through direct contribution of money and advice. (Haben No.1, (n.d)). The distribution of where the disabled fighters are residing now could be associated with their place of origin. It is not surprising that 35.7% of the disabled fighters are residing in the central region which includes the capital city of Asmara. It is highly possible that most of them had joined the liberation front from there. The reason why so many are from this region could be explained by a) first and foremost, the Central region is the most densely populated area and consequently more people from this region joined the liberation front, b) the vanguard of the revolution was students who were attending high schools and other trade schools which were located around the capital city. Other than that the distribution of disabled fighters among the remaining regions is more or less equal.
Experience: Challenges and Achievements of EW DFA:

Based on extensive interviews conducted by the researcher, Yegin Habtes with Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu (May, 17, 2013), it was determined that primary purpose of the chairman of EW DFA is to assist the disabled fighters in becoming independent, productive and fully included members of their communities. This is only proper given that they had been away from civilian life for many years fighting in the jungles and mountains of Eritrea. Additionally, the organization took the responsibility of facilitating treatment, care and socialization of those who were severely disabled. However, one of its main objectives remains raising public awareness about disability in general and particularly why these young men and woman became disabled.

This is very important since those who were born after independence might not understand why the young man in their neighborhood is in a wheelchair and the young woman is walking with a white-cane. Immediately, after independence the public was and still remains very supportive, morally and materially, of those who became disabled fighting for independence. It is imperative, however, to educate the young generation so the support and appreciation of those disabled fighters will continue in the future. The association provides various types of services to all members, based on the nature of their disabilities (Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu, Personal Communication. May, 2013).

To determine the kind of assistance the disabled veterans need, EW DFA conducted a comprehensive study on the status of the disabled veterans in the country. The study collected socioeconomic data of the disabled veterans, marital status, children, and family employment status. The main reason for this comprehensive study was to determine priorities regarding the kind of assistance needed. The comprehensive study indicated the following: 1.) Lack of assistive devices for mobility, 2.) Health problems, 3.) Low academic level of education, and 4.) Lack of vocational skills.

Assistive Devices Assistance:

If the disabled war veterans want to engage in employment or need to participate in community social activities such as weddings, they need assistive technology devices like wheelchairs, hearing aids, eye glasses, etc. Before any assistance is given in finding employment, the assistive technology devices problem should be solved. The Association helps the veterans to receive such devices free of charge.

Health problems:

Next on the list were the general health problems of the veterans. The war disabled had several health problems related to their disabilities. Some had wounds that were not healed, some faced infection and some needed continuous health care. The Association pays all expenses for hospitalization inside the country, doctors, admittance to hospitals, and prescription medicines. Further, if a disabled veteran from the rural areas is referred to a hospital located in another town or the capital city, the association pays all local transport expenses. In addition to assisting with local medical help, the Association brings medical specialist from abroad whenever it is necessary. If a veteran is referred by a Medical Board to seek additional medical assistance outside the country, the Association covers 70% of the air ticket. Today, that has been reduced to 50%, due to financial constraints the Association is facing. In addition, the association
imports medicines, such as pain killers and Viagra for disabled veterans with erection problems, from abroad. The Association also had two clinics. They were fully funded and administered by employing doctors and all staff specifically for the purpose of serving the disabled war veterans. Association clinics operated until 2002, before they were transferred to the Ministry of Health (Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu, Personal Communication, May 17, 2013).

**Education: Academic**

After health, the next problem to tackle was the lack of basic education. The level of academic education of the average disabled veterans was very low. Most of them were functionally illiterate. To resolve the problem, the Association opened schools for adult education to raise their academic standard. A few of the disabled veterans joined the integrated schools, and a few joined the Extension program at Asmara University to continue their education that was interrupted by joining the liberation struggle. The Association covered all their educational expenses (Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu, Personal Communication, May 17, 2013).

**Vocational Training:**

The Comprehensive study, mentioned earlier, that was conducted by EDWFA, indicated that 68.5% of the disabled war veterans were unskilled and without any vocation. In addition to their disabilities, with low academic level and without vocational skills it was and remains extremely difficult to participate in the labour market. At the beginning, the Association gave such training as driving lessons, and other skills for employment to its disabled war veteran members. Building on that, the Association decided to open a vocational school for them. In addition, it was decided to assist veterans in participating in other government vocational schools in the county. The government opened a boarding Vocational School for the Disabled at Mai Habar. The vocational school offered courses in woodwork, metalwork, construction, and computer technology with the intention that they would be able to participate in the country's labour market. In addition to the vocational school training, veterans joined other private driving and computer schools. However, because of their daily family responsibilities, many could not participate in the training program. Subsequently, their numbers gradually dwindled and the Vocational School for the Disabled was transferred to the general vocational school system of the country (Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu, Personal Communication. May 17, 2013).

**EWDFSA Efforts Regarding Self-Employment Opportunities: Entrepreneurships**

After providing vocational training, the next step and challenge was to facilitate opportunities for securing jobs. Even though the society maintained a collective positive attitude towards the war-disabled veterans, employment opportunities were limited. Many of the disabled veterans were unable to secure jobs in their profession in either the private or government sectors. The small private sector economy that survived the war for independence was itself impoverished by the long war and could not create jobs in the economy. At the same time, the government was also engaged in reducing the size of the army, because of budget constraints.
Since employment among the disabled veterans became the primary problem, the Association went back to the drawing board to study and tackle the problem. If there were no opportunities for employment, the Association realized it had to look at other alternatives to create employment for its members. One alternative was to start businesses that the disabled veterans could run for themselves. Based on its findings, EWDAFA decided to study ways to generate self-employment opportunities for its members.

The Association started to campaign, on a national level, to study on the kind of businesses that could be opened to employ the disabled veterans, on an individual or group basis. The decision was made to start business as cooperatives. At the time, however, there were no policies or rules regarding cooperatives in the country. Therefore, it was decided to open businesses for them as Private Limited Companies. This would be done by organizing the disabled veterans in groups to form partnerships or on an individual basis. The disabled veterans, however, did not have money, and all the start-up capital for the business would have to come from the Association.

The Association, based on its study, informed the veterans of its intentions. The plan was to open disabled-veterans-owned-businesses at certain areas and encourage the members to organize themselves in groups to help make it happen. The Association laid out requirements that the veterans would have to fulfill in order to participate in the partnership businesses. The requirements for the partnership group formation included having a mixture of different disabilities such as blindness, deafness, loss of limbs or paralysis. The second requirement for was a gender mixture. Men and female disabled veterans had to be included. The third requirement was that the group must come from the same localities or region where the business to be established.

Often groups are formed with friends who grew up together or fought together and knew one another beforehand. The members of the group were required to contribute 5000.00 Nakfa from their own sources. This would serve as a share or down payment as well as solidify their ownership of the business. Many were able to raise the money from families and friends or borrow it for the down payment. Once they had organized themselves voluntarily in groups of ten, fifteen etc. they would then approach the Association, and the Association would apply to the government to allocate land for the proposed business.

Once the land was secured, the members would then elect two members to liaison with the Association. Based on the design of the members, construction of the business would then begin. The groups’ two elected would then, in consultation with the building expert employees of the Association, present their needs regarding building materials. Money is then requested by the members and approved by the Association for all the expenses required to purchase the building construction materials.

In order for the members to feel ownership of the project, they follow through all phases of the construction. The Association pays all the expenses of construction and equipment needed for the businesses. After the completion of the building, a general account is established. The account is an interest free loan for the members, to be paid from the income generated by the businesses. Before the start of the business the Association provides training to members on various topics such as administration, accounting and finance, bookkeeping, storekeeping, etc. (Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu, Personal Communication. May 17, 2013).
Among the many business types identified, it was decided to experiment by opening bakeries, as suitable businesses for the disabled veterans. Bakeries were set up in various towns and the results were satisfactory and it was not difficult for the disabled veterans to work in the bakeries. Also, the business is diversified, to accommodate the disabled veterans’ employment needs. If a bakery is started there are other businesses attached to the bakery, such as a general retail store, tea house, restaurants and gas stations, etc., so that all members could be employed in the business. The members could include blind persons, deaf persons, people with mobility problems, or some may be paralyzed. Each member works according to his/her ability on the various firms of the business.

**EW DFA Follow-up and Business Management Assistances:**

Once the business starts operating, the next important thing is to follow up with the operation. The Association has employees who are experts in various subjects, and assigned to each “Zone.” They make regular visits to the businesses. These Zone directors are supervised and assisted by Mr. Abraham Kiflezion who is housed at the headquarters in Asmara. During the interviews and discussion with officers of EWDFA the first author (Habtes) found them to be very enthusiastic about their work. They consider being able to assist their disabled comrades as a “calling.” Mr. Abraham and the Zone Directors indicated that the Association’s goal is to assist disabled fighters by directing them towards a business that could be profitable. This includes businesses such as gas stations, grain grinding mills as well as goat and bee production (Abraham Kiflezion, Personal Communication, May 17, 2013).

The Zone directors are responsible for determining from the members, by questioning them, if they have encountered any problems in the business. If they identify any problems they try to resolve it on the spot, or they conduct seminars and trainings to the members at a later date. Zone directors also conduct regular regional seminars as part of experience sharing of the businesses in the region. Further, they provide local experts such as banking or internal revenue experts concerning taxes etc.

During the study visit to Himberti a small hamlet in the Central region, the first author (Habtes) spent some time with the Central Zone director, Mr. Tesfamicael Haile and during his trip to Mendefera, he met with the South Zone director Mr. Tesfalidet Mengistu. He also visited with Mr. Dawit Gebre Christos the Anseba Zone director in Keren. One of the most striking things that were noticed is the camaraderie relationship these Zone directors share with the disabled fighters. These directors genuinely work hard to make these young entrepreneurs successful. Officers of the Association from the headquarters also make regular visits and enquire if the veterans are encountering any problems in their respective businesses. Once a year, the Association conducts a seminar in a central location, in Asmara, where delegates from the various zones gather. The seminars are free, with transportation and accommodation costs to the delegates paid by the Association ((Abraham Kiflezion, Personal Communication, May 17, 2013).

After a while, instead of only running bakeries, it was decided to experiment by organizing the disabled veterans to run their own business as individuals. Such businesses would include laundromats, restaurants, farming, handicraft shops, preparing *taita* (*an Eritrean bread*), etc. Individuals were asked to present their business
plans and if it is feasible, the Association would finance it. Often a disabled veteran might start farming or may want to open a retail store, and need financial help. The Association would finance a portion of the capital required. Some individuals may need to expand their business and as such, would approach the Association for loan in order to buy or rent a tractor, buy pumps for irrigation, or a refrigerator for a restaurant etc. Normally the individual would cover 80% and finance 20% of the loan, but in practice it differs. In addition the association started a Microcredit plan for its members. The businesses send a monthly report of their income and expenses to the regional offices of the Association. The regional offices consolidate the regional reports and send their reports, every three months, to the Central office of the Association. The Central office consolidates the Zone reports on six-month basis. The Officers discuss the six-month report and make decisions accordingly. From the income and expenses report, they determine how much is needed for the operation of the business and how much of the loan be repaid. (Memher Gebrebirhan Eyassu, Personal Communication. May 17, 2013).

**Findings:**

Based on interviewing and visiting the veterans and EDWFA officers, the disabled veterans businesses are diversified, which includes bakeries, retail stores, tea houses, restaurants, gas stations, farming, poultry, beekeeping, livestock, vegetables and fruit farming etc. Such diversification helps ensure that all members of the group are employed in the business. Before launching the businesses the Association gives comprehensive business management trainings, to the prospective entrepreneurs in areas like personnel management, finance, book keeping, accounting, store keeping etc. After launching a business the association conducts follow-up visits to tackle any problems that may arise. The Association gives regular free seminars to the veteran business owners in their localities and central locations. These practices have helped to minimize failures of the established business enterprises.

EWFDA business financing activities have proven to be positive. In its 20 years of operation, the Association has not experienced any default problems. The interviews with the disabled veteran entrepreneurs, revealed that almost all wanted to pay their loan as soon as possible and be free of debt. The other frequent answer was that they are conscious of the fact that they have been beneficiaries of the generous loan they received from the association. They are also aware that by paying back their loans to the association early, the funds will be available to be used to help other disabled veterans who are still waiting to be helped to own their business, just like them.

It was found that most of war disabled veterans live a frugal lifestyle, just as they had in the days of the armed struggle for independence. They conducted their lives with the meager stipend they received from the government until they repaid their loans completely. After paying their loans they draw a monthly salary. Some have expanded their operations, and most members were able to build their own houses from the income they generate from their businesses. The various businesses such as bakeries and gas stations that were started by the association in partnerships with disabled veterans are now fully owned by disabled veterans after repaying the entire capital loan they received from the parent association. After the business pays its loan complete ownership of the businesses is transferred to its members and they are not required to
give monthly reports to the Association. The Association then only follows them in a shadow fashion, in the event they should encounter unforeseen problems in their businesses (Abraham Personal Communication, May 15, 2013)

An interview was conducted with Ato Ghirmai Kidane Debretsion, in Mendefera Southern Zone, who is one of the 16 members of Fre-Selam PLC, a diversified enterprise which includes a bakery, retail store, tea room, restaurant and a gas station. The interview shed some light on how they manage their business and organization. They manage the businesses by electing five-person boards, from the 16 members of the business, to serve on the day-to-day management of their firm. Fre-Selam association members run a free election of their board members every two years, by inviting members EW DFA administrators as neutral observers. Among the elected board members, one serves as the project director, the second works as administrator and the third member works as financial controller. The three Board members manage the daily activities of the businesses. The two remaining board members work as advisors to the management team.

Mr Ghirmai Kidane, who is a paralyzed member, reported that they don’t elect the same individuals repeatedly but prefer to rotate the board members. “We believe each member has to become familiar with and gain experience in the managing and running of our businesses. The rest of the members are assigned to work at the various enterprises rotating every six months. “Our experiences in the armed struggle have helped us to cooperate in the business. We believe every member should have to gain experience in running our business. The rotation of our board members helps us not to become victims of rumors because rumors create confusion which can lead to disagreement. If a member works in the various management and enterprise position he would know what is going in that department.” According to Mr. Ghirmai Kidane, their experience of participation in the liberation armed struggle has helped them to forge a strong bond for the group as business partners. He explained their unity and successes in the business world by relating their collective experience during the bitter armed struggle period.

“We act as one family. If there is misunderstanding among members in the running of the business, we call meeting of all members in closed session and we use our experiences from the days of our armed struggle. We practiced ‘Criticism and Self Criticism’ to settle any disagreement. Nothing goes outside that closed meeting and that practice has kept us to work and live as one family and strengthen our unity. I believe those practices are our secrets in maintaining our unity in the business for over 16 years, no one has left the group or quite working because of his or her disability or because of other misunderstanding created in the business. Our unity is the strength behind our success in our business”. (Ghirmai Kidane Personal Communication, May 20, 2013)

Another Interview with Mr. Tesfai Berhe of Halibet Enterprise PLC Himberti shed some light on the challenges that they face in the operation of their businesses. He laments the decline of business activities compared to the initial period when they launched their business. This occurred in the mid-90s, before the start of the border war with Ethiopia.
“The business value has gone down because business activities have declined compared when we started. There is chronic shortage of supply; there is also a fundamental problem in the distribution of supply rationed by the government. When we started this business it was with the good intention of the government and we were organized in group to start as private limited company (PLC). However, when they distribute the supplies they don’t make a distinction between business setup as one privet individual and the PLC business owned and operated by groups, which support several families from a single business.” (Tesfai Berhe, Personal Communication, May 17, 2013)

Mr... Dawit Gebrekristos the Regional Administrator of Zoba Anseba also confirmed the above problems in the region. Shortage of flour is a major problem to all the bakery businesses as well as shortage of fuel for Gas Stations. Shortages of oil also affect businesses that depend on their generator for electrical energy. He pointed that the Disabled veterans Association in the Region was unable to reach the vast majority of the disabled veterans in the region, because of the limited financial resources available relative to the needs in the region. Another problem identified by him is the Housing problem of Disabled War Veterans. Even though housing is in general a national problem, its effects on Disabled Veterans, especially those with children, is very sad. He wishes every disabled veteran could afford to own his/her own house. (Dawit Gebrekirstos Personal Communication, May 23, 2013)

Conclusion:
After leading the nation through armed struggle and achieving national independence, the Eritrean government has tried to take care of the essential needs of its war disabled members by providing medical assistance, education and employment opportunities. By forming an independent organization, the Eritrean War Disabled Fighters Association (EWDFA), despite its limited financial and manpower resources, its achievement is remarkable. This includes helping make the disabled veterans independent and productive members of their society by providing assistive devices for mobility, helping alleviate their health problems with free medical care, and making available free academic education and vocational skills training. It helps its members to become successful business entrepreneurs. However, because of its limited financial resources; having inherited a devastated economy, infrastructure and many external problems of the unresolved border wars with its larger neighbour Ethiopia; and unfair UN sanctions; it was not able to reach a large number of the disabled war veterans. In spite of the above mentioned obstacles, EWDFA’s achievements are admirable and need to be shared with countries that have to deal with the unfortunate reality of the consequences in the aftermath of armed conflicts. The EWDFA business financing model has proven to be a positive experience from which the rest of the world can learn a valuable lesson.
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Fostering Tolerance and Accommodation of Cultural Differences in Teaching Youth through Social Science Discipline

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INTRODUCTION
This session is designed to demonstrate to the participants how effective teaching of social studies methods could foster tolerance and accommodation of cultural differences in youth.
Social studies is an integrated discipline which emanates from social sciences, cultural heritage as well as humanities, science and mathematics. According to the National Council for the social studies, its primary purpose is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse democratic society in an interdependent world (1992). It is an indispensable channel for providing multiple literacies and integrated learning to youth to become well equipped with knowledge, skills and leadership which can change our turbulent world into a more serene and harmonious habitat. Through its interdisciplinary approach, students will become aware of different world cultures and values. Social studies cannot achieve this vision alone. It needs the support of modern technology. The use of technology in social studies instruction facilitates learning and increases students’ curiosity in social and global issues. It also stimulates their interest in problem solving and decision making; thus preparing them to become active and responsible citizens of their country and the world. Multiple literacies with emphasis given to strategies for curriculum integration and learning can expand intellectual horizon and break down borders between cultures and countries, even as it contributes to a better understanding of us, our country and our world. This session will increase participants’ capacity to integrate into their curriculum global consciousness and appropriately utilize technology in educating and assessing youth performance. Multiple literacies through interdisciplinary approach, designed by pre-service teachers in my social studies methods class, will be examined to show how global citizenship and sensitivity to human differences can affect the development of the whole child, teachers and community. Finally, participants will develop plans for integrating their ideas into teaching frameworks for example, instructional methods, activities, and lesson plans or curriculum unit that could be used in their schools or at various levels of instruction (Pk -12).

CLASSROOM DIVERSITY
Classroom diversity is a very complex phenomenon. It is the perception of individual differences as unique and valuable tools for achieving unity and harmony. It is a reform movement designed to bring justice, equality and tolerance into the education of the learner. According to John Dewey, social studies should help students get along with one another, gain an awareness of the world around them, learn how to understand others and respect cultural differences (2001). Unfortunately, the demographic composition of present day classrooms is completely different from what majority of classroom teachers are familiar with. As the world continues to shrink into a global village, people of diverse backgrounds in race, ethnicity, cultures, values socio economic status as well as physical, emotional and social preferences are pulled together and intermingling, much like what we have in a salad bowl. Majority of contemporary schools and classrooms depict our present day societies. In democratic societies, classrooms can no longer remain homogeneous. They have to be heterogeneous to cater for every child with justice and fairness irrespective of who they are. As mentioned earlier, greater percentage of educators cannot cope with current dynamics in the classrooms because their professional training and life experiences were devoid of cross cultural exposure.
My primary focus in this paper is how to use social sciences and technology to equip pre-service teachers with knowledge, experiences, artisanship and courage to meet educational demands of schools and classrooms in a democratic society. If pre-service teachers are not adequately prepared to cope with the diverse cultures and democratic norms and values, they will be incapable of imparting social justice and preparing the young to face their real world. Every child can learn and every child, irrespective of life challenges, is a contributor to the society. Social sciences in conjunction with technology can successfully help us solve most of the issues and problems of our contemporary world. Teachers need to help students develop the skills and values which will enable them to work together across cultures to bring about change and support change that will bring about more socially just and sustainable world, where individuals are empowered and resources are equitably shared. These changes must be suitable for citizens of an increasingly worldwide and culturally diverse community.

Classroom diversity comes with many challenges which include:

- Understanding Diverse Cultures
- Respecting Diverse Languages
- Facing Diverse human Challenges (Exceptionality)
- Analyzing inequality in the treatment of human differences
- Accommodating Inclusion of Human Challenges
- Coping with Demographic changes
- Providing Social Justice

Ideas on How to Instill Social Norms in the Youth

- Curriculum for teaching and learning in a diverse classroom must be active, interactive, and proactive. The teaching of social sciences, humanities, and appreciation of similarities and differences must be geared toward achieving positive values of diverse world cultures.
- Teachers can utilize science and technology to instill leadership qualities, openness, understanding, and respect for human differences in their teaching and monitoring youth.
- Social interaction through cultural immersion in communities, learning centers, social gatherings should be encouraged.
- Teachers can serve as role models in understanding, tolerance and acceptance of individual differences. They should also serve as role models by being actively involved in cultural immersion.
- From my personal experiences, cultural immersion i.e. a powerful tool for acquiring these social norms. (Henshaw, 1999).

Cultural Identities beyond Borders

If children are properly and adequately taught they will recognize the commonalities among fellow human beings. Social studies instructions, studies of humanities and cultural heritage will expose children to similarities and differences found in all cultures through the list below:

- Food
- Clothes
- Customs and traditions
- Cultures and Values
- Social life
- Art and music
When the students understand the basis and the reasoning for the diverse social norms, they will become more sensitive and appreciative of people different from them. Eventually ethnocentrism and biases will fade away as they develop positive behavior and attitude. Throughout the process of learning the social norms of society, they are learning similarities and differences among people around them as well.

Children with disabilities also contribute to the society with the help of modern technology. Two outstanding examples of young contributors are: (1) Nkosi Johnson, a young South African AIDS activist who said, "We Are All The Same". He was born in Kwazulu-Natal in South Africa. At the age of 12, he inspired millions around the world to action in the fight against the epidemic. In his address to the International AIDS Conference in Durban, South Africa, July 9, 2000, he reminded the audience that AIDS victims were no different from other people: “We are normal. We are human beings you can't get AIDS by hugging, kissing, holding hands. ...We can walk, we can talk.... We have needs just like everyone else. We are all the same.” Wooten reported that at the end of one of his interviews, Nkosi told him that while he didn’t want to die, he was not afraid of dying. Mattie’s writings and message of hope and peace is used in schools as educational and motivational for teaching students. Mattie J.T. Stepanek, a well-respected poet and peace activist, lived a life that was brief in length but powerfully blessed with depth. Born on July 17, 1990, Mattie began creating and sharing “Heartsongs” at the young age of 3. He explained that Heartsongs are “gifts that reflect each person’s unique reason for being.” Mattie ultimately published six collections of his “Heartsongs” poetry books and one collection of “Just Peace” essays and e-mail correspondence between Mattie and Former President Jimmy Carter. All seven of Mattie’s books became New York Times Bestsellers and touched millions.

The Interdisciplinary Approach provides children opportunity for interacting and discovering human similarities and differences, which will enhance their understanding of themselves and others.
Technology

The significance of technology:

Today technology is advancing and spreading rapidly. The ability to utilize technology opens lines of communication that cross continental barriers instantaneously. Pre-service teacher can prepare themselves for their future technological classrooms by finding out about all the technology that is available to them, and practicing implementation of these resources in their practicum experiences. By doing this, pre-service teachers will be prepared to help their students participate in the global village that technology has compressed the world into. “Today’s new realities are providing advocates of global education with much broader societal support, and have made the internet a tool of rapidly growing importance for the social studies” (C.Fredrick Risinger, Social Education).

Through technology, students obtain knowledge and insight to the perspective of others, connecting them with the global community. Never before have students had such a variety of avenues to enhance their learning of other cultures, traditions, opinions, and beliefs. This virtual “openness” allow students to develop into empathic adults who are tolerant of diversity on many levels. Further, by employing use of the technologies of today, teachers open lines of communion with their students, and find ways to enhance personal connections. By speaking to students in a language they understand, the language of advancing technology, greater understanding can be obtained. Further, technology can be used to facilitate presentation of subject material, provide support for homework assignments, and serve as a tool for data collection and processing. Knowing how to utilize these tools will propel pre-service teachers into capable and effective classroom teachers.

Preservice teachers can be prepared for teaching their students using technology in their preparations and lesson planning. Preservice teachers at Rhode Island College have used Microsoft office to design interdisciplinary units and semantic webs to assist in preparation of lesson plans to teach countries, world cultures, geography, and map skills. Included in this paper are three such semantic webs, one to teach about the country of Australia, map skills and the third to teach inventions and inventors past and present. Webs like these help teachers plan progressive units that encompass the entire scope of what is meant to be taught in a unit. Additionally, a preservice teacher at Rhode Island College has utilized today’s technology to create a website to help guide teachers in creating a geography semantic web. By using the information set up on the web site, www.wordpress.com, teachers can ensure their units touch upon all Five Themes of Geography, thus making the unit lessons meaningful, exciting and fun. By immersing themselves and student learning in technology, teachers and students can both be prepared for interaction in the global world. This approach can help instil global citizenship and sensitivities to human differences.

Another study that is relevant in this paper is the work of LIZ KOLB (--- -) Beyond Digital Literacy – Developing Everyday Technology Pedagogy in Preservice Teachers. This study looks at belief change in preservice teachers. Preservice teachers enter their teacher education with images of themselves as teachers (Kennedy, 1997). Often preservice teachers use these preconceived beliefs about teaching and learning as filters for subsequent learning during their teacher education (Richardson, 1996; Borko & Putnam, 1996; Thomas & Pedersen, 2003). Kennedy (1997) calls for teacher education programs to explicitly work to change candidates’ preconceptions about teaching. This study attempts to look at how
modelling everyday technology pedagogical strategies in preservice education courses can lead to preservice teachers developing everyday technology pedagogy.

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This study will also alleviate some of the preconceived ideas and fears preservice teachers have about certain subjects and practicum sites they are unfamiliar with. For example, in “Different and the Same, Teacher’s Guide Designed to help teachers and their students talk about, understand, and prevent prejudice”, there are good training workshop guides, outlines and different video topics which could be very beneficial in preparing preservice teachers to understand and develop pedagogical and interactive skills before they are immersed into environments and cultures they are unfamiliar with. A case in point is a cultural immersion project I and colleagues from teacher preparation colleges in Western Pennsylvania conducted. Exerts from some of the Rhode Island College preservice teachers who participated in the project is presented below.

Fear of the Unknown

As discussed earlier, one of the problems in teacher preparation program is lack of adequate preparation of pre-service teachers to cope with diverse cultures they are unfamiliar with. This problem cuts across most countries of the world. In the United States of America, Studies have shown that educators in institutions of teacher preparation are confronted with the problem of how to encourage pre-service teachers after graduation to take up jobs in inner-city communities and schools when they are generally portrayed as areas where crimes of the worst nature abound. Negative stereotypes lead to negative attitudes, fears, misconceptions and discrimination. Consequently, inner-city schools experience increasing difficulties in hiring and retaining teachers who are competent and knowledgeable in the area of multicultural education to teach in inner-city settings. Many studies attribute this problem to the concerns of teachers who otherwise might seek such positions. According to Waxman, Padron, & Stringfield (1999), these concerns are apprehensions about their personal safety, misgivings about their ability to cope with the challenges of inner-city schools, trepidation about the perceived differences in cultural values, and unease regarding the ability of school authorities to address serious social problems. Even though their finding is not refuted some studies also have asserted that similar concerns exist in suburban and rural communities and schools as well. Cultural immersion Project which is presented in this article is one of the three strategies to expose pre-service teachers to diverse cultures and diverse values. The Project was an attempt to provide pre-service teachers opportunity to discover positive aspects of inner-city communities and schools, with the hope that it will pave a way for qualified teachers who are knowledgeable and competent in multicultural education and related issues to seek teaching jobs in inner-city.

EARLY REACTIONS

Some pre-service teachers from the Rhode Island entered the cultural immersion program with little knowledge about large inner-city areas and with many misunderstandings. Their preconceived views covered a broad number of areas.

A preservice teacher participant from Rhode Island College wrote in her reflection paper that:
When I told people that I was going to Elmwood Avenue or the Rhode Island Training School, they told me to be careful and lock my car doors. I think people are so afraid of these places because they have never been there, I admit I was nervous but as soon as you meet the children you realize they are just like children everywhere else.

Another participant from the same college made a similar statement: Many people say it is dangerous to teach in Providence and the kids are crazy and cannot be taught. I do not believe any of this. First of all, there can be danger in any school. I am sure the teachers in Columbine High School did not think any of their students were dangerous; never mind committing such a horrific crime. Any school can have some degree of danger to it. It does not necessarily have to be an inner-city for it to be dangerous.

Changing Views

Most participants from Rhode Island College indicated that, prior to the program; they had made decisions that they would prepare themselves for the worst. However, soon after they arrived and became involved with children in the classrooms, their perceptions began to change. One young lady stated:

When I entered the school, I was in shocked. I have been in quite a few elementary schools through my studies at Rhode Island College and I have never seen one quite like this one. I expected graffiti and trash on the floor. I thought it would really look like a dump. I did not realize that it was a new school. I just automatically assumed that it would be the worst.

One student found his image about students was totally wrong. “They were not thugs and gang bangers; they were beautiful, bright children. The students I worked with adored you when you showed them respect and kindness.” Additionally, pre-service teachers found that some images about the inner-city schools were not true either. A participant described her first observation in one of the urban schools under study in this way:

At this school it is hard to find any spotless vessel of learning. The majority of teachers I had the pleasure of observing were excellent. They loved their jobs and were constantly going for professional development workshops to find tune their skills. With every action and every lesson they taught they had their students’ best interests at heart.

LANGUAGE DIFFERENCES

Many students also commented about issues of language, since in the schools and the community the primary language is not English. Dialect and nonstandard English tend to be the norm. One Rhode Island College participant noted the problem this way after visiting a Family Center in a school in Providence:

Many children in the United States speak English as a second language. Often times their parents don’t speak English at all. In fact, one fourth grade student told me she was teaching her mom English at home on the weekends. If parents do not speak English at home it becomes very difficult to become actively involved in their children’s education. They can’t help with homework because they do not understand the language. Family centers can help in this situation by providing ESL courses.
One of the participants began to realize that the language students bring to school is intimately tied to their family, community, and personal identity, and when teachers label language as wrong, they are also labeling a child and his or her experiences and values as wrong. One participant was shocked by the fact that a majority of the Latino students were hesitant to speak Spanish and seemed to be embarrassed to use it. This hesitancy to use Spanish by some minority students seemed to indicate that they were ashamed of their culture. Many participants found that as teachers, they needed to be very conscious and careful with language differences in their classroom. They found that some minority students used their language as a sense of identity and that they felt somewhat frustrated, because their teachers did not know their first language. One participant said:

*In this school, their philosophy is that all the students should be receiving a two-way bilingual education meaning that those that speak English learn Spanish and those that speak Spanish learn English. I believe this is appropriate because we are in America and there is neither one culture nor one language that we need to follow. I think it would be nice if we could all share in the experience of having a multicultural life.*

This cultural immersion projects has proven that continuous exposure of preservice teachers to real life of cultural diversity will bring about significant changes in education.

For students to develop skills for perceiving, understanding and appreciating cultural diversity and value, the training must be started when they are very young. Fear of the unknown, stereotypical and biased views of other people must be taken care of before the preservice teachers are sent to practicum sites.

**Role of the Interdisciplinary Approach in Teaching and learning in a Technological Age**

According to Patricia Roberts (1996) interdisciplinary approach is a knowledge view and curriculum approach that purposefully draws knowledge, perspectives, and methods of inquiry from more than one discipline together to examine a central theme, problem, person, or event. It does not simply refer to integrated Works from school disciplines but between and among them. For example it is a very complex but effective strategy approach in teaching and learning social science in the modern age. For example, if properly used it will do the following:

- It helps the students to become aware of the world and its multiple cultures.
• It provides an understanding of the concepts of culture as well as reconciling one’s own cultural perspectives with that of persons from other cultures.
• It provides a framework for studying human development, customs and traditions, as well as cultural values of other nations.
• It makes us aware of vital importance of self-understanding.
• It provides perspectives of building a cooperative community of learners.

The Significance of Technology in Teaching and Learning Different World Cultures and Values for the 21st Century
• Technology connects us to the global community, and offers students the opportunity to obtain knowledge and insight into the perspectives of others.
• Technology has given the world the opportunity to understand ourselves and connects the people of the world who were once separated. In today’s world science and technology has intensified our sensitivities to humanity, more than it has ever done before.
• Today’s technology, by means of the internet, brings in up-to-date comparisons of cultural values into the classroom and helps the youth view, understand, interact, and become more tolerant and accommodating of other cultures. Unlike in the past, when every thing had to be learnt from textbooks that were outdated.
• Technology in teaching and learning is less expensive than books; it is more interactive and more interesting.
• Researching all cultures is now faster, more efficient, and it enables teachers to teach more content effectively.
• Technology provides access to teachers’ sites to help with lesson planning and classroom skills.

Examples of interactive teacher/student websites are edmodo.com, dreambox.com, and xtramath.com. They are very effective websites for teaching social studies in elementary schoolgrades.

Tips for Effective Teaching and Learning Social Studies in a Culturally Diverse Classroom
Science and technology, as well as cultural immersion experiences in a well planned curriculum are essencial for teaching and equipping the youth with positive values for social justice, and accommodation for the 21st century. The following general principles are crucial in developing a good interdisciplinary unit and lesson plans for meeting social studies goals:
• Learners should be informed of the goals and objectives for the lesson.
• Preparing outlines for lesson plans, should be age-appropriate, challenging, fun, hands and minds-on.
• Lessons must be interwoven to related experiences in other subject areas.
• Teacher must present effective stimuli.
• Teacher must relate the unit and the lessons to the background knowledge and cultural values of the children in each class.
• Capturing and keeping learners’ attention during lessons is crucial.
• Teacher must provide ideal environmental conditions to help increase interest and performance.
• Provide individual assistance when needed.
• National and state standards must be adhered.
Well designed assessment tools that will accommodate individual differences are crucial.

Teacher must be a reflective practitioner who will continuously reflect on her teaching and learners progress.

21st Century Learning in social studies should be interactive and fun through creating semantic webs that can integrate social sciences, cultural heritage and humanities into an integrated plan for a particular grade level. Below are examples of concept webs on different social studies unit plans using interdisciplinary concepts created by students.

**Concept Web**
Map Skills Unit Web for third grade.

Concept Web on Inventions and Inventors for third grade class.
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Women Living with HIV/AIDS in an Urban Slum: Confronting the Crisis through Counseling

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Abstract
Study on 150 women living with HIV/AIDS in an urban slum randomly selected revealed the psycho-social impact and the implications for Psychological Counseling.

Introduction
Persons living with HIV/AIDS must adapt to a disease that promises multiple changes in every aspect of their lives. HIV/AIDS not only brings health complications and inevitable death, it also brings enormous psychosocial stress and stigma that can shatter one’s life. From the start of the HIV epidemic, the psycho-social aspects of the AIDS infection have been recognized. What could have been regarded simply as an infectious disease was soon acknowledged as a global problem that raised important issues about its transmission and prevention; economic, ethical and legal questions regarding the mental health consequences and the need for access to medical and social care. Several studies have identified that the women infected with HIV/AIDS appeared to have high levels of depression and worry. The women’s greatest worries are about their children’s health and the family’s future. Within 2 years after childbirth, substantial changes within the families of HIV-infected women are evident. These are manifested by partner illness or death, family separation, reduced family income, shifting responsibilities for child care, and signs of depression and isolation. Providing counselling service to women infected with HIV/AIDS is essential to meet this major challenge. This piece of research work highlights some of the main areas of psycho-social impact of HIV and AIDS on 150 women living with HIV/AIDS in an urban slum of Vijayawada, Krishna district, Andhra Pradesh, India, and implications for psychological counseling so as to enable them to confront the crisis.

How Does HIV / AIDS Epidemic Affect Women?
Responsibility of Care
In areas with few palliative care facilities, when a person becomes ill from AIDS the care is usually a woman’s responsibility. Several studies have revealed that two thirds of all caregivers for persons living with HIV and AIDS are women. This care giving is usually in addition to many other tasks that women perform within the household, such as cooking, cleaning, and caring for the children and the elderly. Caring for ill parents, children or husbands is unpaid and can increase a person’s workload by up to a third. Women often struggle to bring in an income whilst providing care and therefore many families affected by AIDS suffer from increasing poverty. In some areas where a family’s livelihood relies on growing and maintaining crops, the death of farmers can lead to famine. The AIDS epidemic also affects young girls and elderly women. Often in households where both parents are ill from AIDS, the responsibility of main care giving is taken on by a daughter, even if it means that she has to miss school. If both parents die then it tends to be the grandmothers, aunts or cousins who then look after the orphans.

Women and Children
Mother-to-child transmission (MTCT) is an issue that directly affects women and at the same time increases the spread of HIV. MTCT occurs when an HIV positive woman passes the virus to her baby during pregnancy, labour and delivery, or breastfeeding. UNAIDS say that at the end of 2011 there were an estimated 3.3 million children (under
15 years) living with HIV, most of whom were infected by their mothers. Without treatment, a large number of these children will not live to adulthood. Although there are drugs that can reduce the chances of a child acquiring HIV from its mother from about 40 percent to less than 2 percent, many women and children still cannot access them. In recent years drugs companies have significantly reduced the price of drugs such as nevirapine and AZT, which help in preventing mother to child transmission of HIV in developing countries. However, many women are still not receiving these drugs, because of limited human resources and poor infrastructures.

**Issues Faced by Women Living with HIV/AIDS**

**Relationship Disruption**

Women who share their HIV or AIDS diagnosis with family or friends risk stigmatization (including reactions of fear, shock, and blame), isolation (as a result of others' fears of casual transmission and the possibility of desertion), and potential loss of self-esteem (lack of confidence and self-blame). Keeping the diagnosis of HIV a secret may hinder a woman's ability to develop effective coping strategies and leave her vulnerable to fear, anger, and depression. These problems may worsen as the progression of HIV disease creates significant changes in behavior, attitudes, and physical appearance. Shalini Bharat (2001) observed that women with HIV are subjected to various forms of violence and discrimination based on gender. They could be refused shelter, denied a share of household property, refused access to treatment and care, or blamed for a husband's HIV diagnosis. This can have a direct bearing on strained relationship in the family. Two studies found stigma and shame to be prominent themes in determining women's HIV disclosure to medical professionals, family, and friends (Chung & Magraw, 1992; Florence, Lutzen, & Alexius, 1994). Women in these studies frequently reported health care professionals to be hostile, fearful, and lacking in knowledge; HIV-related gynecological complications often had to be explained by the patient to the physician. The women reported that in spite of their HIV infection, family members expected them to remain in the role of primary child and family caregiver. In addition, the women often feared a more rapid disease progression, no longer viewed themselves as attractive or desirable, felt that their reproductive rights were socially disapproved, and feared they could lose custody of their children if others became aware of their HIV status. The need for better understanding of the psychosocial needs of women with HIV infection is widely recognized. Women living with HIV often report a desire for support groups or individual therapy to deal with the depression, hopelessness, and anxiety surrounding the unpredictability of disease progression. Development of effective support services is particularly challenging with impoverished women, for whom HIV infection is but one of many life stressors.

**Psychological Impact of HIV/AIDS**

Getting diagnosed with HIV can be scary and elicit different emotions and psychological effects. One needs to take advantage of the support systems she has in her place, and understand the community resources available.
**Depression**

Depression is characterized by feelings of guilt, insomnia, feelings of hopelessness and helplessness. Some people have a preoccupation with death or thoughts of suicide. Having HIV or AIDS can lead to depression in some people. If a person experiences depression related to HIV or AIDS, she needs to seek counseling to discuss her feelings. In some cases, therapy and medication are required.

**Anxiety**

Anxiety is characterized by excessive fear and apprehension or panic. This can be accompanied by physical complaints such as chest pain, shortness of breath, headaches or other problems. People with HIV or AIDS who experience anxiety symptoms may benefit from learning relaxation exercises such as progressive relaxation, meditation or yoga. In some cases, they may need therapy or medication.

**Cognitive Problems**

People with HIV sometimes experience cognitive problems related to the disease. Those with HIV or AIDS may experience dementia complex, delirium and psychosis. This can manifest in symptoms such as forgetfulness, inability to make decisions, attention problems, speech difficulties, confusion or other problems. If one has HIV or AIDS and experiences a change in cognition, there is a need to see a physician.

**Other Emotions**

One might experience guilt, fear, sadness, embarrassment or confusion. There is a need to get support from loved ones or community resources. Physicians and case managers are available to provide support such as support groups, medical providers, counselors, psychologists and psychiatrists. One needs to become educated about the disease and treatments available to empower her so as to lead a healthier life, physically and emotionally.

**Social Impact of HIV/AIDS**

Although HIV/AIDS is a medical problem people living with HIV/AIDS suffer from Stigma and Discrimination. Over the past two decades, HIV has emerged from an unknown virus, to a pandemic of astronomical proportions. Millions of people worldwide have already succumbed to this virus and millions more lives have been disrupted because of the pain and suffering of loved ones. Today there are approximately 40.3 million people living with HIV/AIDS and the number looks set to only rise. Entire societies will be feeling the effects of the pandemic for decades to come, most notably in Sub-Saharan Africa where the epidemic is most advanced. The virus itself is relatively difficult to contract when compared to others such as Influenza, but a myriad mix of social issues has allowed the virus to gain a major foothold in every nation around the world. The immense nature of this epidemic has led to mass fear and hysteria and many misconceptions of the virus. This has led to stigma and discrimination of those infected around the world as people seek to explain what they do not understand. Unfortunately, this only hinders the fight against the global pandemic and actually makes populations more vulnerable to infection. In order to effectively combat HIV/AIDS around the world, stigma and discrimination must be adequately addressed. It is important to note that HIV-related social stigmas have never disappeared (Nilsson Schonnesson L.2002). Social stigma can be a form of chronic stress for HIV/AIDS patients. In addition, fear of
stigmatization and discrimination would stop people from disclosing their diagnosis to friends and family members, while the burden and stressors of HIV are all kept to the infected individuals. Some people develop internal stigmas. They believe that their disease is a form of punishment and the disease constrains every aspect of their lives. Some patients may avoid social contacts and do not seek their much needed social support since they believe that they are not worth of respect and care from anyone. As a result, people living with HIV/AIDS may live in despair and a constant fear of rejection, and yet lack social support that they need.

Implications for Counseling for Women Living with HIV/AIDS
Women are facing devastating impact of HIV/AIDS in world over. HIV/AIDS-infected women not only bore the effects of the disease itself but also lived with stigma. They were deemed socially unacceptable, and like their gay male counterparts, they were told that they brought the disease upon themselves. In India women are already economically, culturally and socially disadvantaged lacking access to treatment, financial support and education. They are outside the structures of power and decision-making. They lack the opportunity of participating equally within the community and are subjected to punitive laws, norms and practices exercising control over their bodies and sexual relations. They are perceived as the main transmitters of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) referred generally as women diseases. The traditional beliefs about sex, blood and other type of disease transmission, these perceptions have become fertile ground for the stigmatization of women within the context of HIV/AIDS. In other words women living with HIV/AIDS including older women faced multiple discrimination on the basis of their sex, age, HIV status and economic position. Yet another issue is inheritance of land and property where they faced significant discrimination and abuse of their rights. This issue also needs to be addressed. Therefore it is needless to say that providing counseling services to the women infected with HIV/AIDS is the need of the hour so as to enable those cope up with the various challenges posed by the illness.

Need for the Study
Most patients with serious, progressive illness confront a range of psycho-social challenges, including the prospect of real and anticipated losses, worsening quality of life, the fear of physical decline and death, coping with uncertainty, stigma, discrimination and relationship disruption. HIV infection and / or AIDS bring additional challenges due to the rapidly changing treatment developments and outlook. In addition, this disease is unusual in the extent of stigma associated with it and the fact that HIV is both infectious and potentially fatal. Because of the risk of transmission, major and permanent changes are called for in sexual behavior and / or management of substance use, neither of which may be easily modifiable. HIV/AIDS affect all individuals and women are further marginalized due to their gender. The psycho-social impact of women living with HIV/AIDS need to be addressed so as to enable them to cope up with the challenges of living with HIV infection and counseling can help in dealing with the crisis.
**Research Methodology**

**Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study are:

- To understand the psycho-social impact of HIV/AIDS infected women living in an urban slum.
- To understand the implications for Psychological Counseling to confront the crisis.

**Definition of Key Concepts**

**Women:** Refers to women living with HIV/AIDS in an urban slum of Vijayawada, Krishna district, Andhra Pradesh, India.

**HIV:** Stands for Human Immunodeficiency Virus.

**AIDS:** Stands for Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome.

**Urban Slum:** Refers to Vombay colony a slum in Vijayawada, Krishna district, Andhra Pradesh, India.

**Psycho:** Refers to the mind or mental processes of a person (unique feelings, emotions, thoughts, understanding, attitudes, and beliefs) an individual has.

**Social:** Refers to human beings living together as a group in a situation in which their dealings with one another affects their common welfare. In other words also means interpersonal relationships and what goes on in the natural environment.

**Psycho-social:** Means the dynamic relationship between social and psychological experiences where the effects of one continually influence the other. The interconnection is that social experiences may lead to psychological consequences. Some individuals with psychological problems will experience social consequences. In HIV/AIDS, psychosocial issues pertain to how HIV infection and disease affects the relationship between them and the social environment in which they live.

**Counseling:** A helping relationship to help a person help himself deal with an aspect of his life that causes discomfort (problem/concern). The process of helping a person to deal more effectively with “self”. It means a move towards helping a person to change improvement, growth and better quality of his /her life or eliminating troublesome symptoms and substituting them with more suitable behavior.

**Research Design**

This study describes the demographic variables and other variables such as psychological and social problems of HIV/AIDS on women. Since it is a fact-finding study, it focuses on different dimensions of the problems faced by women living with HIV/AIDS. The information gathered by this study will be more useful in formulating further research problems in different aspects. Keeping this in view, descriptive research design is adopted for this study.

**Area of the Study**

The research has conducted the study in an urban slum namely Vombay colony in Vijayawada, Krishna district, Andhra Pradesh, India.

**Sampling**

Systematic random sampling method was adopted by the researcher and 150 respondents were selected for the study where every second women living with HIV/AIDS was drawn from the list of these women from the urban slum namely Vombay colony. The sample size is restricted to 150 since this study adopted quantitative and qualitative approaches. A sample of 100 respondents was drawn for quantitative
analysis and 50 respondents were drawn for qualitative analysis. Case studies depicting wide range of psycho – social problems pertaining to HIV/AIDS are supplemented. In this paper besides tabular presentation four case studies are presented.

**Pilot Study**

The researcher has visited Vasavaya Mahila Mandali a non-governmental organization at Vijayawada which is working with People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLHAs) in the study area and collected the background information about women living with HIV/AIDS in Vombay colony, Vijayawada. Through the pilot study the researcher became acquainted with the problem and was able to prepare an interview schedule.

**Methods of Data Collection**

Data collection is one of the most important aspects while conducting a research study. In this study both primary data and secondary data were collected from various sources.

**Primary Data**

Primary data was collected using a self constructed structured interview schedule. Personal discussions and observations were also used to collect data from women living with HIV/AIDS.

**Secondary Data**

The secondary data and information pertaining to the study were collected from the books, journals, magazines newspapers, research studies, published reports from various organizations, seminar papers, training modules, government records, community – based organizations, websites, and e-resources etc.

**Tools for the Study**

The self constructed interview schedule consisting of 54 questions and non-participant observation were the main tools of data collection. Case study method was also adopted to depict the wide range of psychological and social problems and how these women are facing these problems. Psychological Counseling was given to all the women so as to help them confront the crisis.

**Pre-Test**

Pre test is to be conducted by the researcher so as to check the efficacy of the tool. The researcher had conducted a pretest with ten respondents who are women living with HIV/AIDS before collecting the data. This is to know whether the tool is sufficient or not. The researcher had discussions with academicians and field practitioners to make necessary modification in the tool. After various clarifications and justifications the tool got confirmed.

**Procedure of Data Collection**

The interview schedule was prepared in the vernacular language (Telugu). Since the respondents were engaged in various occupations the researcher gathered information early in the morning or in the evenings. The time taken to elicit information from each respondent was half an hour. A maximum of four respondents were interviewed per day since Psychological Counseling was also given to the respondents. The total number of respondents under study was 150. Psychological Counseling as a tool was used so as to enable them to confront the crisis of HIV/AIDS.
Findings of the Study

The findings of the study based on the quantitative survey are presented in this section. 

*(See Table 1)*

It shows that a vast majority (95.1%) of the respondents between 18-27 years, 88.9% between 38-47 years and 82.9% between 28-37 years said that their illness had an impact on their social life, while 17.1% in the age group of 28-37, 11.1% in the age group of 38-47 and 4.9% under the age group of 18-27 said no. Majority (83.3%) of the respondents between 38-47 years, 73.3% between 28-37 years and 65.9% between 18-27 years experienced stigma. 12.2% between the age group of 18-27 years, 7.3% in the age group of 28-37 and 5.6% in the age group of 38-47 opined that the general reaction due to illness experienced by the respondents were discrimination. 7.3%in the age group of 18-27 experienced neglect while 9.8% in the age group of 18-27 and 2.4% in the age group of 28-37 said that there was acceptance. Further 17.1% in the age group of 28-37, 11.1% in the age group of 38-47 and 4.9% said that it was not applicable in their case. When the respondents were asked if they had experienced increase in the number of people living with HIV, Cent percent of them in the age group of 38-47 and an equal number (97.6%) in the age group of 18-27 years and 28-37 years said that they observed such increase, while an equal number who form a negligible proportion (2.4%) in the age group of 18-27 and 28-37 refused such increase. When asked about the deaths due to AIDS and widowhood due to HIV increasing in the past two years, cent percent in the age group of 38-47 and an equal number (97.6%) in the age group of 18-27 years and 28-37 years said that observed such increase while an equal proportion of 2.4% in the age group of 18-27 and 28-37 differed. 

*(See Table 2)*

There are a few main issues that women face being HIV positive. This table shows that 53.7% between the age group of 28-37, 46.3% in the age group of 18-27 and 44.4% in the age group of 38-47 said that less income causes, insecurity about food. 7.3% in the age group of 18-27 years, 5.6% in the age group of 38-47 years and 2.4% in the age group of 28-37 years said that they faced a lot of harassment from their in-laws and husband too. Negligible proportion (4.9%) in the age group of 18-27 had to forego their property rights. 7.3% were separated from their spouse. 14.6% between 28-37 years, 11.1% between 38-47 years and 9.8% between 18-27 years depend on their aged parents for living. 38.9% between 38-47 years, 29.3% between 28-37 years and 24.4% between 18-27 years faced stigma and discrimination. Majority (66.7%) between the age group of 38-47 years 51.2% between the age group of 28-37 years and 39% between 18-27 years opined that financial support is a main concern for many women affected by HIV/AIDS. 7.3% of the respondents in the age group of 18-27 opined that life skill training is important for them. 43.9% between 18-27 years, 34.1% between 28-37 years and 33.3% between 38-47 years opined that medical support becomes a concern, while 14.6% between the age group 28-37 years and 9.8% between 18-27 years opined that socio-emotional support as a major concern. 27.8%, 22% and 12.2% between the age group of 38-47, 18-27 and 28-37 and respectively, opined that their problem was getting worse day by day which is a main problem for them from the community and 2.4% in the age group of 28-37 years said that not enough is being done. 9.8% between 18-27 years said that people are too afraid of HIV. 12.2% between 18-27 years, 7.3% between 28-37 years and 5.6% between 38-47 years said that there was lots of
discrimination, while 9.8% between 18-27 years, 5.6% between 38-47 years and 2.4% between 28-37 years said that the main problem was that there was not much information about HIV discussed among them. 75.6% between 28-37 years, 61.1% between 38-47 years and 46.3% between 18-27 years, said that there was no discrimination.

(See Table 3)

An equal number (36.6%) of the respondents between the age group of 18-27 and 28-37 years and 33.3% between 38-47 years felt comfortable talking to husband when they were in a problem or were worrying. Another half of the respondents (50%) between 38-47 years, 46.3% between 18-27 and 43.9% felt comfortable talking to parents. 16.7% between 38-47 years, 4.9% between 18-27 years and 2.4% between 28-37 felt comfortable talking to their children. An equal proportion (7.3%) between 18-27 and 28-37 years said that they were not comfortable talking to others while an equal proportion of 2.4% between 18-37 years and 28-37 years were comfortable talking to sibling. Further 7.3% in the age group of 28-37 and 2.4% in the age group of 18-27 years felt comfortable talking to a friend. An equal proportion (41.5%) between the age group of 18-27 and 28-37 years and 27.8% were consoled by their husband when they were sad. 11.1% between 38-47 years and 4.9% between 18-27 years were consoled by their in-laws. Sizeable proportion (43.9%) of them between 18-27, (29.3%) between 28-37 and (22.2%) between 38-47 years were consoled by their parents respectively. An equal proportion (7.3%) between 18-27 and 28-37 years said that they were consoled by their friends. 38.9% between 38-47 years, 22% between 28-37 and 2.4% between 18-27 were consoled by their children. A vast majority (94.4%) between 38-47 years, 87.8% between 28-37 years and 70.7% between 18-27 years, said that sometimes they were feeling happy, 19.5%, 9.8% and 5.6% between 18-27 years, 28-37 years and 38-47 years said that they were feeling happy often, while a negligible proportion 9.8% between 18-27 years and 2.4% between 28-37 years said that they never felt happy. 95.1%, 94.4% and 82.9% between 28-37 years, 38-47 years and 18-27 years sometimes preferred to be alone, 9.8% and 4.9% between 18-27 and 28-37 years often preferred to be alone while 7.3% between 18-27 and 5.6% between 38-47 years did not respond.

Case Study Depicting Social Issues

Content analysis based on the qualitative method is presented with the help of case studies in this section.

1. Kanthimathi’s husband married twice. His first wife died of HIV. She left behind two children. The girl child is HIV positive. She does not go to school but helps in the household chores. The son is not infected, because the mother took medicines when she was pregnant. After the death of his first wife, he married Kanthimathi. She has two children of her own but they do not stay with her. Her son’s expenses are borne by an NGO and he stays in their hostel. The daughter stays with her maternal grandparents. She philosophically says that the children do not miss her or the family, because either way, after sometime, (after her death) they will have to learn to live alone.

2. Suma, aged 42 years, is an abandoned woman, who earns her livelihood by washing utensils in the neighbourhood. She does not have anyone to call as her own in this huge, wide world, after the husband deserted her on coming to know that she is HIV positive. She reveals that he was the reason she got infected. She is a chaste woman
who did not step outside the bonds of marriage. Though her husband is dead family members still hold her responsible for his death which is a typical scenario in India. Hence she got separated and lives alone.

**Case Studies Depicting Psychological Issues**

1. S.Saritha aged 20 years is suffering from HIV. She got married at the young age of 14 immediately after reaching puberty. Her husband had extra marital relations. A few years after their marriage he became sick. She observed that and took him to hospital where he was found to be HIV positive. Saritha was tested and found to be negative. However her husband would often force her to have unprotected sex, though she protested. She has one daughter. Saritha works in a sweet shop. She earns Rs.3, 000/- per month. She noticed that she was not feeling well and was advised by a Doctor for a blood test. She was found HIV positive and was psychologically disturbed about her health. She is worried about her family and wonders how she will cope in future when both her husband’s and her health deteriorate further.

2. R.Vimala, a fisherwoman is 35 years old and lives with her daughter aged 17. She is illiterate. She got married at an early age of 16. Soon after her marriage her husband died due to complications of HIV. Her husband had pre-marital relations. They had a son of 5 years who died with HIV. She went to a doctor when she fell ill and she was diagnosed as suffering from Pneumonia. The doctor after getting necessary tests informed her that she was virus positive. Now she is totally distraught about the manner in which she has to face challenges in her life over which she has no control. She wants to get her daughter married, but she is worried whether he too would turn out like her husband who had premarital relations without protection.

**Counseling Women Living with HIV/AIDS**

Counseling in HIV/AIDS has become a core element in a holistic model of health care, in which psychological issues are recognized as integral to patient management. This has been reiterated by number of investigations where the counselor was one of the important members of the health care professionals. An assessment conducted in April 2000 on an NGO by name YRG Centre for AIDS Research and Education (YRG CARE) revealed that top marks was given to staff at YRG CARE for being nonstigmatizing and respectful, and nearly all 300 respondents said they considered the counseling services as important as medical care. Further the study by Simoni JM, Martone MG, Kerwin JF (2002) has stressed the significance of HIV Counseling which is mainly applicable as a psychosocial adaptation technique. In this study along with the interview with women living with HIV/AIDS the researcher played the role of a Counselor and rendered psychological counseling so as to enable them to confront the crisis as HIV/AIDS calls for psycho-social adaptation. Psychological counseling was given to help these women alleviate their stress and sufferings. The counseling focused on physical, psychological and social aspects of the respondents. It involved the discussion of disease progression, discrimination and stigma related to HIV/AIDS, death and bereavement issues, life style, safer sexual practices and living positively with HIV/AIDS. Through counseling, they were helped to identify concerns like disclosure of HIV-positive status, identify risk behavior, practice safer sex and avoid substance abuse. This enabled them to identify and express their feelings and to develop coping strategies to adjust with the current situation and also in preparing towards a better future.
Conclusion
AIDS has challenged several aspects of contemporary social life and conventional approaches to health care. The medical responses to diseases have probably not been challenged so intensely for a long time. One social response to HIV/AIDS that has received much attention is the counseling of people affected by the disease. HIV/AIDS has an impact on all individuals and women fare worse due to gender marginalization. Women living with HIV/AIDS have to deal with many challenges posed by the disease. They may face stigma from other people, a lack of support, unemployment, low income, low self-esteem, sexual assault, and depression. Ironically, AIDS is a kind of chronic illness that not only ends with the complications of the disease but also has a long term impact on the day to day living of the patient and their family and can make them physically, psychologically and socially disabled. The findings of the study revealed that women living with HIV/AIDS are often traumatized and suffer a variety of psychological reactions to their own illness and death besides illness and death of their children and spouse. In addition they endure exhaustion and stress from work and worry, as well as insecurity and stigmatization as they are infected with HIV. It was further observed that increased workload due to separation or widowhood and social isolation may negatively impact on the mental health of these women. The outcome of the study reiterated the role of Counseling in helping them confront the crisis. Counseling has proven to be a tool in addressing the psychosocial influences such as stress, depression and trauma experienced by the women living with HIV/AIDS.

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Bridging the Divide: The “We” Factor

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Introduction

“You know we all want to have a good life. We all want to be able to take care of our families. Most people in Colorado like the view of the mountain that is there. In sustainability when we’re strategizing we start thinking of what people might all agree on but when it starts getting into the process everyone starts disagreeing” (Leah).

As Leah, one of the respondents in our ethnographic study suggests, in discussing natural resources and sustainability, when trying to come to a consensus on beneficial change, a divide in perspectives emerges based upon schismatic factors. Our data reveal that beyond these opposing perspectives about issues such as the cost and usage of natural resources, commonalities emerged when people discussed what the problem is according to what we call “bridge factor.” The bridge factor is this: when our innate need to survive is threatened by urgent environmental factors such as natural disasters, pollution, and damage to the environment we are brought into a discourse framed around what the problem is and a need to solve it. Our data reveal that protecting the environment--especially in relation to urgency--is a bridging value that contributes to common ground. Thus, this paper will present our findings about the bridge factors, including the need to survive, the feeling of urgency, the value of protecting the environment, and discourse about problems and solutions.

Survival

“We can agree we need natural resources to survive, and we might be able to agree that we want human civilization to survive as long as possible” (Austin).

This quote taken from one of our respondents illustrates that a huge bridging need for people is deeply seated in their common concern for the survival of life. We discovered that many of the interviews brought up implicit concerns and explicit perspectives that were founded in humans' intrinsic need to continue our existence. Natural resources and sustainability fall under this category of concern, for many people in our study were cognizant of the fact that our reliance upon natural resources is powerfully important to aid in our basic survival. Although ideas of what our quality of life may need to look like differ in scope and sphere, we found that--apart from a minority of respondents who do not see natural resources as finite--a collective voice emerged stating that the way we live our lives is threatening the environment, other species, and subsequently, humans' ability to survive. When it comes to survival, bridging factors include: concern over the damage and potential impact upon “us”, other species, and the environment; as well as statements that “we need” natural resources to perpetuate our survival. These bridging factors unite our respondents’ opinions according to one underlying concern, “Can the world survive despite our need for resources?”

We Need Natural Resources

Whether respondents polarize towards the perspective that we should be using alternative resources primarily such as wind and solar or the perspective that we should be further developing our usage of fossil fuels, we have found that a bridging perspective is that we need natural resources to survive and to maintain our current quality of life. Although divides are created when discussing which resources we should use in relation to what a good quality of life means or how we are to maintain that, we
have found a common belief to be that without natural resources humans will not survive. The resources that are most often brought up as integral to human survival are water, oil, gas, solar, and wind.

In using of the word “need”, many of our respondents connect this verb to the noun, “water”. Whether it be that “we need” water to fight wildfires, to survive, or to be conserved, the discussion of the importance of water is a large bridging factor especially under urgent conditions, as exemplified by Jonathan in his discussion that the drought will cause us to not “have water supply for survival...”

In relation to other natural resources, Austin suggests that these are a “common denominator” for people. For example, Henry says of oil: “Our country in particular has a great need for oil and we [have] become very dependent on it. Our country cannot run without oil. Our country would basically shut down.” Other opinions that may differ with respect to which resources we should use but unite around our need for natural resources in order to survive are framed around shifting from a reliance on oil, coal, and natural gas to alternative energies such as solar and wind. Some common perspectives that favor the usage of alternative energy often used the words “we need”, which suggests that not only do respondents feel our survival is hinged on alternative resources, but also there is a need for change. These respondents used phrases such as, “We need to look into alternative energy” (Abigail), “I particularly like the idea of using wind and solar” (Allison), “We don’t put a lot of resources into finding alternate energy sources and we need to” (Apple), and “We need to get off of coal; there has got to be a better way to do it” (DJ).

Thus, in maintaining our quality of life and continuing our existence on this planet, natural resources are a common need that we rely on to survive, yet, as exhibited in our colleagues’ paper on the “Divide”, we need to arrive at a greater consensus as to which sorts of resources or levels of usage will facilitate our survival.

Human Survival and Future Generations

Many of our respondents were concerned with the future of humankind including generations to come. Expressions of this concern include opinions that humans are cratering towards our demise. These perspectives use phrases such as, “We’re in a downward spiral...” (Banana), “…we’re on a crash-course to failure” (Ape), “Well, we’re doomed” (Cobra), “The consequences will become dire” (Joseph), “The definition of crazy, they say, someone who keeps trying the same thing expecting different results. We’re on that crazy spiral and we know we’re going to crash--so who’s going to grab the wheel” (Moksha), and “…pretty soon we are just going to be screwed” (Levi). These statements were in response to another uniting opinion that humans are mostly at fault. So it appears as though many believe we, as a collective species, are the cause of environmental repercussions that are pushing us toward the brink of extinction.

Future generations of humans are also on the forefront of many minds. Austin made a statement capitalizing the concern over maintaining our quality of life and how our availability of resources may be affected by our current actions:

“...It is a really good common denominator to say, “Well, don’t you want those resources to live? Don’t you want those resources for your kids,” because everyone wants their kids to have a good life.”
Later in Austin’s interview, he suggests that most of us can agree that we want our “children to survive” and that this uniting value is “the key to the future.” Another interviewee, Fox, says that the fact that he has two daughters motivates him to make changes.

Some people suggest that future humans’ quality of life is going to be adversely affected. Eli discussed his “love” for camping and that we need to be able to pass on our ability to enjoy this outdoor excursion to our kids. Jonathan says that if species die out, “then grandchildren and future generations won’t be able to see them.” Some are concerned with the idea that our pollution and damage to the environment is creating a situation where, “we’re just passing that cost onto future generations to go clean up” (Joseph). Given these opinions, we suggest that our data reveal the viewpoint that our quality of life may not be perpetuated into the next generation because of our usage manner and reliance on certain types of natural resources.

Many are concerned that finite resources will be used up by the time our future generations need them. A large incentive to push toward sustainable and alternative resources rides on this concern. From responses to our question 121, “Resources and Sustainability Global Future”, which was one of the key issues we provided for respondents to discuss, we find that many feel that our usage is not reserving enough for humankind’s future. Joseph suggests that there will be war in the future over water while Austin analogizes that our usage is like a “binge” that will eventually lead us to “another level of enlightenment when we figure out this party is over.”

Survival of Other Species
Survival of other species was a common concern and most people were conscious of the need to protect other species. “I don’t think enough is being done. We are definitely trying and saying they are endangered but poaching is still a huge issue, and yes the justice system is hard on them but we do not do enough…” (Apple). It appears to us that the prevalence of opinions about human error in the endangerment of species as well as the concern over how the death of particular species will affect our entire ecosystem reveals a very common perspective among our respondents.

It is very interesting the emotions to observe the emotions that are brought about when people discuss endangered animal species. Allison says she becomes angry when she hears of how humans have inhabited various areas and then caused a particular species’ survival to be threatened. Levi says, “It just breaks my heart...” in reference to chimpanzees being affected by palm oil production and Henry says that because he is an animal lover, he is sad to see many die “because of humans destroying their habitat...” Thus, it appears that the endangerment of animal species causes feelings of anger and sadness.

As these quotes suggest, those who discuss animal endangerment source their demise from human expansion, carelessness, paradigms that place humans in a hierarchy, and a lack of regulations. As will be discussed next, when humans become aware of threats of extinction, feelings of urgency arise.

What is Urgent?
“Water supply is the main one for me, well it is two in the same with water supply because if the drought keeps happening we won’t have water supply for survival
and there are water restrictions so the water resources are not there for us... it is a limited resource and including rain [and] the drought we could run out” (Johnathan).

“My hometown was evacuated from wildfires and we are still affected by the burn scar. Well the life burnt off of it, so when it rains, Manitou floods. It is really scary” (Hunter).

When we see immediate consequences to our actions concerning how we interact with our environment we find that certain factors manifest greater urgency to protect our environment. It is interesting to note the discourse around environmental impacts, the fear that surrounds these feelings of urgency, and how this contributes to a greater demand for a solution. In reference to what our respondents find urgent, we will discuss how tangible effects such as natural disasters and threats to water supply incite a greater demand to act.

**Tangible Effects**

Synonymous with consequences, tangible effects can bring about a sense of urgency. In light of our population study, which was mainly people from the Colorado Springs and surrounding areas in Colorado, and the time period in which we worked, we saw a great number of people concerned about recent devastating wildfires, water supply shortages, a long-term drought, and one hundred year floods. When the Waldo Canyon and Black Forest wildfires raged across the landscape, Colorado Springs received national attention. The smoke that clogged the sky as well as the evacuations that took place in the summers of 2012 and 2013 caused a deathly scare for many of the Springs’ local inhabitants.

In response to the interviewer asking if he would have circled the key issue, “wildfires”, if there had been none in Colorado Springs in 2013, Jonathan said, “Probably not, because I wouldn’t know that much about them if we hadn’t had them.” This illustrates that without the impact from the wildfire, Jonathan may not have cared about wildfires so much. Other topics in our interview did not receive as much attention and we believe this is due to the fact that this environmental scare produced tangible effects on the people, the habitat, and the air. The force of this natural disaster led to a collective consciousness which was revealed in our interviews; for example, Allison states “People that I know have been directly affected; maybe a house burning down, listening to the news, talking to people in the neighborhood, or talking to people about how they feel about it. So the community that is affected seems to get bigger because you know people who know people” (Allison).

Many of our interviews discussed the effects of the wildfires in relation to the drought that this part of Colorado was experiencing simultaneously. In tangent with these wildfires were several floods, including a major, 100-year-flood near Boulder, Colorado and another in Manitou Springs that washed away homes and businesses. Aristotle says that wildfires put our place within the natural cycle into perspective “We often would be [living our normal lives] today without being affected by nature but in this respect we really see our lives in perspective with the natural cycle.”
Water supply

A common thread emerged when we analyzed the discussion of water supply and drought. There was a greater unity among the opinions of our respondents regarding their concern for the dwindling water supply, whether on a local, national, or global level. There was a general consciousness that fresh water is a finite resource and that overuse of freshwater will cause it to run out one day. Allison effectively summarized the thoughts of most of our respondents: “I am sensitive to the fact that we are very wasteful and that we could run out of drinking water if we don’t make some changes.” Austin compared our current water usage to “pulling the principal out of your savings account” and found audacity in the fact that we think that “we can keep drawing out of our savings account and it won’t ever hit zero.”

Respondents appeared to be very conscious of the threat of a diminishing water supply. Joseph’s response was simple: “the water table’s disappearing;” as was Luke’s when he said “we’re running short on water supply.” Levi’s comment, “we only have a limited amount of fresh water and once it is gone, it is gone,” repeats a similar pattern we have seen with respondents where they are concerned over a ‘dire end’ if changes are not made. Owen expressed knowledge of Colorado’s water supply issues, stating: “I know, for instance, the reservoir in Western Kansas and Eastern Colorado is dropping.” Liam tied the concern for water back to our need for survival and a good quality of life: “you have quality of life demands, and that’s going to affect the demand for fresh water which is limited.” Liam’s words reflect our bridging perspective: our need for survival and good quality of life has been threatened by a diminishing water supply, causing the discussion on what has perpetuated the problem and how it can be repaired. Opinions varied over whether limited water supply was only a regional issue or a global one; however, there was a general unity of opinion concerning the water crisis in Colorado.

The Discourse

“I do relate it to footprints, we’re all here, we all need to share. You don’t see mountain lion tearing everything up to build their dens. When they die they give back to the Earth and we’re buried in coffins; we literally don’t give anything back” (Ape, on the lack of recycling).

The discourse brought about by these urgent environmental factors cause us to look inward and as such we find that people collectively define the problem as seated in human error. Then, respondents trended towards laying the responsibility to rectify these issues upon humans as a whole, the divide being on how to fix these problems. Similar to Thøgersen and Ölander’s (2002) point of view, our respondents agreed that, “environmental and resource problems are the result of, and can only be solved by, collective action” (p. 610). An important value centered in this discourse was the value of protecting the environment, which we have found to be the highest rated value overall.

Human Error

The surveys conducted revealed a common perspective to be that humans are at error—often providing the opinion that humans have wasted resources and damaged the environment by using them frivolously. A divide does emerge here, though, as some respondents blamed environmental change solely on the environment, suggesting that
drought, for example, is cyclical in Colorado (Abigail). However, the number of subjects who attributed no blame to humans was minimal. Most who recognized that the environment, climate, and species are ever fluctuating subsequently identified that human behavior plays an important role in these changes—mostly negative in impact. Alexander said that drought was cyclical; however, he continued to say that: “probably man has bungled this up too in some way.” Thus, the divide here is small in scale and the majority of our respondents were united in their affirmation that human error is the cause for dwindling resources and environmental damage. For example, Aristotle says:

“I don’t think anybody is fully responsible for this. In fact I think humans as a whole are responsible for these things in terms of what we do to the environment in terms of trying to sustain our own lifestyles. The very fact that I haven’t researched fracking an issue to this magnitude is just as telling that I am a part of it because it was really something that was that important to me I would be doing something about it even though I am not directly affected by it.”

The general consensus on the cause of environmental change is human error. There was not much discrepancy among our respondents as to whether humans were at fault for causing negative environmental change. There is a definite recognition of the concept of an inclusive “we” that encompasses more than a single group of people and in every interview, subjects’ used the word “we” at some point or another to refer to the human community as a whole, rather than using an accusatory “they” to place blame on certain groups, such as the corporations responsible for resource extraction (i.e. fracking). Cobra, in response to the picture of the oil spill in our survey instrument said:

“I think it is all of us. We let it happen. We let ourselves build these and when they failed, when this happened, we were like, “Oh, what a surprise?” I think it is all of us. Because we can’t say it’s just the company’s fault, because we all use it. We buy it from them all the time. We all drive. We are saying “we need these utilities, these materials” and we allowed it to happen. So I think it’s all of us.”

Respondents had a unity of thought concerning blame: no single human, corporation, or group was responsible for negative environmental impact; rather, the actions of human society as a whole have contributed to the problem that respondents often suggest resides in our current paradigm of usage in relation to maintaining our quality of life. Moksha explains, “That’s the thing, the disaster has already happened. It’s happening as we sit in our vaulted ceiling, three-story, five-bedroom house watching the big screen.”

Our respondent’s opinions on water supply mirror their views on sustainability in general. Statements detailing concern over the dwindling water supply reflect the greater worry over resources. In the eyes of our respondents, water supply is a resource that is as threatened as the resources that supply energy, and our efforts to maintain our quality of life with both of these are causing negative environmental effects. Charlotte says, “We’re just wasteful with everything.” She blames society not for a lack of awareness but for an apathetic response to the issue: “We don’t care, we take 2 hours in showers and stuff and we just throw everything away.” The concept of dire consequences can be inferred here: “It’s going to change, it’s going to have to change.” The idea of waste in terms of usage practices is prevalent to our respondents. Water is wasted; food is wasted; everything is wasted. The bridging opinion is that our resources
are being wasted by human activity and that there will be dire consequences when we finally run out of them.

Responsibility

Many of our respondents determined that since human error was having such a profound effect on the environment and our ability to survive, that it was the responsibility of humans and human society to bring about effective change. In offering solutions, respondents often used the words “we need”. Although “we need” statements were not always “we” inclusive, it is a noteworthy trend of another bridge in the discourse. For example, Plato said, “…We need to work for the earth not against it.” It was here that thoughts of unity with nature emerged most notably. Butterfly states: “call me a hippie or whatever but I think we’re all connected. I think we’re put here to respect our Earth.” Fox shared the sentiment of being connected to nature and accepted responsibility for taking care of it: “Mother Earth… and now we really need to care. It’s the only one we got and we have got to take care of her.” While unity with nature was not a value that was shared across the board by all of our respondents, it definitely has a stronger presence when discussing our responsibility to our environment.

The general consensus between our respondents came at three key points: the importance of protecting the environment and humans obligation to the environment and our responsibility to effect positive change. This sentiment is reflected perfectly in Allison’s statement: “It is such a hard issue because I do value the environment and I do think we are responsible.” In relation to the illustrations of the oil spill in our interview, Angel noted that: “it can’t be good for the environment and eventually we’re going to have to deal with the problems that events such as this make.”

Many of our respondents noted the importance of being integrated with the environment and with each other. Allison reiterated: “we need to do what is good for the greater whole, not just ourselves.” When Charlotte discussed endangered animal species, she also stressed the need for the greater whole, stating: “we need to coexist with everything.” She also accepted responsibility for endangered species, saying: “we can’t destroy something completely off this planet. It’s not what we’re supposed to do.” Harper’s statement on endangered animal species reflects the value of serving the greater whole quite well: “We must recognize that every part of life on Earth has an ecological niche and a role to play in the wider web of existence.” Harper’s and Charlotte’s recognition of a need for coexistence serves to stress the importance of the value of environmental preservation. Levi’s words express the need to be more connected and integrated as a society, a value that stresses the importance of environmental impact in relation to our current divide:

“I mean I can see the good and bad parts like everybody should kind of work as one and understand each other better but we all also need to be more vocal... but then we need to understand where everybody’s coming from and work together because it is one planet... I think if people worked together more then we wouldn't have so many of the problems that we have”.

The consensus between our subjects was that humans were at fault for damaging the planet, and therefore we are responsible for helping it to recover. Many individuals found a personal connection to the environment when discussing why it needed to be protected. “Unity with Nature” was a driving factor in determining why the environment
needed to be protected and why resources needed to be better utilized. The value of “Protecting the Environment” was another important bridge factor in our study, revealing a general consensus among our respondents of the need for protecting the environment in order to ensure our own survival. However, when assessing sustainable behaviors in relation to high ratings of “Protecting the Environment”, as stated earlier we find that the behaviors do not correlate with this highly rated value as Eagle says, “People don’t want to destroy the environment but the choice is often profit or environment and people will always choose profit.”

Discussion

To further integrate our work into theoretical knowledge in Anthropology, we acknowledge Anthony Wallace (1956), an anthropologist who developed theory about revitalization movements in the mid-twentieth century and Victor Turner, who described collective rites of passage movements—what Wallace calls revitalization movements—as a result of “communitas”: the banding together of peoples experiencing social stress together to effect change that will facilitate a reordering of the structure of a society under duress. Communitas forms when persons put aside their differences in order to work together toward vital collective change. The results of this study indicate that there is a stirring among our respondents towards changing our current resource selection and manner of usage. Our small-scale study reflects that there is discordance among respondents over the use of natural resources which is indicative of a movement developing among groups and individuals throughout the United States to find alternative ways of providing energy and conserving resources. This movement to “construct a more satisfying culture” is a force that to some degree schismatically fractures our society, as exhibited in our colleagues’ “Divide” paper. Yet, as we discussed tangible environmental effects in regards to our respondents’ opinions, we find commonalities of greater self-declared awareness and urgency than when they discuss other matters such as genetically modified organisms. Thus, when the quality of life is threatened by society’s inability to “satisfy needs”—as a result of climatic “interference”—there is urgency, or in Wallace’s words, “stress”. He defines stress as “the common denominator of the panel of ‘drives’ or ‘instincts’” within a society (p. 266). The drive to ensure our future generations’ survival, and the instinct to preserve our own individual survival emerged in our respondents’ perspectives of the wildfires and floods. As individuals inspect their “mazeway”, or mindset, in relation to the various environmental stressors, a divide emerges when some choose to alter their mazeway in order to modify their behaviors in regards to the environment while others may find their stress levels to be manageable at this point. Wallace suggests that society works to preserve its “life-supporting matrix”—for our study we referred to the matrix as our quality of life—and stress arises when the matrix loses its ability to provide stress-relief (p. 265). Furthermore, his theory states that when in stress, societies will “take emergency measures to preserve the constancy of this matrix,” thereby potentially resulting in what Wallace (1956) terms a “mazeway resynthesis” on the order of what Turner would call a communitas-based revitalization movement (Wallace, p. 266).
Conclusion  
“*We’re all here for the same reason, so let’s make that oasis that we’re all wishing for. At the heart of every illusion, what defeats us is our inability to come together*” (Moksha).

In conclusion, our research method required our ethnographic team to analyze discourse in relation to demographic variables. As such, we found that some discourse maintains an inconsistency in values, beliefs, and perspectives in regard to natural resource and sustainability issues, while others exhibit a common ground as presented in this paper. In our discussion of the “We” factor, we have told you about the common ground that our respondents depolarize collectively toward in light of certain bridging perspectives. As our inhabitants of this particular geographic location of study experienced natural disasters and threats to water supply, a self-acknowledged level of awareness of humans’ precarious position in relation to these catastrophic events collectively emerged. We find that the discourse—in light of these environmental impacts—reveals the common perception among our respondents that human error contributes to issues such as climate change and over-extraction of resources as well as the “We” factor that humans need to and hold the responsibility to solve our current environmental condition.

We intend next to create a workshop for study participants in order to apply our findings and help them achieve a more common ground. We suggest that the Bridge may be a tool to enable us to move across the chasm of our current sustainability and natural resources paradigm.

References
The Range of International Opinions
vis-à-vis Pro-Environmentalism

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Abstract
This article analyzes and synthesizes the responses of 909 respondents from 20 colleges located in the following states: California, Minnesota, Nebraska (2), Ohio, Oklahoma (2), Texas (3), & Wisconsin and countries: Australia, China, England, Germany, Japan, Mexico, Nigeria, Philippines, & Turkey concerning the extent of the respondents’ pro-environmentalism opinions. The study develops a four by three research matrix to probe the set of responses. The four rows include: Anthropocentric (considering the world in terms of human values), Biocentric (considering all life as having inherent equal value), Spiritual (considering the environment as a sacred matter), and Extreme (exaggerated actions that exceed the norm). The three columns include: Traditional, Modern and Postmodern viewpoints.

Introduction
Studying people’s attitudes about the environment in the United States is not a new phenomenon. According to Opotow and Giesking (2011) the early years of the Environmental Movement began in 1936 and ended in 1959. During this time, World War II was one of the major social events, but the focus was on racial and religious life in the United States. The next era in the environmental movement is called “The Middle Years” and lasted between 1960 and 1990. The last and most recent environmental movement is called “The Recent Years” and has been in existence since 1991. Each era has focused on different topics related to the environment.

Recent studies in the popular press have attempted to describe what a typical “Pro-Environmental College Student” looks like (Markowitz et al., 2012; McDougle et al., 2011; Ratnapradipa et al., 2011; and O’Brien Mc Elwee et al., 2009). For example, Markowitz, et al., (2012) offer some social characteristics that lend themselves to being “pro-environmental.” They included traits such as being female, younger, more affluent, more educated than non-pro-environmental individuals, more likely to hold positive environmental attitudes, and demonstrate concern about the state of the natural world” (p. 83). Another significant finding of Markowitz et al., (2012) is that individuals who have a stronger connection to nature and include nature in their self-concept are more likely to be “pro-environmental.

McDougle et al., (2011) posit that this current generation of young adults from all over the world who have experienced horrific natural disasters such as Hurricane Katrina, Haitian earthquakes, and devastating tsunamis in parts of Asia will be instrumental in leading the environmental movement throughout the 21st century. She notes that enrollment in environmental-related college programs has increased over the past two decades, which has also promoted awareness of the value of “going green” through practices such as recycling, reducing waste, and using public transportation. These actions are a part of the younger generation who will one day be leading the world in sustainability.

Methodology
During the 2010/2011 time period, 909 college students in the United States, Australia, China, England, Germany, Japan, Mexico, Nigeria, Philippines, & Turkey filled out an attitudes questionnaire concerning the environment. Respondents generated 59,085 data points and the set of respondents was selected via a convenience sample.
Before administering the instrument to students, the questions were well examined. Three universities studied the questions in focus groups. The pre-testing universities included Texas A&M University-Kingsville, University of Nebraska-Kearney and Humboldt State University. The pre-testing greatly enhanced the reliability of the instrument. The convenience sample was taken from the following schools:

**United States**
- California - Humboldt State University  
- Minnesota - Gustavus Adolphus College  
- Nebraska 1 - Central Community College  
- Nebraska 2 - University of Nebraska at Kearney  
- Ohio - University of Toledo  
- Oklahoma 1 Northeastern State University  
- Oklahoma 2 - Oral Roberts University  
- Texas 1 - Midwestern State University  
- Texas 2 UTSA  
- Texas 3 Texas A&M University Kingsville  
- Wisconsin - University of Wisconsin La Crosse  

**Foreign**
- Australia - Swinburne University of Technology  
- China - Xi’an Jiaotong University  
- Germany - Universitat Postdam  
- Japan - University of Tokyo  
- Mexico - Universidad Iberoamericana  
- Nigeria – Mkar University  
- Philippines - University of the Philippines, Diliman  
- Turkey Fatih University  
- United Kingdom - University of London

The bi-dimensional *Signification Model* was then used as the foundation of the methodology (Ketcham et al., 2000, p.p. 4-7). The model navigates four “Value Clusters” by three “Existence Modes.” The value clusters represent the thought-eras suggested by Jean-François Lyotard et al., in his *The Postmodern Condition: A Report on Knowledge*.

What makes this study unique to current literature on this topic is that it develops a bi-dimensional four by three research matrix to probe the set of responses. The four environmental rows include *Anthropocentric* (considering the world in terms of human values), *Biocentric* (considering all life as having inherent equal value), *Spiritual* (considering the environment as a sacred matter), and *Extreme* (exaggerated actions that exceed the norm). The three thought-eras columns include *Traditional*, *Modern* and *Postmodern* viewpoints. These views are defined as follows:

*Traditional* thought-era attitudes are centered on the core of ancient canons, virtues and ancient principles. In the west this attitude cluster often adheres to the “classical” Greco-Roman and Judaic values. The *modern* thought-era is established from the Enlightenment. “The 18th-century philosophical movement was predicated on reason, individualism, progress and science” (Ketcham et al., 2012). Finally, the
Postmodern thought-era is formed on “incredulity towards metanarratives” (Lyotard et al., 1979). These metanarratives in this thought-era are no longer legitimate as postmodernity maintains a deep skepticism concerning knowledge. Therefore, the older grand stories (metaphysics) have lost their power to convince postmodern publics of any certainties.

This is a massive study in which the questions were designed to be in one of three categories: pro-neutral- and anti-environmental. Because of space limitations, this paper examines the pro-environmental questions only. Remaining categories will be investigated in future articles.

Review of the Literature

This section of the paper points out that not all countries in which we collected data had literature in their databases on the topic of college students’ environmental and pro-environmental attitudes. To remedy this lack of information, literature on college students’ pro-environmental attitudes from other countries has been included to reinforce the literature review. However, literature has been found regarding some of the countries that were included in the study and have been incorporated into the research. We feel the literature we have researched and provided in this paper is sufficient proof of our solid efforts. Furthermore, it is our hope that by not finding college students’ pro-environmental attitudes from some of the countries in our study, that perhaps our study will contribute to this gap in the literature on the topic of college students attitudes toward pro-environmentalism.

According to Coertjens et al., (2010), there have been numerous studies focusing on students’ pro-environmental attitudes. There are certain demographic factors that promote pro-environmentalism: women and girls tend to be more pro-environmental, high income earners tend to be more pro-environmental, and so do well educated, city dwelling people who claim to be more politically liberal (Coertjens et al., 2010). Other characteristics of college students who tend to be more pro-environmental include those who have a vast knowledge of the environment and students who claim to enjoy their science classes (Coertjens et al., 2010).

Cordano, et al., (2010) suggests that researchers around the world are sensing an increase in environmental awareness and are approaching these environmental issues in a multitude of ways. For example, in some instances a single culture where particular environmental issues are arising may be the primary focus. Another approach may be to compare differences in environmental concerns across cultures such as comparing countries from two regions of the world. Yet another approach may be to examine several different countries’ environmental problems and compare the results of various environmental issues. That is the aim of this study. This study compares college students’ pro-environmental attitudes with 11 of our domestic universities.

In a 2007 poll of American adults by the Yale Center for environmental Law and Policy, researchers found that people continue to increase the seriousness of what they consider environmental problems (McElwee and Brittain 2009). In their study, McElwee and Brittain (2009) discovered that 83% of respondents considered global warming a threat and 68% of respondents expressed a belief that people can control climate change. Although this may sound promising, the researchers point out that those who
claim to be environmentally conscious (such as recyclers) can be easily swayed from their position. McElwee and Brittain (2009) state “people’s beliefs in the environment are context-dependent.” In other words, their pro-environmental attitudes can be weakened if the framing of the environmental issue is actively helping improve environmental conditions, rather than not actively harming the environment and by asking respondents about specific domains of environmental behaviors instead of general concern for the environment” (p. 142).

The recent literature related to college students’ attitudes toward pro-environmentalism is bountiful. Most of the literature however focuses on business students’ attitudes, business and governmental pro-environmental attitudes, and consumers pro-environmental attitudes (Cordano et al., 2010; He et al., 2011; Lang 2011; Huang and Rust 2011). There has also been a recent study using the concept of “moral circle” to assess pro-environmental attitudes. Bratanova et al., (2012) suggests focusing on the two motivational and psychological characteristics of values and identity in future studies to promote pro-environmental behavior in the future. Their idea of “moral circle” suggests a set of entities considered worthy of moral regard and treatment. The idea is, the more people feel morally concerned for something, the more motivated they will be to engage in activities aimed at protecting the environment.

When examining cultural aspects of college students’ pro-environmental opinions, from various countries or within a country, cultural disparities between nations will affect the results in fundamental ways. Local perspectives in their college town can also be an influencing factor to college students as well. Iniguez et al., (2012) also suggests a relationship with regional socio-economic conditions.

This study is unique from those mentioned above due to the longitudinal data from 11 domestic colleges and universities and 9 international colleges and universities.

The United States

In a recent study of college students, Lang (2011) posits that students who major in business, economics, management, and forestry possess lower pro-environmental scores than students in other majors. However, Chen and Lai (2010) maintain that environmental cognition and personality traits were significant predictors of attitude toward entrepreneurship. Lang (2011) also discovered in his study women have higher scores on pro-environmentalism than do men and have higher scores on social responsibility than male college students. Ewert and Baker (2001) suggest that regardless of college major, female college students had higher pro-environmental scores than male students. When considering financial security, Lang (2011) found those who were more financially secure were more politically active in supporting environmentalism. Students’ financial security and environmental attitudes have not been found in the literature according to Lang (2011).

Consider another situation; at several colleges and universities in the United States, some instructors are teaching courses on the environment with very little exposure to environmental education or education for sustainable development (Teisl et al., 2011). For example, at a university in the northeastern United States, students are mandated to take a course on “population and the environment.” One of the issues that arises is that we are experiencing an immense interest in environmental issues and many colleges are mandating that environmental topics such as sustainability be
implemented. Many of the faculty lack the educations themselves to adequately teach many of these environmental concepts in their classrooms. According to Teisl et al., (2011), “The most compelling reason for assessment of value changes in environmental courses, regardless of their overall curriculum, is for instructors to understand the effects of their courses and to ensure the intellectual honesty and academic rigor we expect in research is also applied to teaching. The ultimate goal is to assess the attitudinal change of challenging the faculty to consider what attitudinal changes are desired when including environmental literacy in the curriculum.”

In a study measuring environmental health perception among college students, Ratnapradipa et al., (2011) discovered similar findings from the studies mentioned in this section. The primary findings were that most college freshman lacked a level of awareness and concern for environmental issues. These findings are also in line with those of Lang (2011) in that women are more apt to believe environmental problems carry a higher degree of risk.

Japan

In a recent study of Japanese college students by Naito et al., (2010), they discuss the emotion of gratitude within Japanese culture and how it is linked to pro-environmental behavior of college students. Essentially, their research confirms the general notion that gratitude and/or related feelings toward nature are related to pro-environmental intent (Naito et al., 2010).

Naito et al., (2010) define pro-environmental behavior as “Voluntary actions that are intended to benefit nature or the natural environment in terms of its maintenance and growth” (p. 995). In their findings, they discovered that the feeling of “regret” toward nature had significant paths to the variables of pro-environmental attitudes in Japanese students. They also discovered that the three primary religions of Japan which include Confucianism, Buddhism, and Native Shinto, along with their primary tenets toward serving others, teaching gratitude, obligations to others in one’s society, and emotional harmony may influence Japanese students’ behaviors positively toward the environment.

Native American and Alaskan Natives

Native Americans and Alaskan Natives have unique issues when it comes to environmental issues. Burger et al., (2010) make the point that the environmental problems are quite different between Native American communities and suburban communities. However, some of the environmental concerns Native Americans and Alaskan Natives experience include: water usage (each tribe may use it for a different purpose), natural springs (each tribe may use it for a different purpose as well), multiple tribes on the same lands competing for resources, the quality of the land, and various sociocultural traditions of each tribe occupying the land.

Perhaps the three persisting issues Native Americans deal with in terms of competing for resources includes: resource identification, damage potential, and consequence potential (Burger et al., 2010). Burger et al., (2010) states that resource identification is defined as the probability of a resource being present. While damage
potential, describes the existing condition, existing stressors, and potential for damage
due to physical disturbance, contamination, desecration, or aesthetic degradation. Lastly, consequence potential is defined as a combination of the first two aforementioned items. For example, restriction to access of resources or loss of future use options (Burger et al., 2010).

China

China is one country in which data was collected for this study. According to He et al., (2011), China has numerous intensifying problems including: environmental degradation, increasing resource scarcity and pollution. Numerous studies suggest that in general, most Chinese citizens have limited environmental knowledge. People living in urban areas of China have more environmental knowledge. However, He et al., (2011) concluded from their own study that the two samples of Chinese students in their study had environmental protective tendencies and demonstrated knowledge of environmentally responsible behavior, but have a low knowledge of environmental facts.

Nigeria

In Nigeria, there are several environmental priorities that students and faculty are currently examining. Some topics include: achieving cleaner outdoor air and cleaner indoor environments; providing clean water for consumption, hygiene, and sanitation in the home and in the communities; reducing chemical hazards in community and occupational microenvironments; preventing or minimizing unintentional injuries such as pedestrian accidents; and finally, reducing vectorborne diseases (Shendell and Ana, 2011).

The literature on Nigeria and its pro-environmental attitudes revolve around the press in that country. The Nigerian press, according to Adelekan (2009), has played a crucial role in its social, political and economic development since the 1920s. Most recently, the Nigerian press has focused on two environmental topics. First, it has addressed issues related to local environmental sanitation and environmental crises such as droughts, floods, pest infestation, oil spillages, and dumping of toxic wastes. The second topic of discussion is the lack of environmental sustainability in Nigeria. According to Adelekan (2009), the cost of an unsustainable environment in Nigeria which may include ecological and environmental loss is $5.1 billion per year.

The country’s government didn’t start taking environmental sustainability seriously until 1992. Since that time, the government has taken the following actions: implementation of appropriate institutional and policy framework, capacity and institutional strengthening, encouragement of private initiatives and collaboration with international organizations. This included signing or ratifying a number of international environmental treaties (Adelekan, 2009).

New Zealand

In New Zealand efforts have been made by college professors and administrators to future graduates about the importance of having knowledge on sustainability. The two elements (ideas) that are being taught at many institutions in New Zealand include: education for environmentally responsible citizenship and to foster environmental literacy for all students (Shephard et al., 2009).
When examining future teachers, a recent study by Yavetz et al., (2009) suggested that renewed policy is necessary toward orienting teacher education programs to address sustainability issues. The study also found that the undergraduates pursuing a degree in education were not adequately equipped with enough environmental knowledge to be effective when teaching future generations of students. More is needed in studying environmental issues, principles of sustainability, values and skills, as well as pedagogies for dealing with environmental issues in the classroom.

Findings

How to read the graphs

The 12 graphs are broken down into four different environmental categories. These categories include: Anthropocentric, Biocentric, Spiritual, and Extreme. Then, the graphs address three thought eras within each environmental category and they include: Traditional, Modern, and Postmodern viewpoints. What makes this study unique is that it offers several different “layers” of understanding why college students, both domestic and internationally, possess pro-environmental attitudes. To our knowledge, this is the first study of its kind to offer broad-ranged, in-depth analysis of understanding of why college students have perceptions of pro-environmental attitudes.

At the end of all four sets of the graphs, there is a summary analysis offered to the reader explaining why the college students, both domestic and international, responded the way they did in both.

The graphs are designed to place the member of the sample that most agrees to the far left and the sample member that disagrees the most to the far right. The other members are placed in the graph from left to right in descending order of agreement. For example, the Pro-Environmental Anthropocentric Traditional graph has Germany on the left with the highest level of agreement (97.3%), zero level of disagreement and the non-visualized nonresponse of 2.7%. On the far right is Oklahoma’s Northeastern State University with the lowest level of agreement of the sample set of 73.2% agreement. Each graph follows the same pattern.

(See PEA Graphs Below)

Observations

By far, the entire research sample preferred the Anthropocentric responses (PEA) to the environmental questions. The sample regards humankind as the central and most important element in solving the environmental problem.

The Anthropocentric responses have a range of acceptance relative to the three thought-eras. The sample is most attracted to the Traditional approach, with the Modern style coming in second, and the least accepted approach of the Anthropocentric responses is the Postmodern viewpoint. The Postmodern viewpoint is especially rejected by the Near and Far Easterners: Turkey, China and Japan.

Clearly, the pro-environmental message and its importance resonates with college students both domestically and internationally based on these graphs. All college students, no matter where they are from or their social class, still see the
environment as important, preserving it as a priority in their lifetime, and that it starts with people within their countries and communities to act.

(See PEB Graphs Below)

Observations

The **Biocentric** (PEB) answer to environmental problems, where all life is considered to have equal value, is not favored by the sample. This makes sense when Biocentrism is juxtaposed with anthropocentrism. Biocentrism focus on biodiversity is contrary to the man-intense solution of Anthropocentrism. However, the Biocentric responses have the same contour as the Anthropocentric responses in that the sample is most drawn to the Traditional approach, with the Modern style coming in second, and the least appealing approach is the Postmodern viewpoint. Interestingly the African portion of the sample, Nigeria, has the most positive view of the Biocentric stance. As was mentioned previously in the Review of Literature section of the paper, this could be due to the fact that the Nigerian press has made this a priority topic of discussion since 1992. Nigeria, since 1992 has been addressing a plethora of environmental problems such as environmental sanitation and environmental crises.

(See PES Graphs Below)

Observations

The **Spiritual** (PES) stand on the environmental is mixed. The least popular pro-environmental position in this study is the traditional religious perception. This worldwide sample, when it comes to the environment, turns its back on traditional spiritual and religious answers to environmental problems. There is a huge rejection of the traditional spiritual and religious view by Australia, United Kingdom, Germany, California and Wisconsin. The sample, however, expresses some tranquility when it responds to the environment as a sacred matter from the view of modern and postmodern interpretations. This is most likely due to the fact that most of these countries with the exception of Nigeria are currently in the Postmodern era. People residing in rich countries of the world living in the Postmodern era tend to favor spirituality over religion (Roof, 2000). Turkey and Nigeria are always in the top three for the PES agree responses. This was a truly serendipitous finding in which we cannot find anything in the literature to confirm our findings on either country. However, these two findings on spirituality in Nigeria and Turkey may be of use for future pro-environmental studies related to these two countries.

(See PEE Graphs Below)

Observations

The **Extreme** (PEE) attitude has a mixed set of responses. This PEE position contains harsh and bleak assessments that top the usual answers. As with the other environmental attitude clusters, PEE has traditional, modern and postmodern thought-era responses. The Extreme traditional responses are somewhat flat. The sample greatly approved of the Extreme modern positions. The sample has only a mildly positive opinion of the Extreme postmodern positions.
Conclusion

The entire sample most agrees with the Pro-Environmental Anthropocentric Traditional and the Pro-Environmental Extreme Modern approaches. The entire sample most disagrees with the Pro-Environmental Spiritual Traditional and the Pro-Environmental Biocentric Postmodern approaches.

We believe this study serves as a baseline for future studies. This study is unique because it examines college students’ pro-environmental attitudes from nine different countries, and 11 of our domestic community and four-year colleges. We are unaware of a study in the literature that has already accomplished this. Other studies examine perhaps two or three different countries, but not 11 domestic colleges and nine international colleges.

This study also has a couple of limitations as well. First, there were countries in our study in which we could not find any prior studies or literature on their college students’ perceptions of pro-environmentalism. To further complicate this issue, in a handful of the countries we examined, there were no peer-reviewed articles that focused on any of the population’s pro-environmental attitudes for that country. Second, as a result of not being able to find literature on each country, it may be difficult to explain why many of the students in the array of our sample responded the way they did on the pro-environmental survey.

This study is a beginning point for further exploration for us, for current scholars, and future scholars who study this topic to build upon. The sampling, methodology, and findings have been thoroughly tested in numerous pre-tests and our findings should not be discounted just because there is not enough literature to be found about both people in general and college students’ perceptions of pro-environmentalism around the world. This study is the beginning in further understanding of this important topic.

This study offers several possible explanations as to why most college students in the United States and abroad had the highest agreement level to “Pro-environmentalism and the Anthropocentric and Traditional responses. First, Teisl et al., (2011) suggests that pro-environmental attitudes may be attributed to the environmental attitudes of their instructors/professors and the educational beliefs of their instructors/professors. He et al., (2011) found that Chinese students in their study have both global and local environment-friendly attitudes. This study further asserts that modern media outlets either encourage or teach the student to develop pro-environmental attitudes toward global environmental affairs than to local problems (He et al., 2011).

Another important and unexpected finding from our study came from Nigeria. That country’s media has placed a tremendous amount of pressure on its government to fix the numerous environmental problems it has experienced. It has focused on local sanitation issues, oil spillages, toxic waste dumpage, pest infestations, and more of a focus on sustainability.

There has been very little study of Japanese college students’ attitudes toward pro-environmentalism but a recent study by Naito (2010) found that college students, who have a grateful attitude, are more likely to have more pro-environmental attitudes.

On a final note, the strongest attribute of this study in understanding college students and their pro-environmental beliefs lies with the Anthropocentric line of reasoning and all three of the characteristics of: Traditional, Modern, and Postmodern
thought eras of our study (the first three graphs). We believe that college students may now believe that man possesses traditional values in protecting the environment. In other words, the college students from this study believe everyone should care about the environment, no matter if they come from a Third World country or from a country that is presently in the Modern or Postmodern era. They believe that humans (Anthropocentric) can fix environmental problems or at least can take steps to alleviate them, whether at the local level where we (they) live, as a country, or as a global community. This idea ties in well with the Postmodern era where people believe there isn’t a one size fits all answer to all problems; including environmental problems, and that each community and country has its own set of unique environmental problems and resources to solve these problems (Rosenau, 1992). Each country in a postmodern era will offer “interpretations” not “findings” in their community or country as they try to solve their own environmental problems (Rosenau, 1992).

References


“Patriotism Is Not Enough”:
Nurse Edith Cavell, World War I Hero

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**Introduction**

That I may be fit to love, courageous to suffer, and steady to persevere


Every hundred years or so, a heroic woman challenges the conscience of the world. The price for her courage, all too often, is death. George Bernard Shaw, the Irish playwright and author, compared two valorous women, Joan of Arc and Edith Cavell, in the introduction to his play *St. Joan*. He noted that an English court convicted St. Joan of heresy for wearing men’s clothing and sentenced her to death by burning at the stake. A German court convicted Cavell of treason, under penalty of death by firing squad. Shaw argued, “Edith was an arch-heretic: in the middle of the war she declared before the world that ‘Patriotism was not enough’” (*St. Joan*, 1924).

Tommy, Fritz, or Poilu: Nurse Edith Cavell did not distinguish between her brothers in Christ. She nursed the sick, aided fugitives, and willingly accepted the danger in which she placed herself. She was a martyr and hero who faced death according to a *New York Times* article “bright and brave to the end” (1915, p. 1, c. 5). The British government used the execution of “this poor English girl” to foment hatred against the Germans, bolster recruiting, and convince the people of the United States that the “Huns” were the true enemy (Protheroe, 1916, p. 31).

Cavell’s execution contrasted divergent value systems. Ernest Protheroe (1916), an English author best known for his contributions to children’s literature, described it as the difference between “barbarism and civilization” (p. 113). More accurately, Cavell’s death was the inevitable result of the actions of a woman, conditioned by the virtues of discipline, rectitude, and self-sacrifice, in conflict with a Prussian General’s notion of duty, respect, and honor.

This paper argues that patriots and pacifists ignored Cavell’s true motivation in order to advance their respective causes. She acted out of love of God and service to humanity. She saved the lives of British, French, Belgian, and German soldiers out of charity. Her actions flowed from deep religious convictions taught by her father, an Anglican priest, informed by the Bible, and refined by her favorite devotional, *The Imitation of Christ* by Thomas à Kempis (1380-1467).

**Early Life**

Learn to obey, you who are but dust.


Louisa Cavell gave birth to a daughter, Edith, on the 4th of December, 1865, in the front room of an 18th century farm house in the quintessentially English village of Swardeston. Her birth certificate lists her mother’s name as Louisa and her father’s name as Fredrick (1865, EC 2, IWM). Diana Souhami (2010), a modern biographer of Cavell, observed that the Reverend Fredrick Cavell served as an Anglican vicar, presiding “over a peaceful life of tradition and observance, defined by the Christian calendar, the commands of the Bible, and his own orthodox authority” (p. 10). As a child, Cavell played in the lush countryside, developed a talent for watercolors, and played a wicked game of lawn tennis. Edith’s father tutored his three daughters and one son at home. When she was fifteen he hired a live-in governess. The following year, her father caught Cavell smoking in his study. The vicar did not consider such behavior
acceptable in his household and sent her off to Miss Gibson’s School for Young Ladies in Peterborough (Walker, 2003, p. 138).

During her teenage years, Cavell fell in love with her second cousin, Eddy Cavell. Jack Batten (2007), a Canadian journalist, described Eddy Cavell as a “pleasant looking, red headed man” (p. 41). However, Eddy Cavell suffered from a nervous condition. He decided, to Edith’s disappointment, not to marry because of the danger of passing the condition on to any children. If she did not marry, the only two professions available were nursing and governess. Cavell learned French and gained enough of an education in finishing school to find a position teaching the children of a family in Essex.

In 1888, she received a small legacy that she used to travel to Germany. She visited a free hospital run by Dr. Wofenberg and was so impressed that she contributed financially to it. Two years later she took a position as a governess with the Francois family in Brussels, Belgium. She wrote Eddy Cavell that the move was temporary and that “Someday somehow I am going to do something useful for people” (as cited in Souhami, 2010, p. 33). She returned to Swardeston six years later to nurse her father who was dying of pneumonia. This experience, as well as, the example of her two sisters convinced Cavell that nursing was her true profession.

Cavell commenced nurses training at the Royal London Hospital on 3 September 1896. She was thirty years old. The hospital trained women according to the methods outlined by Florence Nightingale in her work Notes on Nursing, based on her experiences during the Crimean War. Nightingale’s book founded the modern profession of nursing. She believed that nurses should save lives, not just comfort the dying. She advocated cleanliness, fresh air, and the notion that the patient came first.

During the Victorian age, the task of caring for the sick and dying fell to low paid servants and members of religious orders. Nuns did their best with limited resources and education, but were primarily concerned with saving the souls of their patients. The pioneering work of Florence Nightingale provided a scientific basis for the nursing profession (Arthur, 2011, p. 56).

Nurses that followed her teachings retained some of the customs of their religious predecessors. They lived a communal life during their training and while they worked in a hospital. They called each other sister. Instead of habits, they wore distinctive uniforms. A matron or directress, rather than a mother superior, headed each community. If they married, they had to leave the profession. The emphasis in The Imitation of Christ on temperance, restraint, and awareness of others, reinforced the lifestyle that Cavell accepted as a probationer at the Royal London Hospital.

Eva Luckes, the matron in charge of the Nursing program, was a rigid taskmaster who believed firmly in the four D’s of nursing: discipline, devotion, dedication, and duty (Arthur, 2011, p. 16). Luckes noted on Cavell’s final evaluation that Cavell’s “intentions were excellent, and she was conscientious without being quite reliable as a nurse” (as cited in Batten, 2007, p. 30). During her time as a student Cavell cared for a patient, who was recovering from a spine operation without anesthesia. She painted a spray of apple blossoms on the endpaper of his Bible and added a quote from à Kempis (Souhami, 2010, p. 64). “If thou hold thy peace and suffer then shalt thou see without doubt the Lord” (à Kempis, 2003, p. 30).

Cavell became a private nurse after completing her training. She volunteered to help during a typhoid epidemic in the town of Maidstone. The grateful people gave her a
medal inscribed, “With gratitude for loving services, 1897” (Arthur, 2011, p. 68). In 1899 Cavell accepted a position as night Supervisor at St. Pancreas infirmary, a hospital for the indigent. She gained experience as a nurse and as an administrator in various other institutions.

She corresponded with Nurse Luckes seeking counsel, recommendations, and nurses to staff the hospitals in which she worked. Luckes, despite her harsh evaluation and stern demeanor, always helped her former student. Souhami (2010) noted that Luckes’ terse and disciplined deportment was for Cavell “the practical manifestation of the love prescribed in à Kempis’s writings” (p. 59).

Character

He is truly great who has great charity.

Thomas à Kempis belonged to a spiritual community in the Netherlands called the Brethren of the Common life. It consisted of priests, brothers, and laypersons. The priests took vows of chastity and obedience. All the members of the community dedicated themselves to living simple lives of poverty, hard work, and charitable activities. They nursed the sick, wrote inspirational literature, copied sacred scripture, and taught students. Their lives centered on the church, books, and the library. Their schools featured high standards. Noted among their alumni were such luminaries as Erasmus and Martin Luther. Thomas à Kempis issued *Imitation of Christ* anonymously in 1418. It served as a guide for everyday life in a communal setting; the Brethren’s equivalent of St. Benedict’s rules.

James Edward Geoffrey De Montmorency (1906), a lawyer and scholar at the University of London, in his work *Thomas à Kempis* argued that the *Imitation of Christ* written in the 15th century was relevant to the early 20th century. He thought that change and decay typified both periods of time (p. 1). He believed that as a result of these conditions, both periods experienced a wave of mysticism (p. IX).

The 21st century has also experienced a resurgence of mysticism. Montmorency’s lyrical description of the message of à Kempis, “The New Mysticism too is come, the Religion of the Inner Soul that fain would shuffle off the mortal coil of corrupt and unholy formalism,” is relevant today (p. 1). Many in the post-modern era find security in an age of anxiety by subordinating their egos and ceding personal power to all-encompassing religious groups. These true believers make *The Imitation of Christ* the second most widely read devotional after the Bible.

À Kempis taught the Brethren to live as “strangers and pilgrims” in anticipation of a heavenly reward (2003, p. 104). He warned his readers that they would suffer adversities and trouble during their lives. He insisted that the key to successful community life lay in the virtues of patience, silence, and submission to God’s will. He warned of the pernicious consequences of gossip and idle talk, a theme repeated by Cavell in her last message to her nurses (1915, October 10, EC 6, IWM).

This quote from à Kempis, explains why Cavell readily admitted her guilt to her German inquisitors, “If you are guilty consider how you would quickly and gladly amend” (2003, p. 93). As she awaited death by firing squad she prayed that God would, “Grant me happy passage out of this world” (Walker, 2003, p. 110). Protheroe (1916) summed
up her character nicely, “She placed duty before either friendship or personal comfort” (p. 10).

The Oxford University Press published a special edition of the *Imitation of Christ* (1920) that contained the markings and underlining made by Cavell in her personal copy of the book. Anglican Bishop Herbert Ryle, Dean of Westminster Cathedral, wrote in the forward, “Reader, let us once more turn to the pages of the *Imitation*, and ponder the sweet secret of a holy humble life, spent in the Saviour’s service” (p. xviii).

**Matron of Nursing School**

_Do not open your heart to everyman,
but discuss your affairs with one who is wise and who fears God._


Dr. Antoine Depage, Belgium’s leading surgeon, believed strongly that the health of the people he served depended on the introduction of professional nursing in his country. Depage faced opposition from Cardinal Désiré-Joseph Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, who believed that the Sisters of Mercy were best suited to provide nursing care in a Catholic country. Depage formed a committee and set about establishing a nurses training institution. He purchased four adjoining brownstones in Ixelles, a suburb of Brussels, a short distance from his medical practice. He asked for an English trained nurse who spoke French to serve as matron. Dr. Depage offered Cavell the job based on her experience, ability to speak French, and the recommendation of the Belgian family she served previously as governess (Batten, 2007, p. 35).

Cavell accepted and arrived in Brussels in the middle of September 1907. Her organizational and teaching skills were immediately evident. She assigned the houses to different uses: quarters for the nursing students, wards and private rooms for patients, an operating theater, lecture rooms, as well as, her office and private quarters. The first students arrived at the L’école Belge pour les Infirmières Diplômées, The Clinic for Nurses’ Training, in October 1907.

Other women followed. By 1912, sixty nurses from all over Europe attended the school. That same year, Cavell hired Nurse Elizabeth Wilkins, from the Royal Seamen’s hospital in Cardiff, as nursing supervisor. Wilkins became her trusted friend and ally. Cavell’s school achieved a measure of acclaim. Dr. Depage observed, “the Belgian school of nursing has been an entire success” in a speech at an international nursing congress (as cited in Batten, 2007, p. 36). The school gained status and access to influential donors after Belgium’s Queen Elizabeth stayed at the school for care for a broken arm. By 1913, Cavell’s training school produced qualified nurses for three hospitals, 24 communal schools, and 13 kindergartens. In addition, she started a nursing magazine for European nurses (Batten, 2007, 36).

**Activities During WWI**

_He was willing to suffer and be despised; do you dare to complain of anything?_


A nineteen-year-old named Gavrilo Princep assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir apparent to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, on 28 June 1914. German troops invaded neutral Belgium on 4 August 1914 as part of the Schlieffen plan to capture Paris in forty-two days. Cavell was on holiday in Norwich visiting her mother
when war broke out. She received a telegram from Nurse Wilkins informing her that the Red Cross had taken over the nursing school and that it was imperative she come back to Brussels. "Driven by her sense of duty," Protheroe (1916) colloquially recalled, "she returned, “hotfoot” to Belgium (p. 16). Cavell noted, “At a time like this I am more needed than ever” (as cited in Norton-Taylor, 2005, p. 3).

Cavell reported in a letter to the Nursing Mirror, “that the Belgians, worn out and weary, were unable to hold back the oncoming host” (as cited in Protheroe, 1916, p. 21). The German army occupied Belgium after the Battle of Mons on 23 August 1914. This engagement led to the collapse of the French army, an event that left many Allied soldiers isolated behind the lines. The Germans warned that they would shoot all those who did not surrender.

Nurse Jacqueline van Til (1922), one of Cavell’s nurses, noted that the Germans posted placards on the walls of Brussels that stated, “Any male or female who hides an English or French soldier in his house, or on his premises, shall be severely punished” (p. 79). Two wounded British soldiers, Colonel Dudley Boger and Sergeant Fred Meachin found their way to Cavell’s clinic and begged for shelter.

Members of the underground asked Cavell to hide other soldiers and help them escape to the Netherlands. The number of fugitives increased through the fall and winter of 1914. Cavell wrote to her mother and her cousin, Eddy Cavell, on 11 March 1915, asking for money and news of soldiers “who are relations of some the girls here” (EC 2, IWM). If these letters had fallen into the hands of the Germans, they could have incriminated her.

Nurse Jacqueline van Til (1922) remembered that the nurses kept up the “good humor” of their “guests” with piano and songs (p. 94). She mentioned that Nurse Cavell was shocked at a few instances of mild flirtation between the soldiers and the kitchen help. Van Til related that Cavell allowed the soldiers to walk out of doors “for a little fresh air” and that the escapees often visited a nearby café for a glass or more of wine (p. 91). One night six or seven soldiers drank too much and made their way back to the clinic singing, “It’s a long way to Tipperary” at the top of their lungs (Batten, 2007, p. 81). Cavell presided over her weekly tea with her nurses and at Christmas time hosted a children’s party and traditional holiday meal of roast beef and plum pudding (Batten, 2007, 36).

Despite Cavell’s efforts to maintain a sense of normality at her nursing school, these were worrisome times. She harbored English and French soldiers who weren’t fully aware of the dangers of their predicament; while treating wounded German soldiers in the same ramshackle group of interconnected buildings. She recruited guides and safe houses to smuggle soldiers out of Belgium. At times, she personally led soldiers to rendezvous points.

Philippe Baucq, an architect and member of the underground, warned Cavell that the Germans were closing in. Cavell tried to cut down on the number and the time the escapees spent in her clinic, but they kept coming. Cavell received a visit from a member of the German political police on 14 June 1915. He searched the premises, found nothing, and warned her against harboring soldiers. Cavell stopped for a while, but could not resist the pleas of fugitive soldiers (Batten, 2007, p. 83).

The net grew even tighter. The German police established a station across the street from the clinic. They placed undercover operatives to observe the comings and
goings at the clinic. They sent spies posing as escaped soldiers to her door. They arrested Cavell and thirty-four other members of the underground on 31 July 1915.

**Arrest, Trial, and Execution**

*He who loves God with all his heart does not fear death*


The German military police took nurse Edith Cavell into custody in the afternoon of 5 August 1915. After a fortnight at German headquarters, they transported her to cell #23 at St. Giles prison, a Gothic fortress designed as a panopticon. Questioning in German, with French interpretation, began immediately. Cavell insisted that she had nothing to hide. The Germans asked her swear on a Bible to tell the truth, an oath she took seriously.

Cavell's interrogators told her that they had all the information they needed to convict her and that if she confessed they would go easy on her friends. Souhami (2010) reported that at one point her interrogators accused her of receiving 5000 francs from the underground to defray the costs of smuggling soldiers out of Belgium. She corrected them, stating, “No, not 5,000, 1500” (p. 245). Cavell made a full confession after 73 hours of interrogation without counsel.

British diplomats agonized over her situation, but felt that any protest might do more harm than good. Richard Norton-Taylor (2005), a reporter for the *Guardian*, claimed that they clung naively to the belief that “Germany would not execute a woman who was regarded as a heroine” (p. 1). They relied on the good offices of American diplomats, Brand Whitlock and Hugh Gibson, to advocate for Cavell. A thorough report presented to both houses of parliament in 1915, praised the work of the American Legation for rendering all the assistance they properly could. The American legation concurred with this assessment. They insisted that they had neglected no step “that could have had any effect” (1915, Report to Parliament BL).

The Germans held Cavell in solitary confinement. She enjoyed the solitude, “I thank God for this ten week’s quiet before the end. Life has always been hurried and full of difficulty” (as cited in Protheroe, 1916, p. 64). “She passed the hours in her cell embroidering, reading, and worrying. Her most treasured book, *The Imitation of Christ*, brought her relief” (Batten 2007, p. 103).

Prison authorities allowed her to write a two-page letter or postcard once a week. On 6 August 1915 she wrote about the welfare of nurses and her dogs. “Is Jackie sad? Tell him I will be back soon” (EC 3, IWM). On 14 September 1915 she wrote to her nurses, “It is not enough to be a good nurse only, but you should also be Christian women” (van Till, 1922, 126). On 4 October 1915, she wrote a letter asking Sister Wilkins to send her “My blue coat and skirt, white muslin blouse, thick grey reindeer gloves, and grey fur stole” (EC 3, IWM). Nurse Wilkins visited her on two occasions. She brought news of the Clinique and the clothes that Cavell wore during her trial and execution. Cavell did not wear her nurse’s uniform again.

The Tribunal of the Imperial War Council of Germany tried Cavell and 35 others accused of aiding English, French, and Belgian soldiers to escape. They held the secret trial at the Belgium State Senate from the 6 to 8 October. Hugh Gibson (1918) recalled, “she spoke without trembling and with a clear mind” (p. 12, c. 2). He noted that “Miss
Cavell’s conduct before the court was marked with the greatest frankness and courage (1918, p. 12 c. 4).

The military prosecutor asked Cavell why she helped soldiers escape to England. She replied, “If I had not done so, they would have been shot” (as cited in Protheroe, 1916, p. 49). The prosecutor remarked to the court that recruiting soldiers for the enemy put the lives of German soldiers at risk. He asked Cavell how many soldiers she had helped. She answered “about 200.” He asked if they were all English. She replied “English, French, and Belgians”. Lastly, the prosecutor asked if Cavell knew that the punishment for her crime was death. She answered, “yes.” (as cited in Arthur, 2011, p. 303). Author Roland Ryder (1975) quoted Cavell as saying; “My preoccupation was not to aid the enemy but to help the men who applied to me to reach the frontier” (p. 199).

Cavell’s court appointed lawyer sat behind her, but had no communication with her. He argued that Cavell helped those she considered in danger and that she never sought to harm Germany. He reminded the Court that she had nursed German soldiers. He asked the court to spare her life and commute her sentence to detention for the duration of the war. The German Military Court rendered a guilty verdict at 5 PM on 11 October 1915. The Court ordered Cavell executed at dawn the following morning.

American diplomat, Hugh Gibson, asked the German political section about Cavell’s welfare. They told him that they knew nothing. In an article entitled “Cavell Execution.” The Boston Evening Transcript, labeled this, “the lying strategy of Teuton officials” (1915, October 22, p. 4, c. 2). Nurses Elizabeth Wilkins and Beatrice Smith learned of the death sentence from a Belgian lawyer affiliated with the underground. They brought this information to Brand Whitlock, the American minister. He wrote a letter to General Baron Moriz von Bissing, the German military governor, asking him to “save this unhappy woman from death” (as cited by Protheroe, 1916, p. 58). The Governor replied that after due deliberation he decided to allow the court to carry out its sentence.

German authorities allowed the Reverend Stirling Gahan, an Anglican minister to visit Cavell the night before her death. He wrote, “To my astonishment and relief I found my friend perfectly calm and resigned” and quoted her as saying “I have no fear nor shrinking; I have seen death so often that it is not strange or fearful to me” (as cited by Horne, 1923). Gahan heard her last confession and gave her Holy Communion. She asked him to tell her mother that she had no regrets. She wrote a final letter to her Nurses, urging them to continue the good work they had begun, admonishing them to mistrust evil speaking, and asking them to forgive any grievance they might hold against her (van Til, 1922, 138).

The German military authorities transported Cavell, Baucq, and three other Belgian nationals to the National shooting range in Schaerbeek at 2 A.M., the morning of October 12, 1915. Two of her nurses waiting outside the prison watched her leave. Pastor Paul Le Seur, the German Lutheran prison chaplain, attended her during her last moments. He wrote that the officer commanding the two eight-man firing squads reassured his men that Cavell was not a mother and encouraged them not to hesitate to shoot a woman who had committed such heinous crimes. A soldier walked her to the execution post, bound her to it, and bandaged her eyes. “Later he told Le Seur her eyes were filled with tears” (Souhami, 2010, p. 357). An Officer gave the order. The shots rang out from six paces away. Cavell received mortal wounds in the head and chest and
fell to the ground. A doctor pronounced her dead. Belgian women buried her just outside the prison in a grave marked by a simple wooden cross.

The Cavell Story as Propaganda

*Behold how far you are from true charity and humility, which does not know how to be angry with anyone, or to be indignant save only with self.*


Cavell would not have approved of what happened next. The press used her death as a means of demonizing the Germans. James Beck (1915), a US lawyer termed her execution “one of exceptional brutality and stupidity” (p. 11). Ernest Protheroe (1916) quoted the Bishop of London as stating, that the murder of Miss Cavell “will run the sinking of the *Lusitania* close in the civilized world as the greatest crime in history” (p. 115).

An article dated 22 October 1915 entitled “Cavell Execution” in the *Boston Transcript* reported that a crowd gathered in Trafalgar Square upon hearing the news of Cavell’s death. One speaker asked, “Who will avenge the murder of this splendid English woman” (p. 4, c. 2). He urged young men to join the British Army and punish the perpetrators of this crime. Recruiters used a portrait of Cavell to encourage able-bodied men to enlist in the armed forces.

Newspapers on both sides of the Atlantic embellished Cavell’s story to sell newspapers and influence the public. Martin Stuart of the Providence Rhode Island *Evening Standard* (1915, October 22, p. 1, c. 4) incorrectly reported that Cavell died wearing her nursing uniform with a small Union Jack on her bosom, that she refused a blindfold, and that the firing squad wept after the execution. In actuality, Cavell wore civilian clothes and accepted a blindfold. A *New York Times* (US) story, “Miss Cavell Shot by German Officer,” incorrectly claimed that after she fainted a German Officer “drew a large service revolver from his belt, took steady aim from his knee and shot the woman through the head (1915, October 17, p. 2, c. 7).

The British Government made it clear that their Foreign Ministry and the United States Legation in Brussels did everything they could to help Cavell. An article entitled, “The Execution of Miss Cavell,” appeared in *The Guardian* (UK) which emphasized that the American Legation “spared no effort” to secure a fair trial for her and, after the guilty verdict, asked the Germans to commute her sentence. The article asserted that the Germans gave Cavell a fair trial and there was “no doubt that she was guilty of the offense charged against her.” The British impugned that the Germans carried out her execution swiftly simply because she was English (1915, October 22, p. 1).

The public in the United States viewed Cavell’s death with repugnance, but filtered their horror through their own preoccupations. Rutin Dunbar, a reporter for the *New York Times*, asked a panel of professionals for their opinion. A judge observed, “It will be decades” before the Germans effaced “the shame of having slain this noble woman” (Dunbar, 1915, October 31, p. 5, c. 1). A suffragette characterized the reaction of men to Cavell’s death as “pure hysteria” (Dunbar, 1915, October 31, 5, c. 2). She argued that the only argument against Cavell’s execution was, “War is not women’s expression” (Dunbar, 1915, October 31, p. 5. c. 1).
The Making of a Hero

Do not fear the judgment of men

Thomas à Kempis p. 84.

The people of the United Kingdom needed a hero in 1915, one of the most difficult times in the history of the country. A poem entitled “Edith Cavell” in the Dover Express (1915, October 24, p. 6, c. 3) asserted that she would live forever in the hearts of the English people. Herbert Asquith, the Prime Minister, observed, “She has taught the bravest man among us a supreme lesson in courage” (“Death of Edith Cavell,” 1915, p. 11). A series of public events enshrined Cavell in British public memory.

On 23 October 1915 at noon, the government held funeral services for Cavell at St. Paul's Cathedral. Two thousand nurses gathered under the dome of Wren's English Baroque masterpiece, dressed in their distinctive uniforms. The Bishop of London read the burial service from The Book of Common Prayer (1662). The congregation sang Abide with me and three verses of God Save the King (1915, Program, IWM, File EC9).

The British government disinterred Cavell’s body, transported it on the HMS Destroyer to Dover, and moved the casket by rail to Victoria Station on 14 May 1919. A horse drawn carriage carried the catafalque to Westminster Cathedral. The Nottingham Post in an article “London’s Tribute to the Martyred Nurse,” described the impressive service (1919, p. 2). The Milwaukee Journal noted that “vast throngs” of people, especially nurses and women war workers, “paid homage to this brave woman” (1919, p. 23, c. 5). In the afternoon, a train took the casket for final burial at Norwich Cathedral near Swardeston, her birthplace.

On 17 March 1920, Queen Mother Alexandria dedicated a monument to Cavell in St. Martin’s place, north of Trafalgar Square. The sculptor of the statue, Sir George Frampton, handed the Queen a rope. When she pulled it, the Belgian tri-color and the British Union Jack that shrouded the monument, fell away (1920 Program, EC 9, IWM). After the ceremony, a British general remarked to Lady Asquith “the Germans will blush when they see this,” to which she replied, “Won't the British?” (Edwards, 2003). One attendee described the memorial, a blocky jumble of marble and granite, as “unpleasing as it is curious” (as cited in The Victorian Web).

Controversy concerning the monument continued. A Women’s Rights organization asked the British government to add Cavell’s comment “I realize that patriotism is not enough, I must have no hatred or bitterness towards anyone.” to the memorial in 1923. The daily press reacted with hostility to this suggestion. They accused the women’s group of being pacifists and pro-German. A year later, the new Labour government authorized the inclusion of Cavell’s famous words on the pedestal of her statue. Souhami (2010) pronounced the monument a “muddle” because Cavell’s quote was at odds with the patriotic inscription, “For God, King, and Country.” She observed that the “apex” of the statue “did not know what its plinth was saying” (p. 365).

Plays dramatized Cavell’s story. In an article, “The Cavell Case,” The Reading Eagle (1919, p. 10, c. 2) of Reading, Pennsylvania urged readers to attend a play about Cavell, so they could better understand the price Germany ought to pay at the Paris Peace Conference. A 1934 letter to a Miss Wainwright criticized a play in London, Edith Cavell, by Robert Forester because the cast failed to address nurses as “Nurse” and the head nurse as “Directress.” (EC8, IWM).
Anna Neagle gave an epic performance in the film *Nurse Edith Cavell* (1939) directed by Hebert Wilcox. Jimmy Fidler, a Florida film critic warned, “Such pictures should be left for some future generation less involved emotionally than you and I are today (1939, October 11, p. 14, c. 3). Two D. C. Comics, *Wonder Women of History* (1943) and *Treasure Chest* (1946) featured Edith Cavell during World War II. Today, Brian Kavanaugh (2007) and Sally O’Kelly (2011) both have produced videos on the Internet that feature views of Cavell’s memorial in London, as well as, original photos of her. The play, *Twelve Ten Fifteen, The Life and death of a British Martyr* is currently soliciting venues in the UK.

**Conclusion**

The Anglican Church commemorates Cavell on 11 October, the day of her death. The inscription on her monument in London references her piety and patriotism. However, George Bernard Shaw wrote of a different woman. He saw Cavell as a rebel and a heretic. She defied her father. She aspired to make a greater contribution than as a governess. She started a successful professional nursing school in a country that clung to old ways of providing health care. She harbored and aided over 200 Allied soldiers to escape to a neutral country. When the Germans caught her, she admitted it.

Cavell’s last words confronted the chauvinistic patriotism prevalent in England during World War I. She insisted that patriotism was not enough. She believed that “I must have no hatred or bitterness toward anyone” (Reverend Gahan, EC 5, IWM). She lived her life and entrusted her soul, not to the passions of the day, but to her own personal religious conviction. She underlined the following passage in her copy of the *Imitation of Christ* (1920) the day before she died, “There is none to help me, none to deliver and save me, but Thou O Lord God my Savior” (Edith Cavell Edition, p. 200).

In 1915, well before unrestricted submarine warfare by the Germans, American sentiment was overwhelmingly isolationist. Cavell’s story undoubtedly influenced public opinion in the United States. The British Government found her story a useful recruiting tool. They held up her courage as an example to the English people.

Most Americans are not familiar with Cavell, but the people of the British Commonwealth remember her fondly. Her story is a staple in the education of primary students. They commemorate her life in statues, hospitals, schools, street names, and even a mountain in Canada. The people of the UK are currently embroiled in a debate over whether the Treasury should depict Cavell or the war minister, Lord Herbert Kitchener on a 2£ coin memorializing the 100th anniversary of World War I. Hopefully, the Cavell backers will win out. People living in the post-modern age, where cynicism and relativity prevail, need her message of standing up for what one truly believes.
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Newspapers


Edith Cavell (1915, October 29) [poem] *Dover Express* (UK). p. 6, c. 3.


Fidler, J. (1939, October 11). Nurse Edith Cavell is deemed too strong for these times. *St. Petersburg Times* (US). p. 9, c. 3.

Miss Cavell brave and bright to the end, first slightly wounded, then shot dead. (1915, October 23) New York Tribune (US), p. 1, c. 5.

Special thanks to the librarians of the British Library (BL). The following items are from the collection of the Imperial War Museum (IWM), London, UK.
File EC 1 - Edith Cavell’s Diary August 1915
File EC 2 - Letters written by Edith Cavell December 1911 to October 1915
File EC 3 - Miscellaneous papers in Edith Cavell’s hand.
File EC 4 - Letters written to or concerning Edith Cavell August 1914 – October 1917.
File EC 5 - Official and semi-official correspondence concerning the arrest, execution and burial of Edith Cavell, August 1915 – October 1915
File EC 6 - Further correspondence, November 1915 – August 1918
File EC 7 - Official and other correspondence relating to the exhumation and reburial of Edith Cavell’s remains January 1919 – October 1920
File EC 8 - Miscellaneous documents relating to Cavell, May 1896 – December - 1921
File EC 9 – Printed items [mainly Orders of Service] concerning the memorial an funeral services for Edith Cavell in London and Norwich 1915 and 1919
Comparative Analysis of China and India (2000-2012)

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The main objective of the paper is to present a comparative analysis of two major emerging economies in Asia – India and China. The discussion is divided into four sections. The first compares the demographic and economic conditions of the two nations. The second is a concise literature review related to the topic. A comparative economic analysis, in terms of trade performance, constitutes the third section. Conclusions regarding the economic future and international integration of the two countries are derived in the last section.

Section 1 - Comparisons of India and China
Physical and Demographic Factors

Although both India and China have large, almost equal populations, the physical size of the two countries differs widely. China has a total of 9,596,961 sq km whereas India is approximately one third that size at 3,287,263 sq km. Compared to the United States, that makes China slightly smaller and India one-third its size. China and India share borders with Bhutan, Myanmar (Burma), and Nepal. The Chinese population of 1.3 billion is slightly larger than the Indian population of 1.2 billion. For China, the variation in the percentage of population by age category is from a low of 9.4% in the 65 years and over category to a high 46.7% in the 25-54 years age group (Table 1). The size of the male population is higher than the female population in all age groups except for those 65 years and over (women outlive men in China, too).

With respect to India, similar patterns exist with a low of 5.7% in 65 years and over category and a high of 40.4% in 25-54 years age group. Except for the 0-14 year age group, the percentages are consistently higher for China than India. The birth rate for China is much lower, 12.3 births/1000 population, than India’s rate of 20.2 births/1000 population. The death rates differ only slightly at 7.39 and 7.31 deaths/1000 population for India and China, respectively. China’s low birth rate has caused some analysts to conclude the country faces a crisis, because eventually the number of working age workers will be insufficient to support an increasingly aging population ([Wallstreet Journal](https://www.wj.com), January 21, 2014).

The two economies differ significantly in their natural resource endowment and their resulting economic focus. China’s economic focus is on natural resource development, particularly coal, iron ore, petroleum, natural gas, mercury, tin, tungsten, antimony, manganese, molybdenum, vanadium, magnetite, aluminum, lead, zinc, rare earth elements, uranium and, as the world’s largest hydroelectric power producer, hydropower production. India’s principal natural resource is productive soil, that is, agriculture which involves the nation in the production of rice, wheat, oilseed, cotton, jute, tea, sugarcane, lentils, onions, potatoes, dairy products, sheep, goats, poultry, and fish.
Political Factors

The Chinese and Indian political systems are quite different, but each government has a major effect on their economy. China and India gained independence from their colonial pasts around the same time, but took separate paths in the development of their post-colonial political systems. India became independent of the British Empire in 1947. The country adopted a democratic government based upon a federal system. Currently, India is a Federal Republic and has 28 states and 7 union territories. In India, the legal system is based on the English model; separate personal laws apply to Muslims, Christians, and Hindus.

Although the country is considered the world’s largest democracy, democracy in India has been tenuous. The country experiences deep economic, religious, linguistic, and ethnic divisions. Furthermore, high levels of bureaucracy, political violence, and corruption hamper progress and have had negative effects on India’s economy, especially in terms of foreign investment.

China, which is formally known as the People’s Republic of China, has had a communist government since 1949. In all, there are 23 provinces in China. Its civil law is influenced by Soviet and continental European legal systems where the legislature retains the power to interpret statutes. China’s communist government originally controlled all aspects of the economy; however, in the past thirty years, the state-controlled economy has become more market oriented, but the state still controls a majority of the economy.

The Chinese political system’s laws and regulations are complex and favor native businesses. Despite loosening controls on the economy, China’s government has remained steadfastly communist. Controls on the Internet and a lack of protection of intellectual property rights are problems for foreign businesses operating in the country. China experiences some ethnic and cultural divisions but not on the same scale as India, except possibly for Tibet. Thus, the Chinese political system is fairly stable. The current Chinese economic system is designed to protect Chinese business and political interests. Overall, the two countries both pose serious challenges to foreign investment.

Economic Factors

From Table 2, it is observed that China has a GDP almost more than two and half times that of India and its per capita income is almost three times that of India. As for growth rate, China’s is slightly higher than India’s; in the case of savings; China has one half of its GDP in Gross National Savings whereas in India has only slightly more than one third.

In observing the data for GDP-Composition by end use in Table 3, India has higher percentages for household consumption and investment in inventories than China. China has higher values for government consumption, investment in fixed capital, and exports of goods and services. Both have negative values for imports and the difference is marginal. In observing the data for GDP Composition by sector of origin, India exceeds China in agriculture and services by 6.8% and 20.4% respectively; however, in the industry sector, China’s contribution to GDP exceeds India’s by 27.7%.

The labor force data in Table 4 reveal that Agriculture is the main economic sector in India with more than 50 percent of the employed labor force, whereas in China occupations are about equally divided between three sectors. However, the service
industry has the greater share followed by agriculture and industry. It is interesting that the largest contribution to Chinese GDP is from the industrial sector. Table 4's comparative analysis identifies some similarities between India and China, but there are also major demographic and economic differences in the two countries.

Section 2 - Review of Literature

In this section, a short review of literature is presented. As pointed out by Vidhya Sree, together China and India account for almost 2.5 billion of the 7.2 billion people on earth and have experienced rapid economic transformations in the past few years. According to Sree, the challenges faced by India are overpopulation, low literacy rates, high unemployment rates, lack of infrastructure and proper socio-economic development, low agricultural productivity due to a lack of advanced techniques, and corruption at all levels. The challenges faced by China are inflation, higher unemployment, a sudden slowdown of the economy due to the unexpected increase of property taxes, and transfer of political power to new hands. Further, the southern and the eastern regions of China have favorable growth while the north and western regions lack income. The author states that both countries are approximately at the same point of development and are attempting to adopt constructive developmental strategies. However, China has opted for manufacturing-led growth and India has emphasized a service-based development model. The conclusion of the author is that both countries are putting their best efforts forward to analyze their core economic strengths and gradually establish themselves as a superpower in the world economy.

In an article published in Index Mundi, the development processes of the two countries were compared. The report stated that China has moved, since the 1970's, from a closed centrally planned system to a market oriented one that plays a major global role. In 2010, it became the world's largest exporter. China's GDP has demonstrated tremendous growth, and in 2012, it stood as the largest economy in the world after the USA. In the Chinese government's 12th five year plan, which was adopted in March 2011, the emphasis is on continued reforms and the need to increase domestic consumption in order to make the country less dependent on exports. The conclusion in this report is that China has made only marginal progress towards re-balancing its goals.

In the case of India, it is shown that the service sector is the major source of economic growth, accounting for nearly two thirds of its output with less than one third of the labor force. Further, India has capitalized on its large educated English-speaking population to become a major exporter of information technology services, business outsourcing services, and software workers. The report concludes that India's medium-term growth is positive due to a young population and corresponding low dependency ratio, healthy savings and investment rates, and increasing integration into the global economy. The study also concludes that India has yet to solve the problems of poverty, corruption, violence and discrimination against women and girls, an inefficient power generation and distribution system, ineffective enforcement of intellectual property rights, decades long civil litigation dockets, transport and agricultural infrastructure, limited nonagricultural employment opportunities, inadequate availability of quality basic and higher education, and dealing with rural-to-urban migration.
Konana, Doggett, and Balasubramanian (2004) in their article on “Comparing India and China Growth Strategies: Chaotic or Planned?” point out that despite different political systems, China and India are aggressively pursuing economic liberalization for growth. They compare the growth strategies of these two economies. By 2050, China and India will affect a third of humankind, influence worldwide job migration, and provide valuable lessons for other developing countries. The authors find that China is building vital linkages among its agricultural, industrial, and service sectors and is systematically encouraging domestic consumption in parallel with a sharp focus on exports.

With strong government support, China’s approach to development has been methodical and deliberate. A positive result is that China’s GDP is double that of India’s. The negative effects of China’s rapid development are the impact on the urban-rural economic divide and the negative impact on the environment. Further, the world placed its confidence in China by awarding her the Olympics in 2008 and the World Trade Fair in 2010. These events significantly affected the jobs of millions of low income and low-skilled workers; the nation’s psyche and confidence; and prepared inefficient state-owned enterprises (SOE) to compete in the global economy.

According to the authors, India’s economic development emphasis is on a knowledge-based service economy (Software and IT-enabled services (SITS)) and there is little evidence that the short-term gains from SITS can be translated into long term sustainable advantages. The authors comment that any strategy to build SITS was more opportunistic and a result of the bandwagon effect than a planned strategy. The contrast between India and China is clearly seen when one observes that in India the SITS sector created 800,000 jobs (insignificant in an economy with 470 million labor force) while China has created over 40 million jobs exporting physical products from footwear to underwear and from hardware to software.

Another problem in India is that the SITS sector does not have strong linkages to the remainder of the Indian economy. Skilled labor is the only input available in India. The other key inputs such as computers and software (e.g., data base management systems, operating systems, development tools) are all imported. The ripple effects of this sector on the overall economy are severely limited since 85% of the output is exported and there is little internal consumption of its output. The authors opine that in contrast with India’s SITS strategy, China’s manufacturing led strategy is less problematic.

The two key factors for the success of the Chinese economy are its attraction for Foreign Direct Investment and its ability to build successful backward and forward linkages between manufacturing activity and the rest of its economy. After the initial FDI, the linkages have a multiplier effect by their creation of direct and indirect jobs. The authors note that there are serious imbalances in China’s development. The authors conclude that India’s choice of placing political freedom ahead of economic liberalization puts a cap on the pace of development. India’s government massively subsidizes the agricultural sector at the expense of industrialization due to the political effects of democracy, poverty, and the large agriculture-based economic sector. It is necessary for Indian governments to balance between long-term growths needs and short term social and political benefits. On the other hand, the constraints for China are far less -- it has emphasized economic freedom before political freedom. The final word of the authors is that India is destined to fall farther behind China even as it celebrates its
shining success in the SITS sector. Most other developing nations can learn from the experiences of China and India. The National Science Foundation (NSF) of the United States concludes as follows in a 2008 report:

“Economic growth in China and India has been rapid in recent years, and these two countries have increased their global market share, trade, and investment in many industries. Productivity and per capita income growth of these two countries, particularly China, appear to have been much more rapid in recent years than that of the United States and other advanced economies.” (National Science Board, 2008)

From Table 5, it is seen that China surpasses the USA and India in productivity “Growth Changes for 1995-2204; 1995-2000; and 2000-2004.” As for GDP per employee and per capita, China is higher than India but lower than the USA.

According to Barry Bosworth and Susan M. Collin (2008), the emergence of China and India as major forces in the global economy has been a significant development. In their article, the authors compare both of these economies with respect to their growth paths. China emphasized its growth in the industrial sector whereas India concentrated on the service sector. Bosworth and Collin (2008) conclude that the supply side prospects for growth in China and India, in terms of labor, physical capital, and reallocation across sectors are very good. However it is necessary for India to look into its inadequate infrastructure and broaden its trade beyond services. Their argument is that for India only an expansion of goods production and trade can provide employment opportunities for its current pool of underemployed and undereducated workers. Their suggestion for China is that, although it performed well in the international dimension, it needs to focus on development of domestic markets, reducing inefficiencies in the financial structure, and achieving a more balanced trade position.

Srinivasan, in his article on China, India, and the world economy, discusses the two economies in detail. He describes the two basic channels, namely import demand and export supply, through which the growth of a country influences growth of the rest of the world and vice versa. The main emphasis of the article is on the growth of China and India and their influence on the world economy. The areas examined are (a) the extent of integration of India and China into the global markets for goods and services, (b) global GDP growth and shares of China and India, (c) sources and sustainability of growth using conventional decomposition of growth, in an accounting sense, into its components of factor accumulation and total factor productivity, and (d) foreign capital flows to China and India.

His conclusions are that the world has seen the large and growing market opportunities in China and India as evidenced by the large flows of foreign direct investment (FDI) to China and also to use China as a low cost platform for exports to the rest of the world. The author states that India did not attract as much interest, not because of the lack of potential investment, but largely because of policy hurdles and other constraints on investment. The author opines that even leaving aside the political problem of its non-transparent, authoritarian, central political control, China lacks some of the key institutional foundations of a market economy. The author agrees with Perkins (2005) that China lacks (a) a well-functioning and efficient financial sector consisting of commercial banks, markets for debt, equity, and insurance, and a strong
regulatory agency, and (b) a legal system with a competent, efficient, independent, and a powerful judiciary. The author agrees with Feldstein (2006) that the “optimistic mood in India’s business community, the desire for reforms by the top leadership of the government, and the growing number of relatively middle class households provide a force for change and a source of support for new entrepreneurial activities.” The author concludes the article with the statement that whether or not India overtakes China in the next two decades, it is clear that both countries will be economic powerhouses in the medium term and their growth will have significant impacts on the world economy.

Section 3 - Trade Performance Analysis for China and India
This section briefly analyses the trade performance of India and China during the 2000 to 2012 period. The variables examined are: the overall (12-year) growth rates of exports and imports, Indexes of Openness, annual exports and imports as a percent of each country’s gross domestic product (GDP), each country’s annual exports and imports as a percentage of total world exports and imports, and the annual growth rates of exports and imports. This section is discussed in the two parts. In the first part Methodology is given followed by Results and Analysis in the second part.

Methodology
In calculating average annual export and import growth rates, a semi-log linear model is used
\[
\log Xi = a1 + bTi \quad (1)
\]
\[
\log Mi = a2 + bTi \quad (2)
\]
where
- \( \log Xi = \) Logarithm of Exports for year i
- \( Ti = \) time variable which assumes values from 1 to 12
- \( \log Mi = \) Logarithm of Imports for year i
- \( Ti = \) Time variable which assumes values from 1 to 12
For calculating the Index of Openness (IO), the following formula suggested by Grubel-Lloyd is used
\[
IO = \frac{(X+M)}{GDP}
\]
where
- \( IO = \) Index of Openness
- \( (X+M) = \) exports + imports
- \( X = \) exports
- \( M = \) imports
- \( GDP = \) gross domestic product

Results and Analysis
From Tables 6 and 7 below, it is seen that for China the variation of Exports as a percent of GDP is 15.8, whereas for India it is 11.6. With respect to imports, the variations as a percentage of GDP are 11.1 and 18.3 for China and India, respectively. Both countries show fluctuations but overall growth in exports and imports over the study period. When comparing the year-to-year growth rates for exports and imports, both China and India exhibited negative growth rates in 2009. For India the maximum growth rates are observed for 2004 for both exports and imports. In the case of China, the maximum growth rates for exports was in 2004 and for imports it was 2003. For
India the index of openness varied from a low of 25.5 in 2001 to a high of 55.4 in 2012. With respect to China, the variation was from a low of 40.6 in 2001 to a high of 67.3 in 2006. One may conclude, therefore, that China is more integrated into the World economy than India.

As for balance of trade, India showed an increasing deficit over the study period, whereas China has a deficit from 2000 to 2004, then a fluctuating surplus through 2012. Comparisons of exports and imports as percentages of world exports and imports reveal that the values are consistently higher for China than India. The highest percentage value for exports is only 2% for India in 2011 whereas for China it is 9.6% in 2012. The same pattern is observed for imports with values of 2.6% for India in 2012 and 9.1% for China in 2012. For both countries, the percentages of exports and imports in World exports and imports exhibited an increasing trend.

Table 8 (the average annual growth rates for exports and imports) reveals that the growth rates were very similar for exports and imports in both countries during the study period (about 8% annually). Consistent with the balance of trade numbers, China’s exports grew slightly more rapidly than India’s, while India’s imports grew slightly more rapidly than China’s.

Section 4 – Conclusions

- Physically, compared to China, India is a comparatively small country. However, in population, China is only slightly larger than India.
- Moreover, the birth rate for China is much lower than India’s. So, the closeness of their current total population numbers may cause India to overtake China in total population by 2030, as the U.S. Census Bureau projects.
- The political systems of China and India are quite different, but both have great effects on their respective economies. China and India achieved independence around the same time, then took separate paths to their current political systems. Overall, the political systems of the two countries while radically different can pose serious challenges for foreign investment.
- China has a GDP almost two and half times that of India and per capita income is almost three times that of India. Further, China has one half of its GDP in Gross National Savings, whereas in India has slightly more than one third.
- The two countries have differences in GDP Composition by end use. India has higher percentages for household consumption and investment in inventories. China has higher values for government consumption, investment in fixed capital, and exports of goods and services. Both have negative values for imports but the variation is marginal.
- The labor force data reveal that for India agriculture is the main economic sector with more than 50 percent of labor force employed therein; whereas in China, occupations are relatively equally divided between three sectors – industrial, agricultural, and services.
- There are some similarities and a few differences in trade performance of the two countries. Both had the same long-term growth rates for exports and imports (around 8 percent).
- The Index of Openness shows that China is more integrated into the World Economy than India.
References


Unicef, 2004-2008 data


Wallstreet Journal, Jan 21, 2014

Tables and Footnotes

### Table 1 – Population Characteristics – China and India

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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Age Structure</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<th>Female</th>
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<td>0-14 years</td>
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<td>India</td>
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<td>5.7</td>
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### Table 2 - GDP and Savings in China and India

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<th>India</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP (Purchasing Power Parity) (trillion $)</td>
<td>12.61</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP Growth rate (%)</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita ($) (PPP)</td>
<td>9,300</td>
<td>3,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross National Saving (% of GDP)</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3 - GDP - Composition by End Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>China</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Household consumption:(%)</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government consumption:(%)</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment in fixed capital(%)</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment in inventories:(%)</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports of goods and services:(%)</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports of goods and services:-(%)</td>
<td>-24.1</td>
<td>-25.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4 - Labor force data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>China</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labor force (million)</td>
<td>798.5</td>
<td>482.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor force by occupation (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate: (%) (2012 est)</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population below poverty line: (%) (2010)</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 - Selected Economic and Productivity Indicators for United States, China, and India: 1995-2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Productivity growth (% aver. ann. chg)</th>
<th>GDP (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Productivity growth is measured on the basis of GDP per employee. GDP is U.S. dollars converted at 1990 purchasing power parity. China does not include Hong Kong. Sources: Conference Board and Groningen Growth and Development Centre, Total Economy Database (September 2006), and National Science Board, 2008.

Table 6 - Selected International Trade Statistics for China, 2000 to 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Exports as % of GDP</th>
<th>Imports as % of GDP</th>
<th>Growth Rate of Exports</th>
<th>Growth Rate of Imports</th>
<th>Index of Openness</th>
<th>Balance of Trade (Current US$)</th>
<th>Exports as % World Exports</th>
<th>Imports as % World Imports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>-$1,484,640,000</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>-$5,226,953,000</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>-$2,416,656,000</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>-$10,696,240,000</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>-$13,216,934,000</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>58,368,300,002</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>120,689,410,932</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>220,627,351,807</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>260,723,217,110</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>-15.6</td>
<td>-9.7</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>147,131,977,481</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>127,350,174,170</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>83,168,373,483</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>150,721,649,293</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7: Selected International Trade Statistics for India, 2000 to 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Exports as % of India GDP</th>
<th>Imports as % of India GDP</th>
<th>Growth Rate of Exports</th>
<th>Growth Rate of Imports</th>
<th>Index of Openness</th>
<th>Balance of Trade (Current US$)</th>
<th>Exports as % World Exports</th>
<th>Imports as % World Imports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>-$4,245,767,257</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>-4,254,870,065</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>-5,045,853,397</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>-4,233,284,370</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>-12,662,315,623</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>-22,898,304,670</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>-29,981,104,764</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>-49,726,426,951</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>52.3</td>
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<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
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<td>25.4</td>
<td>-5.2</td>
<td>-1.1</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>-73,425,817,285</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>-74,620,493,133</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>-120,782,111,053</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>-141,964,246,330</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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</table>


### Table 8 - Export and Import Annual Growth Rates, 2000 to 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Exports</th>
<th>Imports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>0.0805</td>
<td>0.0887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(19.78)*</td>
<td>(21.45)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>0.0836</td>
<td>0.0785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(16.56)*</td>
<td>(21.24)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*t-values

Teachers’ Perceptions and Use of E-Readers

Paulina Kuforiji
Bonita Williams
Columbus State University
**Introduction**

An eReader is a portable device used to read digital books and periodicals, both fiction and nonfiction (Zhang, 2012). These devices can be classified as either “dedicated,” or multi-use, depending upon whether they serve exclusively as eReaders or have the capacity for other functions such as web-browsing. Brand names such as “Nook” and “Kindle” are examples of dedicated eReaders while iPads and tablets are considered multi-use devices. This pilot study of the perceptions and use of eReaders by college students enrolled in teacher education courses included survey questions about both types of eReaders. The study’s general purpose was to explore the participants’ current personal use and projected professional use as teachers of eReaders, both dedicated and multi-use ones. The specific research questions were:

1. What are teachers perceptions of eReaders attributes compared to those of print and online formats?
2. What do teachers perceive as advantages of eReaders use?
3. What do teachers perceive as disadvantages of eReaders use?

The focus of this study was to compare teachers’ perception of eReader attributes with those of print books and online formats. The teachers were asked to indicate the frequency with which they were satisfied using eReaders, compared to print books and online library (ICDL). The primary objective of the study was to determine which of the three formats offered ease of accessibility, ease of reading, portability and physical comfort of use. The survey also asked teachers to comment on the advantages and disadvantages of eReaders use.

**Related Literature**

In recent years, eReaders have gained popularity among all age groups. According to Pew (2012), about one third (33%) of the United States population ages sixteen and older own eReaders and almost one quarter (23%) reported having read a digital book within the past year. Results from the Nielson (2010) survey of “connected device” owners show that eReader users are mostly male (57%), under age 35 (55%), and have a bachelor’s degree or higher (54%). While these studies focused primarily on adult eReader owners, Scholastic, Inc. (2010) surveyed school age (6-17) children as well as adult family members. Scholastic (2010) reported that age 6-17 year olds spent more time online or on cell phones than time spent reading for pleasure. The majority of the age 9-14 year olds surveyed (57%) expressed an interest in reading an eBook; 33% stated that they would read more if they had access to eReaders. Fowler and Bada (2012) reported that 40% of the eReader owners they surveyed reported that they now read more eBooks currently than they had read traditional print books in the past years. In general, the recent published research on eReader demographics and usage has been surveys of adults (age 18 and older). Zhang (2012) and Cuaogtu, et al, 2013 conducted surveys of both college faculty and undergraduate student use of eReaders and eBooks. Their results indicated that computers (PCs) were the least referred platform for eBook reading. Among dedicated devices, Kindles were preferred and iPads led as the preferred multi-use platform (Zhang, 2012). Hutchinson and Reinking (2011) reported in their survey of classroom teachers that computers (PCs) were the most available platform for eReading in P-12 settings. Gross (2013) also investigated P-12 teachers use of multi-use devices as eReaders (iPads). Participants in her study
reported obstacles to ease of use of iPads as eReaders. Scale (2012) and Mitchell (2013) conducted case studies of P-12 students’ use of eReaders outside school to improve reading performance. Parents surveyed indicated increased student interest and time spent reading (Scale (2012)). In her summer program, Mitchell (2013) reported improved proficiency for struggling readers who used Nook eReaders. Overall, the research reviewed appears to indicate that eReader use is increasing among young and middle aged adults, especially with dedicated devices (Nelson, 2012; Fowler and Bada, 2012; Pew, 2012). Research related to eReader use by children ages 6-17 seems to be focused on reading outside the school setting (Scale, 2012; Mitchell, 2013) with classroom teacher research reporting obstacles to using classroom computers as eReaders (Gross, 2013; Hutchinson and Reinking, 2011). The Pew Internet Survey (2012) investigated the features of eReaders that owners reported made them preferred over print or computer-based platforms. Features reported most often were incorporated into the survey administered in the pilot study conducted. Participants in the study were asked to rate and compare their satisfaction with reading print books, eBooks on dedicated eReaders, and eBooks on computers.

**Research Design, Data Collection and Data Analysis**

**Research Design**

An eReader survey was developed by the researchers which included questions from existing research studies about the topic (Pew, 2012; Neilson, 2010). It consists of fifteen items that addressed the following topics: (1) Teachers Perceptions of eReaders Attributes Compared to Those of Print and Online Formats, (2) advantages of eReaders use and (3) disadvantages of eReaders use.

**Data Collection and Data Analysis**

Participants of this study were 25 pre-service and in-service teachers who were enrolled in the web-enhanced and face-to-face courses. This study was conducted using a mixed methods approach. Quantitative data was collected using a questionnaire. Qualitative data were also collected from written comments regarding advantages and disadvantages of eReaders use compared to print materials and online library (ICDL). Participants were asked to rate six items in relation to overall ease of reading eReaders, print books and online library (ICDL) format, the screen/page size, movement/navigation from page to page, bookmarking, font size and ability to adjust it if desired, contrast of background color and print. Results are reported in Table 1. In regard to overall ease of reading when using eReaders, print books and online library (ICDL) format, the pre and in-service teachers surveyed revealed that they had the highest level of satisfaction with eReader and print books compared to online library (ICDL) format. Further analysis revealed that the majority of respondents agreed that ease of movement/navigation from page to page of eReaders and print books had the highest rating compared with online library (ICDL) format. In terms of bookmarking (saving your place to return to the point later) majority of the teachers agreed that ease of bookmarking was higher with eReaders compared with print books and online library (ICDL) format. Another item regarding the attributes of these devices and format was the font size. Overwhelmingly the teachers were satisfied with the ability to adjust the
Participants in the study were asked to rank three items in relation to the overall portability, size and weight and durability of device and format; results are reported in Table 2 above. The first attribute that was rated was the overall portability of the device / format. The respondents ranked eReaders higher over print materials and this attribute was not applicable to online library (ICDL). The second attribute was size/weight of device / format. The respondents ranked eReaders higher than print book. The final attribute was durability and level of care needed for the device / format. Overwhelmingly, teachers ranking revealed a higher satisfaction of eReaders over print books.

Participants were asked to rank two general attributes regarding the device / format. The first attribute was overall ease of accessibility of the device /format; results are reported in Table 3. The highest level of satisfaction was with eReaders while online library (ICDL) had the next highest ranking and print books had the lowest ranking. The second general attribute was overall physical comfort of use. This data revealed that teachers agreed that print books had the highest ranking, next highest was and eReaders and the computer-based online library (ICDL) had the lowest.

### Qualitative data and Analysis

The teachers were asked to comment on the advantages of eReaders use.

What do teachers perceive as advantages of eReaders use?

1. In general, teachers reported that they the contrast of color on eReaders was more advantageous compared to print.

2. Responses from teachers regarding easy access of eReaders as advantageous over print books and online library. They went further to say that “they do not have to go leave the homes to pick up the books from the library.”

3. Comments about the ability to bookmark the last page read without using an external device were more positive with eReaders compared to print books and online library (ICDL).

4. The responses from teachers indicated that eReaders looks like real print books, whereby prevents issues such as glare.

5. Some of the teachers believed that eReaders are ecosystem friendly; for example, “killing of trees” will be reduced compared to print books.

6. The teachers reported that the ability to magnify eReaders’ text fonts without using magnifying glass to read the materials is the greatest advantage of using eReaders.

7. Overwhelmingly, the teachers concluded that portability and light weight advantage of eReaders as its primary benefit when compared with print books. They explained that a user of eReaders can carry a collection of hundreds of books around compared to print books.

What do teachers perceive as disadvantages of eReaders use?

1. Several teachers expressed that the greatest disadvantage of eReader over print books is the battery life the device.

2. Another disadvantage perceived by the teachers is that eReaders can have a slow refresh rate. They explained that sometimes the screen can freeze up.
3. There were some teachers who still prefer print books over eReaders. They explained that nothing can ever truly replace a book. The smell of a book, and the feel of a book.

**Summary and Conclusion**

The intent of this survey was to evaluate teachers’ perceptions and satisfaction with reading print books, using eReaders and reading from an online library (ICDL). According to research findings, the majority of the teachers surveyed agreed that their satisfaction was higher with reading print books and eReaders compared with online (computer-based) library (ICDL). When participants were asked to rate their satisfaction regarding the overall ease of reading with eReaders, print books and the online library (ICDL) format, the results show that the highest level of satisfaction was with eReaders, then print books, and lowest satisfaction for the online library (ICDL) format. In regard to ease of movement / navigation from page to page, the findings show that the participants’ level of satisfaction was higher with print books, followed by eReaders and lowest satisfaction for the online library (ICDL) format.

Another salient finding shows that the teachers were very satisfied with the ability to adjust the font size / color contrast when reading with eReaders, somewhat satisfied with the online library (ICDL) and somewhat dissatisfied with print books. The teachers reported that the ability to magnify eReaders’ text fonts without using a magnifying glass to read the materials is the greatest advantage of using eReaders. When considering the overall portability of the eReaders, print books and online library (ICDL), overwhelmingly, the participants were very satisfied with eReaders compared with print books. From this rating, the participants explained that a user of eReaders can carry a collection of hundreds of books around compared to print books.

According to the research findings regarding overall ease of accessibility, the participants were very satisfied with reading eReaders compared with print books. They went further to explain that that “they do not have to leave their homes to pick up the books from the library.” Another finding was the overall physical comfort of use (eye strain/fatigue). This data revealed that participants were very satisfied with reading print books and eReaders compared to the online library (ICDL). Even though, they rated print books higher than eReaders, most believed that eReaders have an advantage over print book when reading outdoor since it prevents issues such as glare.

Overall, the findings in this pilot study seem to indicate that pre-service and in-service teachers have had positive experiences with eReaders. As members of the 18-35 year old age group, they appear to fit the profile outlined in recent research regarding e-Reader owners. What remains for future research is to see if their satisfaction level with the eReader devices translates into classroom usage with those in the 6-17 year old age bracket. Trends appear to indicate that this younger generation of readers is indeed the fastest growing group of eReader users outside the classroom. As educators begin to explore innovative uses of technology in the classroom, eReaders should be considered as tools to promote proficiency in both literacy and technology.
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united states. Reading Research Quarterly, 46(4), 312-333
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Zhang, L. (2012). Changes in reading behavior among ereader adopters. (Master's

Table 1: Mean Scores of Teachers’ Perceptions on Overall Ease of Reading When
Using the Device or Format

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute of Device or Format</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>eReaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall ease of reading when using the device/format</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The screen/page size</td>
<td>4.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement / navigation from page to page</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookmarking (saving your place to return to that point later)</td>
<td>4.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Font size and ability to adjust it if desired</td>
<td>4.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast of background color and print</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Respondents (n)</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 2: Mean Scores of Teachers’ Perceptions on Overall Portability of the Device/Format**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute of Device or Format</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<td>In general, to what degree were you satisfied with:</td>
<td>eReaders</td>
<td>Online Library (ICDL)</td>
<td>Print</td>
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<tr>
<td>Overall portability of the device/format</td>
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<td>4.08</td>
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<tr>
<td>Size/weight of device/format</td>
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Total Respondents (n) 25

**Table 3: Mean Scores of Perceptions on Teachers Overall Ease of Accessibility and Physical Comfort of Use**

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<tr>
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<td>In general, to what degree were you satisfied with:</td>
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</table>

Total Respondents (n) 25
Study on Poor Handloom Weavers in Guntur District of Andhra Pradesh

Ashok Kumar
Acharya Nagarjuna University
Abstract: Study on sample of fifty families selected randomly among population of 500 Handloom weavers reveals about 23 deaths due to no work, poverty and starvation.

Introduction:
On the three most important things that help the survival of mankind, food, clothing and shelter, Clothing occupies a very important position. The history of mankind is much inter-woven with history of weaving. Weaving from the very beginning of its inception is connected with handloom industry. The activity of handloom in the beginning was purely personal. But when the activity catered to the community at large became a profession of a particular people. Such professional weaver are known by different names in vernaculars.

The people who have been doing different types of fabrics, in Andhra Pradesh are known as Sale, known after spiders cobweb which means weaving; Padmasale, Devanga, the weavers of the divine people. Pattusale or silk weaver, Jandras, Kaikalas, Togatas and Malas the untouchable community. Of the above weakening communities the last mentioned two viz. Togatas and Malas are the lowest in the social scale and their craft are treated much inferior not because of the quality but because of their lowest social status when compared to their fellow weavers of Andhra.

Importance of Handloom Industry: According to the available information there are as many as 3.8 million handlooms are at work supporting at 10 million people behind them for their survival. These handlooms invariably provide self employment and regular income for their survival.

Review of Literature:
For the sake of convenience the available literature on the subject is classified into two groups.viz., Reports published by government agencies and others include books, journals, newspapers notifications, pamphlets representations made by effected weavers etc. In order to study the conditions of handloom weavers and their industries, to suggest guidelines and measures, government of India and state governments have constituted various committees and study groups from time to time. These committees and study groups from time to time. These committees and study groups studied, observed and examined and socio-economic financial, cultural problems with relation to the structure and working conditions of handloom weavers, the role of master weavers and various problems and handloom cooperatives and submitted their reports which are published these reports which were published. These reports constitute the most authentic source for they provide bonafied evidence for the study.

As early as 1928, the Royal Commission on agriculture brought to light the problems of Handloom industry. It suggested that the development of cottage and village industries in cooperative lines is absolutely essential to their survival.

A fact finding committee under the chairmanship of Mr.D.G.Thomas submitted its report in 1942. The Committee observed that the tariff policy of the Government of India benefited the mills more than the handlooms and recommended for the establishment of a separate body at the national level to the coordinate various efforts of the handlooms industry. Textile enquiry Committee under the chairmanship of Nityanand Konungo pointed our exploitation of handloom weavers by the middle men and recommended of
the abolition of those middlemen. The committee further observed that the handloom are providing 20 times employment that the mechanized Textile mill industry in the county. iii Village and small industries committees recommended extension of cooperative organization to large number of handlooms and to introduce such improvements in the existing handlooms that would raise the level of technical efficiency. iv Working capital to weavers cooperative societies was to be provided by the Reserve Bank of India, through the Apex and District cooperative Central Banks ws recommended.

During the third and fourth five year plan, working group on handlooms have been set up, which suggested the conversion of marketing societies into production-cum sale societies and also stressed the need for the weavers cooperative to appoint manages who are administratively qualified with adequate knowledge of Textile trade etc. v Mr.Ashok Mehta Committee recommended that the production of colored sarees should be exclusively reserved for hand looms and further suggested that the common service facilities should be capable of being utilized by hand looms and power looms both within outside the cooperative fold.vi Andhra Pradesh Handloom Weavers congress presented a paper highlighting the need for the revision of Textile Policy by the government. The Congress submitted that for self employment of people all over the country through decentralized family units in which man and women, young and old have their distinct roles to play. A high power study team known as Sivaram committee made a detailed study covering the organizational structure, technical development, intensive development of hand loom, problem of item of production.vii As per its recommendations handloom industry was included in the 20 – point programme in 1976. It suggested to set up a separate Directorate under the development commissioner in the Ministry of Commerce, Govt. of India.

The sub-committee on Handloom Industry in 1978 expressed its surprise that even after 30 years of Independence and completion of four Five Year Plans, Govt. have not been able to formulate an integrated national policy in respect of basic necessity like cloth. In order to protect the weaver from exploitation and for raising their standard of living the weavers should be brought under the cooperative fold.viii A study undertaken by International Labour Organization on handloom weaving in India with special reference to Madras state,1959( at that time, Andhra was in Madras state) stated that due to the establishment of Textile mills hand loom industry has been declined sometimes wiped out.ix The National Institute of Rural development which made critical study on handloom sector is in the preliminary stages of implementation. Secondly, the organization of the Commissioner for handlooms should be expanded with more and more regional offices in order to spread the handloom industry.x

Rama Krishna Rao, Kranthi Kumar and Podar, have dealt with the problems of handloom industry and weavers. They have pointed out the inadequate financial sources lack of sufficient marketing facilities exploitation of weavers by the master weavers and middlemen, unauthorized growth to power looms, competition from organized mills and accumulation of stock. They have also pointed out the problems pertaining to individual weavers such as low wages, illiteracy, ill health that contributed for all decline in the standard of living of weavers.

Jain. L.C. dealt the textile polices of Government and its weakness and suggested an integrated textiles programmes for the viable existence of handloom
industry. Pragada Kotaiah made a detailed evaluation of the problems and prospects of weavers and handloom industry felt that the raw-material is the basic problem facing the industry. He suggested that supply of adequate quantities of required counts of yarn at reasonable rates would solve the problem of weavers.

George, A.C. recommended restrictions on Spinning mills in the sale of yarn for the benefit of handloom. Angadi suggested proper implementation of the Government Policy of reservation of certain varieties of cloth production exclusively for handlooms. Chakravarthy, S.M., suggested for vigorous implementation of standards in the production of handloom cloth for developing export markets.

It is evident from the review of literature that many of the problems of weavers and handloom industry have been focused, but problem pertaining to social justice and social discrimination and participation in decision making are dealt. Therefore the present study is aimed to study the problems of weavers and handloom industry in Guntur town.

**Statement of the Problem:**

The handloom weaver of Andhra Pradesh in general and those of Guntur in particular, are facing acute problems of poverty due to lack of enough work required for their very survival. Many of them have been struggling had to survive. Due to continuous periods of starvation, some have lost their lives which have appeared in the news as ‘starvation deaths’. Some have committed suicides. As many as 23 deaths of starvation and suicides have reported from Guntur alone. The degree of poverty of the weavers is evident from the fact that in spite of the involvement of all members of the family form a child of 6 years to 75 years old the average income of a weavers family per day is hardly ranges from Rs.100 to Rs140 a day.

As such the present study seeks to undertake an enquiry into the socio-economic and occupational problems of handloom weavers of Guntur town.

**Objectives:**

1. To study about the economic problem of the weavers such as economic justice of proper wages and work opportunity and also different types of skills employed.
2. To study the weavers representation in the decision making in the handloom industry.
3. To study the different measures in handloom industry such as health hazards.
4. To study the social discrimination towards the handloom weavers.

**Relevance of the Study:**

The handloom weavers of Andhra Pradesh in general and Guntur in particular are facing many problems due lack of adequate finance and to pursue their trade for livelihood. Poverty due adequate employment coupled with good number dependents ultimately led to hunger deaths in certain areas of Guntur and Prakasam districts of Andhra Pradesh drawing the attention of public as well at the Parliament at Delhi. As many as 40 incidents of suicides and hunger deaths have been reported.

The average income of the weaver has come down deplorably to a level of Rs 50/- to Rs 80 per day. This type of low income for the weaver ultimately threatened them terribly and as a result many weavers preferred to leave their traditional weaving
for any other daily wages such as brick lifting or working in cotton ginning mills where Rs 100 to Rs 130 are paid for a shift. Children over the age of 12 years are also employed in these mills for Rs 100/- for a shift of 8 hours of work. Many of weaver's children find seasonal employment in cotton ginning mills situated nearby areas of Guntur town.

Out of 47 handloom cooperative societies in Guntur only 22 are working due to various financial problem. As many as 17 societies are running with heavy losses. The current situation of the handloom weavers of Guntur town is not healthy. Weavers are facing many hurdles for their professional survival. The present study is important on by the nature of enquiry that would throw light on the various social problems faced by the handloom weavers to run this traditional occupation. The study would highlight the perennial problems of handloom weavers in the Guntur town.

Limitation of the Study:

The study will be restricted to the Guntur town for the sake of convenience the different centers of the handloom industries are studied.

Methodology:

In the present study, a sample unit is considered to be in handloom weaving activity instead of the individual weaver. Purposive sampling method is employed in the present study. Purposive sampling method has been defined by Adolph "purposive selection denotes the method of selecting a number of groups of units in such a way that selected groups together yield as quickly as possible the same averages or proportions as the totality with respect of those characteristics which are already a matter of statistical knowledge.

In order to eliminate bias, prejudice and exaggerations and to select only those samples that are relevant and representative of the entire population or universe, to serve the purposive sampling method has been employed with all possible care.

Unit of Study:

In the present study, weavers house hold activity engaged in cotton handloom weaving activity has been considered as sample unit. The main reason for making a house hold as sample unit in Guntur town (Anjaneya Weavers Colony & Nehru Nagar) is due to the fact that cotton handloom activity is only a house hold cottage industry as such the individual weaver is not taken as separate unit of study. All the members irrespective of their age & gender contribute their labour force continuously and constantly for the total process of manufacturing of textiles. House hold as an economic unit earns as a whole and spends it as a whole. Thus, a careful analysis of the data based on the house hold engaged handloom weaving activity would certainly present a clearer picture of Industry.

The Universe:

Family engaged in handloom activity has been taken as a unit of study in Guntur town (Anjaneya weaver's colony and Nehru Nagar). It is elicited through published source that at least a total of 500 families of weavers of different social status, high and low in these colonies. For the same of convenience 50 families have been selected...
purposefully as 10 % of the total number of weavers families. Thus, the total numbers of such units in Guntur town would constitute the universe.

The Tools/Techniques:

The present research is mainly based on two types of data, viz., primary & secondary. The primary source of data has been collected from the respondents through the structured interview schedule. The secondary source of information is collected from published source such as Director of Handlooms and Textiles, Andhra Pradesh State. Handloom weavers co-operative society Ltd, Guntur District Cooperative Audit office, Assistant Director of Handloom & Textiles, Guntur etc, and other daily reports and incidents of published in local and national newspapers and journals about the socio-cultural and financial problems of the weavers dealt in the present enquiry.

Period of Study:

For the purpose of ascertaining the general socio-economic occupation and survival problems of the Handloom weavers of Guntur town the year 2011-2013 has been selected.

Analysis of Data:

In the present study statistical techniques like percentage and average has been applied, in analyzing the data.

Problems faced during the field work:

The present investigator went to the universe (Anjaneya weavers colony and Nehru Nagar) of Guntur town in the month of February 2013 with a structured schedule to collect data through interview, several people of the area rushed and gathered around him began to ask so many questions. They thought that the information asked by the investigator mean for either for giving looms or loans, pattas for their occupied lands, ration cards and enquiry regarding any malpractices. When the investigator informed them clearly that the information is purely meant for research and not for giving loans or ration cards. Thus many people narrated about their poverty and large number of children, aged parents who are dependent upon them and the high rate of interest and loans taken from private money-lenders. They preferred to depend upon the private money lenders with a high rate of interest than with the government with nominal interest. They are not able to complete with the master weavers of their community, who also exploit them in many respects.

Handloom Weaving Industry in Guntur:

Guntur town is the district headquarters of Guntur district, one of the very culturally, commercially and politically prominent districts of Andhra Pradesh State. Guntur town, a corporate town, with 50 wards. Of the wards, two wards are the center of the handloom weaving activity.

Handloom weavers of Guntur are mostly of weaker sections of the society. They are Sale, Padmasale, Pattusale, Devanga, Jandra and Mala. All the weavers come under Backward Classes except the last one, Malas, which comes under the
Scheduled caste. In Guntur district there are 11,000 handloom households. In Guntur town there are 500 house hold units of weavers.

Weavers Colonies:
Though there are some weavers by caste and community reside anywhere in Guntur concentrated weavers not only by community but also by traditional profession reside in two important parts of the town known as Nehru Nagar and Anjaneya Colony. These professional weavers mostly saivaits by faith are calm going and highly communal by their Lingayat faith which made them strongly united. They are simple and good natured people always mindful of their duties. By political connection most of the weavers are Marxists. Some of them have liking for Gandhian views, while many follow the Marxist views.

Majority of the weavers prefer joint family system. Where there is an opportunity to work together. Children and old people also engage themselves in preloom operations such as making reels of thread or Kandechuttu in vernacular or Ratnam. Helping the process of starching the yarn on the podugu or arranging the yarn in long soft lines. Combing the yarn and making knots when they are cut-off. Almost all the members of the family of weavers take part in the part of manufacturing or weaving cloth and packing.

Polygamy:
The weavers as a rule marry more than one wife as they help them in their work. They prefer more children so that they may also help in several aspects of weaving. The handloom weavers have a strong supervision, that if they undergo family planning operation, they may become weak and their waist will become unfit for weaving. As such they never prefer to plan their family by operation. If there is enough work they will be rich and happy. If there is no sufficient work they suffer like hell due to large family.

Famous Products:
Guntur weavers are famous for their Silver Jari sarees are particularly known by the name Pattu Sale (Silk Weaver). Dhotis of hundred count are also made. There are separate weavers who manufacture khaddar of the coarse and very fine variety with attractive boarders.

Political Center:
Guntur being a commercial town and a prosperous producer of cotton and chilies, It became the centre for power politics. Many cotton producers and merchants have friendly and commercial relation with the weavers and their industry. Issues connected with the production and distribution of cotton yarn, dyes, starch, and clothe on handloom is a living activity in area apart from the traditional weavers. Professional merchants have a lot of commercial and cultural ideas of exchange in Guntur.

Socio-economic profile of the Handloom Weavers of Guntur:
From the study it is found that the 98 percent sample units belongs to Sale, Padmasale and Devanga communities, while only 2 percent belongs to mala community (table -1). The Sale, Padmasale, Devanga and Jandra are classified under backward
communities in Andhra Pradesh. Malas come under Scheduled Caste. Malas are doing any independent handloom weaving but work under somebody as wage earners. Due to prevalence of untouchability the Malas could not get a market price for their products and hence they have left their traditional weaving from the main stream.

Scheduled caste Weavers:

From times immemorial Malas, the present Scheduled Caste Community, who have been branded as untouchables were traditional handloom weavers. They have been very famous for their fine variety of textiles. But due to social suppression and discrimination, they were not allowed to weave fine variety of cloth. As such they have been weaving coarse cloth for the needs of their own community. Due to caste and untouchability problems and other social stigma these expert weavers almost abandoned their traditional profession. They are more recognized as untouchables rather than as expert weavers. Christian Missionaries however recognized the talent of these Scheduled Caste Weavers and provided them with all facilities under the Village Reconstruction Organization scheme, at Gottipadu in Prathipadu Mandal of Guntur District, A.P. They have provided free houses, educational, medical and other facilities for handloom weaving for these people.

Now they are self sufficient under V.R.O. Shelter. They are free from social and economic discriminations. They are enjoying the freedom of social and economic status with all facilities under Village Reconstruction Organization at Gottipadu in Prathipadu Mandal of Guntur District of A.P. They have provided free houses, educational, medical and other facilities for handloom weaving for these people.

Now they are self sufficient under the V.R.O. shelter. They are free from social and economic discriminations. They are enjoying freedom of social and economic status with the facilities provided by the Christian Missionary Social Work programmes. Enough Social Justice has been done to these untouchable weavers. The handloom weaving communities mostly Lingayats by faith, a specific saiva cult prevalent in south India.

Polygamy or marrying more wives is prevalent among the weavers. It is said when there was a lot of demand for the Andhra handloom products in the west during the British period. More and more workers were required to meet the demand in the handloom industry. As there were no adequate workers available the weavers married more women and employed them in their traditional occupation.

When power loom was invented in the west the demand for handloom products decreased due to this demand for handloom products decreased due to their demand for Indian products decreased. Yet the weavers continued the practice of polygamy even though there was no sufficient work for them. It almost became a custom now. It is observed the size of house hold unit fairly large due to the number of wives and their innumerable children. Out of the 50 samples collected 72 percent of them are of a large family consisting of 7 to 10 and more persons live in a joint family.

When the co-wives and their children fight among themselves for rights, position and privileges, they are kept in separate houses, but the head of the family controls them by overall supervision. Such joint families survive on the basis of custom, tradition and convention.
Families having 1-3 members are very less in number. It is partly due to separation from joint family. This type of small families constitutes 12 percentage of the samples survey. The weavers mostly lived in the slum areas of Guntur town partly because they are more free to spread their Padugus or set of the combined yarn to be kept ready for weaving on the handloom in lanes, roads under the trees. They lived in thatched houses with mud walls which create cooling effect and weaving in smooth under cool conditions. Thatched houses are let out at very low rents. Weavers being big in size of their family very low in their income they always prefer to live in slums in thatched houses. 84% of the sample units are residing in thatched houses. They pay an average monthly rent of Rs. 100/- to 150/- for room or attached pancha or a slant roof attached to the room on any side.

Of the 50 sample units surveyed only 2 units (4%) are having more than two looms 13 units (26%) have one or two looms. 70 percent of the sample units have no looms at all. As they invariably work under the master weavers due to lack of working capital, looms accommodation proper mark facilities. However these loom less weavers are living with the hope that the recent scheme extended by the government of India i.e. loom to loom less, would provide them with looms very soon. Weavers are organizing fact campaigns before the district authorities for the speedy and immediate implementation of the scheme.

The working hours of the weavers who work on their own has no time limit. They go on working late hours to maximize their profit. When the husband leaves the loom the wife or son or daughter or brother –in-law will sit and work.

The sound of the loom and the movement of the spindle are heard almost to the early hours of the day. The entire wages are not paid to the worker at a time with the fear that he may stop coming to the work. Advances are paid and always the worker is kept under the thumb of the master weaver. As the wages paid to their labour are very low many weavers reported to have died of starvation and sometimes by suicide.

Loom less weavers prefer mostly to work on contract basis, which is beneficial to the weaver and the master. Rates of wages for the completion of a unit of certain clothe have been agreed upon. Working hours are guided by the environment viz., during summer weaving goes smooth only between 5.00 p.m. to 12.00 hours and 5.00 a.m. to 8.00 a.m. Due to very hot weather during the day time 40° – 45° C, weavers prefer to take rest and only start their work in cool hours.

During rainy season’s also nights are not congenial for continuous weaving as the yarn become damp due to excessive moisture in the atmosphere. Therefore weavers would be at their looms only during day time when there is less moisture. Winter appears to be very favorable for shift and fast weaving. Winter nights are very long and as such with a dose of opium, Jarda, ganja and pint of country or govt. Liquor. But the government of Andhra Pradesh implemented strict prohibition since January, 1995. Weavers working artisans have confined their extravaganza to other than liquor.

Categories of Weavers:

The weavers of Guntur town can be divided into the following categories on the basis of their nature of functioning. Out of the 50 sample units 6 are working independently (12%), 43 units are working under the master weaver (86%) and only one unit under the co-operative societies. It is clear from the evidence available 2%of the
sample units work under the control of master weavers. This made the weaver to work under the thumb of master weaver and as such they are being exploited through the payment of low wages and collection of high rate of interest on advances.

**Reason’s for working under Master Weavers:**

In spite of the organized exploitation by the master weaver because of community feeling religious binding. They are a community by profession, their faith is saivism. When ever, they feel that they are exploited they use third degree language but after some time they feel that they are of the same profession by community.

**Caste Courts:**

The weavers have their own community courts whose final judgment is final in all minor cases. However cases pertaining to murder and other government issue their community courts have no jurisdiction. But at times when innocent or prominent member of their community are involved or unnecessary cases are made, these community courts bring pressure on the courts through government and Assembly. They have their own platform for cultural, social and political activities. As Back ward class community they enjoy 25% of reservation in schools, colleges, university education and government jobs.

**Findings and conclusion:**

Field survey conducted on handloom weavers or Guntur town and data collected through interview schedule, reports and other oral information would give the findings of the study.

Guntur with its favorable eco-zone provided the required back ground for the weavers, by producing quality cotton abundantly from a hoary past. The life and craft of weavers at Guntur has been interwoven with countries outside Indian through ages.

The social organization of weavers through built on communal and cult wise, it is yet united them to gather by community and ritual feelings. Handloom weavers had a hay day and prosperous periods when there was a lot of demand for their products both in the country and outside. Their life was very luminous with prosperous foreign trade. Looms made them richer and they enjoyed life with three flowers and six fruits.

But this period was very ephemeral. The invention of spinning jenny, power loom gave a death blow to the lives and timings of handloom weaver all over.

Coupled with low production, the weavers had to face a cut throat competition with power looms on one hand and mills on the other. Traditional weavers who have inferior technology could never dream of competing with their fellow gaint producers who have employed much modern and up to date technology in their production operations.

As a result handloom weavers suffered a hell. Lack of work, large family size, low income coupled with addiction to opium, alcohol, Zarda, Ganja etc., made the poor weaver much weaker than before.

Government of India’s innumerable textile policies, commissions, and committee’s reports and recommendations meant for the welfare and protection of handloom weavers could not be properly implemented on accounts of laws and contradictory rules and regulations.
Many textile policies and welfare programmes meant for achieving social justice to the weaver have been grabbed and enjoyed by power loom weavers and mill owners. This is due to dual role played by the government of India. Government tried to satisfy both the sectors.

Handloom weavers who belong to weaker sections of the society could not get minimum opportunities to better their economic and social conditions. They were deprived of their social justice both by profession and social status.

Weavers could not stand on their feet soundly on account of their own mistakes such as polygamy, addiction to opium, alcohol, zarda and Ganja, the prevailing social and superior production technology in the country.

Government participation through legislation and implementation of welfare schemes could not make the weavers to develop himself. Most of the welfare schemes could not give good and required results on account of the corruption and redtapism of the government officials on the one hand and the role played by brokers, money lenders, master weavers on the other.

The weaves themselves has misused the schemes while many others have availed the scheme more than once, while those who are helpless could get the opportunity even at one time. Illiteracy and superstitions and zeal fearing nature prevalent among masses made them unaware of their beneficial schemes and programmes.

In this social and professional competition, the scheduled caste weavers, malas left their age-long traditional artisan trade and went away from the main stream of weaving and took shelter under the Christian Missionaries at Gottipadu in Prattipadu Mandal of Guntur District.

Economic distress, social suppression compelled the scheduled caste weavers to opt for others mean professions like scavenging etc. The malas finally lost hold on their traditional weaving. Series of exploitation both on the social and economic fronts, made the weavers as helpless destitute, as a result it is reported that many weavers in area died of starvation too. Many more have been effected by eye sight, chest pain, asthma etc.

Indian Hand Loom industry with centuries of old glory and pride caught on the cobweb of all round crisis. Unfavorable input, adverse market conditions, deteriorating employment, declining wages, worsening living conditions and raw deal form the state have become the standard character of crisis in handloom sector for the last 80 years. The neo liberal economic reforms undertaken by the state during the past two decades with a promise to boost the vigor of the economy had led still deeper crisis in masses.

Handloom weavers are separate artisan by themselves; their problems and prospectus have to be dealt in separate chamber. If they are mixed with power loom and mill owners the problem will never be solved.
References:
George A.C., Cooperative Spinning Mills should support Handloom Industry, The Cooperator, 15th June, 1976,p.56

Table .1
Social Status of the Weavers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community of the Weavers</th>
<th>No. of Units</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sale</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devanga</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Padma Sale</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jandra</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mala</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
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</table>

Source: Field Survey

Table .2
Size of the family of Weavers

<table>
<thead>
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<th>No. of Members in family</th>
<th>No. of Units</th>
<th>Percentage of total Units</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 to 3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 to 6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 10</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
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Source: Field Survey
Table 3
Particulars of looms owned by the weavers

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<tr>
<th>No. of Looms</th>
<th>No. of House hold units</th>
<th>No. of Looms</th>
<th>Percentage of no. of house hold units</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loom less</td>
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Source: Field Survey

\[\text{v}\] Report of the working Group of Handlooms, 1964
\[\text{vi}\] Report of power loom enquiry Committee,1964
\[\text{viii}\] Report of the High Powered Study team, 1974
\[\text{ix}\] The International Labour Office, Handloom Weaving in India, New Delhi, 1959
\[\text{x}\] N.I.R.D., Development of Handloom Sector, Prime Minister's 20 point programme for economic development, Hyderabad 1977.
Red State, Blue State, Conscientious State:
Predicting The Presidential Vote In 2008 And 2012

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Richard Stockton College

Bijou Yang
Drexel University
Abstract. – This study explored predictors of the Presidential vote in the states of the USA based on the average personality scores of the residents of the states obtained from an Internet questionnaire completed by 619,397 residents (Rentfrow, et al., 2008). It was found that states scoring higher in openness and lower on conscientiousness had a higher vote for the Democratic candidate in the 2008 and 2012 Presidential elections. Voting for third party candidates was greater in states with lower scores for neuroticism and agreeableness. Voter turnout was higher in states with lower conscientiousness scores. The results supported a subcultural approach for regional studies of voting preferences based on the personality of the residents of the American states.

There is a great deal of interest prior to elections in predicting who will win. Polling organizations ask samples of voters about their preferences, and experts try to predict the outcome based on complex algorithms. For example, in the 2012 election, Nate Silver, a writer for the New York Times established himself as an accurate forecaster (http://fivethirtyeight.blogs.nytimes.com). In the past, social scientists have examined sociological and economic variables for their associations with voting patterns. Galbraith and Hale (2008) found that higher income inequality in the states was associated with lower voter turnout and a stronger Democratic vote in the 2000 Presidential election, while race, per capita income and urbanization were not associated with voting patterns. For the 2008 election, Zimmer (2010) found that states in which house prices declined the most during the recession voted more strongly for the Democratic candidate, while Highton (2011) found that prejudice played a role in the non-black vote for Barrack Obama in the 2008 election. Disarro, Barber and Rice (2007) analyzed the home state effect in which candidates win their home state by large margins. Klarner (2008) looked at the impact of variables such as the composition by party of the state legislatures and approval ratings for the President.

The Study of Subcultures

When comparing cultures, it is common practice to compare nations (Ratner & Hui, 2003). However, nations do not typically have a uniform culture. Evidence for this can be found in many nations, such as Great Britain where Scotland is eager to separate itself from England, and in Iraq where Kurds, Shi'ite Muslims and Sunni Muslims are three distinct ethnic and religious groups. As a result, the concept of subcultures within a culture has been useful in social science research.

The concept of regional subcultures first came to prominence when Wolfgang and Ferracutti (1962) used the concept of subcultures to explain variations in violence over the regions of the United States. They argued that subcultures exist which view behaviors as normal that the major culture considers to be deviant. In particular, Wolfgang and Ferracutti proposed that the Southern states of the United States treated violent behavior as a natural inclination and an expected response to even slight provocations, such as a jostle or a derogatory remark. They suggested, therefore, that the murder rate might be used as a social indicator for the existence of a subculture of violence, and they used this to predict rates of behaviors such as rape, aggravated assault and domestic violence. This hypothesis has been supported by more recent research. For example, Lee and Bartkowski (2004) found that a regional subculture of violence predicted homicide rates in both adults and juveniles.
Subcultures can be based on age, as in “youth subcultures” (Wilson & Atkinson, 2005), profession (Hornsburgh, Perkins, Coyle & Degeling, 2006), ethnicity (Guidry, 2008), and many other characteristics. There are also regional subcultures (Lee & Bartkowski, 2004; Williams, 2008). From a regional point of view, one of the most basic differences is between the Northern regions of a country and the Southern regions. The people in the north of a country, a region which is typically colder than the south of a country in the northern hemisphere, are usually thought to be more emotionally calm, whereas those in the south are more emotionally expressive. This idea was promulgated early on by Montesquieu in 1748 (Montesquieu, 1989) and supported by a study of respondents in the north and south of 26 countries (Pennebaker, et al., 1996) who believed that southerners were more emotionally expressive than northerners.

The Big 5 Trait Taxonomy

The measurement of personality began with lexical approaches. Allport and Odbert (1936) identified almost 18,000 terms in the dictionary that describe people, and Norman (1967) categorized their list of terms into enduring traits (e.g., irascible), internal states (e.g., depressed), physical states (e.g., trembling), activities (e.g., typing), effects on others (e.g., frightening), roles (e.g., professor) and evaluations (e.g., virtuous).

The next step was to organize the traits in a way that would gain widespread acceptance. Cattell (1945), using personal judgment and the limited statistical tools available to him at the time, reduced the traits to 12 personality factors which were incorporated into his 16 PF Questionnaire, but others found methodological flaws in his methodology. Using more powerful techniques, Tupes and Christal (1961) identified five broad factors: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness. These five factors do not describe people’s personality completely, but rather they describe personality at a broad level of abstraction. Each factor consists of a number of more specific personality traits. For example, conscientiousness includes traits such as orderly, responsible and dependable. (For a list of components in each trait, see the Appendix.)

A great deal of research has tested the consistency of the Big 5 factors using different techniques for personality measurement (such as adjective check-lists and multi-item inventories) and in different cultures and, on the whole, the same five factors emerge in most research. It soon became clear that researchers needed to agree upon a standard measuring instrument, and the first step was Costa and McCrae’s (1985) NEO Personality inventory which measured neuroticism, extraversion and openness to experience. Costa and McCrae later added the measurement of agreeableness and conscientiousness to their inventory, and this final scale was the 240-item NEO Personality Inventory, Revised (NEO-PI-R). Shorter versions were also developed for research purposes with 60 items and 12 items. There continue to be rival approaches to describing personality, and not all researchers agree on the terminology. For example, neuroticism may be labeled as emotional stability, anxiety, or ego strength. However, the widespread adoption of Costa and McCrae’s Big 5 taxonomy has made possible descriptions of the average personality traits of regions, such as the states of the USA and nations of the world.

The major drawback to the Big 5 taxonomy is that it is empirically-based rather than theoretically-based. Some psychologists prefer a taxonomy that is physically-
based, for which the term temperament is used in place of personality. For example, Buss and Plomin (1975) proposed four inherited, physiologically-based temperaments: sociability, emotionality, activity and impulsivity. Eysenck (1967) proposed extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism which are determined by the activity of different regions of the brain, while Cloninger (1986) proposed three temperament factors (harm-avoidance, reward-dependence and novelty seeking) based on the levels of three neurotransmitters in the brain (serotonin, norepinephrine and dopamine). In order to address the lack of a theoretical basis for the Big 5 traits, McCrae and Costa (1999) have proposed a Five-Factor Theory which seeks to pinpoint the physiological structures and processes of the brain that underlie the Big 5 traits, while Gosling and John (1999) sought to identify the Big 5 Traits in lower animals, reinforcing the possibility that the Big 5 traits are physiologically-based.

The Present Study

The present study was designed to study subcultures in the United States and their impact on voting behavior by using the results of a personality test administered to 619,397 respondents in the United States by Rentfrow, Gosling and Potter (2008) from which they derived measures of the personality of the residents of each state. The personality traits assessed were the Big 5 traits (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism, known by the acronym OCEAN). In their study, Rentfrow, et al. found that state measures of personality varied greatly across America. For example, residents of the Pacific states scored low in extraversion and neuroticism and high in openness. State scores on the Big 5 personality traits were associated with indicators of crime, religiosity and political values. States whose residents scored higher on openness held more liberal political values (such as being in favor of legalizing the use of marijuana, same-sex marriage and abortion). States with high scores on agreeableness had lower murder and robbery rates and engaged in more entertaining and visiting friends.

The purpose of the present study was to explore whether Rentfrow, et al.’s state measures of personality predicted voting behavior in the 2008 and 2012 Presidential elections.

Method

The state measures of the Big 5 personality trait scores for the years 1999-2005 were obtained from Renfrew, Gosling and Potter (2008). Rentfrow, et al. (2008) placed an inventory to measure the Big 5 personality traits on the Internet and obtained 619,397 responses, enabling them to report the scores for the Big 5 personality traits in aggregate form for the 50 states. Cobb-Clark and Schurer (2011) found that the Big 5 scores of a large nationally-representative sample of Australian adults sample (n = 6,073) were stable over a four-year period, indicating that, at the individual level, Big 5 scores are stable. It is, therefore, reasonable to assume that the mean state scores obtained by Renfrew, et al. are stable over time.

State-level candidate vote share for the 2008 and 2012 presidential elections for all 50 states were obtained from the Federal Election Commission. For voter turnout, the measure recommended by the United States Election Project
(elections.gmu.edu/Turnout_2008G.html) was used - the vote for the highest office divided by the voting-eligible population.

Results
The results, including Pearson correlation coefficients and linear multiple regressions, are shown in Table 1. For the votes for the Democratic and Republican candidates, the results for 2008 and 2012 were consistent. States with higher scores for openness preferred the Democratic candidate, while states with higher scores for conscientiousness preferred the Republican candidate. In the multiple regressions, a third variable emerged – states with higher scores for agreeableness preferred the Democratic candidate.

The pattern for votes for third party candidates was quite different and was less consistent. The more consistent associations were that states scoring lower on neuroticism and agreeableness voted more often for third party candidates. In addition, conscientiousness played a role in predicting third party votes in 2008.

The Big 5 state scores were less successful in predicting voter turnout. None of the Pearson correlations were statistically significant. In the multiple regressions, states higher in conscientiousness had lower voter turnouts, a result opposite to that which might be predicted.

Discussion
The present study showed that state measures of personality were successful in predicting voter behavior in the 2008 and 2012 Presidential elections. For the major parties, openness, conscientiousness and, to a lesser extent, agreeableness predicted voter preference. Votes for third-party candidates were predicted most consistently by state scores for neuroticism and agreeableness. The Big 5 trait scores were less successful in predicting voter turnout.

Previous research on measuring regional variations in personality traits have used limited samples. Lynn (1991) used samples of college students in different nations, measuring their attitudes and personality traits in order to predict national measures of economic growth, while Hofstede (1990) used sample of employees of IBM in different nations. Rentfrow, et al. (2008) showed that it is now possible to obtain thousands of respondents by using Internet surveys. Although some may question the representative nature of these respondents, the meaningfulness of the results from such research supports the validity of this type of measure. Of course, replication of the results is required before the results and conclusions are viewed as reliable. However, it is clear that regional subcultures can now be based on psychological variables as well as sociological variables.

The major limitation of the present study is the omission of control variables. Although this limitation is being addressed in further research by the authors, it is important to note that, as more and more control variables are introduced into a multiple regressions, the likelihood that the contribution of the target variable remaining a significant predictor decreases.
References

Norman, W. T. (1967). *2,800 personality trait descriptors.* Unpublished manuscript, Department of Psychology, University of Michigan, MI.


Appendix: Components of the Big 5 Traits

**Extraversion**
- Warmth
- Gregariousness
- Assertiveness
- Activity
- Excitement-seeking
- Positive emotions

**Agreeableness**
- Trust
- Straightforwardness
- Altruism
- Compliance
- Modesty
- Tender-mindedness

**Conscientiousness**
- Competence
- Order
- Dutifulness
- Achievement striving
- Self-discipline
- Deliberation

**Neuroticism**
- Anxiety
- Angry hostility
- Depression
- Self-consciousness
- Impulsiveness
- Vulnerability

**Openness**
- Fantasy
- Aesthetics
- Feelings
- Actions
- Ideas
### Table 1: Correlations of Votes in the 2008 and 2012 Elections

#### 2008 election

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* p < .05
** p < .01
*** p < .001
Perspectives on Sustainability: The Divide

Elizabeth Matta (Student)
Laura Parsons (Student)
University of Colorado - Colorado Springs
Introduction

“You know we all want to have a good life, we all want to be able to take care of our families, you start disagreeing when it comes to how...” (Leah)

There are multiple issues that can be focused on within the realm of energy and sustainability; our group of ethnographic students chose this topic because of the communication issues evident among the various topics. The Divide began with a theory that miscommunication is caused by individual’s perceptions of opposing arguments placing them as “they” and themselves as “we.” Using the bridge analogy, “they” are each perceived group of people occupying either side of the bridge with their own values, definitions, and behaviors. However, results indicated that those who were pro-sustainability did not perceive the opposite side as being on the opposite side of the bridge, but simply as less aware and less knowledgeable on the issues. This led the study in the direction of determining where the Divide truly lies regarding energy and sustainability topics.

The Divide lies in people’s values and behaviors, their levels of understanding on the subjects in our survey, and ideas about preferred processes of obtaining energy sources. The cost involved in maintaining or changing the methods of resource procurement is also a dividing factor concerning both finances as well as time. The evidence leads to a main finding of fear of lifestyle change: various definitions of Quality of life determines people’s behaviors which ultimately affects the environment. Thus the divide lies in what is considered the How factor.

Methodology

We supplemented a general survey of 150 questions that pursued values, behaviors, and ideas regarding the environment and sustainability. Key issues such as fracking, defining natural resources, genetically modified organisms, and views regarding various energy sources were rated on a scale of importance for each person from one to ten, ten being the most important. Afterwards the topics were further elaborated during face to face interviews. Values and behaviors were discussed less during the interviews but they were coded in relation to the beliefs of the respondents on the key topics. Interviews ranged from approximately thirty minutes to two hours in length and elaborated on key issues provided in the initial surveys, additionally allowing the conversations to drift into other topics regarding sustainability and the environment such as the transportation of energy sources, the costs of certain sustainability issues, and the perceptions of what other people are doing to or for environmental causes. These issues were incredibly influential for the research as many of the same topics were prevalent in the interviews and thus prevalent in the collective research.

Once the interviews were completed the information was queried using NVIVO10 software in order to explore quantitative statements and to analyze correlational statistics. This provided both quantitative and qualitative findings that were used in making further queries leading to the conclusions seen in this paper. Queries with NVIVO included examining levels of awareness, and viewpoints regarding cost and quality of life values. Dividing topics emerged in relation to GMO’s, fracking, various energy sources and peoples’ definitions of natural resources.
Values, Behaviors and Awareness

“We need to provide education for everyone on these subjects, starting in elementary school.” (Abigail)

Regarding energy and other sustainability topics, differences emerged in relation to anti or pro-sustainability values and behaviors practiced by the individuals. Definitions and actual practices were found to be affected by values such as Unity with Nature, conservation, or degrees of wealth and power. Behaviors and habits were found to be affected by values and definitions of natural resources; namely, recycling and bicycling as opposed to watering the lawn and driving vehicles requiring significant amounts of gas, all affected by levels of awareness pertaining to specific subjects. Background demographic characteristics including certain values and behaviors formed patterns allowing us to determine the individuals who are occupying either side of the Divide. It became possible to identify some Dividing factors including how behaviors might be affected by levels of awareness on a topic or by levels of education.

Those who were found to have higher awareness levels regarding sustainability issues had at least two years of college and held Unity with Nature as an important value. However, majors in college played a far more significant role in determining specific individual’s values. Those who had high school level education rated Unity with Nature as neutral. Those with at least some college rated Protecting the Environment as high (four to five) in the survey, translating to “significantly” or “extremely” important. Unity with Nature, Protecting the Environment, and A World of Beauty were the three most prevalent values receiving the highest ratings. These values scored highest for those with higher levels of awareness due to education levels as well as sustainability related occupations. Power was another value rated highly for certain individuals, mainly those currently enrolled in college; this value is attributed to both low and high levels of awareness, but it does not conflict with the more general value of Protecting the Environment.

Due to low levels of awareness, overall on this topic, there is generally a lack of specific values attributed with Genetically Modified Organisms (GMOs). However, those concerned with GMOs who do show an average to high level of awareness suggested eradication of the practice altogether. Behaviors of highly aware individuals more generally include: use of energy saving vehicles, consumption and purchase of organic products, recycling, and they are also supportive of change to achieve a more sustainable future.

Values and specific behaviors attributed to fracking, both anti and pro-fracking, are also infrequent due to generally low awareness levels on the subject. The values that were most attributed to fracking were mainly anti-fracking values including: A World of Beauty, Conservation, and Protecting the Environment with 62.5% of accounts on the topic being associated with these values, the rest of the values (making 100%) were associated with Community, Personal Freedom, and Enjoyment of Life. While disapproval was a common attitude towards fracking especially with people having mid to high levels of awareness, specific behaviors attributed to those concerned with fracking were hardly mentioned at all. Altogether our results indicate that oil and coal extraction are more often viewed negatively particularly by those with average to high awareness levels as they are attributed to anti-sustainability values.
“I think we can all agree that our destruction of the environment is a problem that needs to be changed with something like an energy revolution or cultural shift...” (Cobra)
“All I know is [fracking] wastes tons of water and puts a lot of chemicals in the earth.” (Eli)
“Yeah I think its disgusting how it destroys the beauty of our mountain environment. It’s a blight on the land, and all for a quick profit." (Harper on ‘mountain-top removal for coal’ (INT))

Natural Resource Definitions

“[Natural resources] are categories/systems of the Earth that function ‘independently’ of human control...[these] benefit human goals and needs as a collective group and sustain/enhance life.” (Nevach)

Crucial to the study of the Divide are widely varying definitions of what are Natural Resources. The definitions can be placed in one of two categories: natural resources are for use or natural resources belong to Nature and occasionally in this definition some argue that humans are natural resources as well. Another dimension of the definitions is whether resources are considered finite or infinite, which determines what resources the respondents think should be used. Respondents who viewed natural resources as an energy source to be used saw many resources as infinite. These respondents varied from those with values of Conserving, Protecting the Environment, and Unity with Nature to those who also valued wealth and power.

With this understanding it is evident in the data why most respondents argue for the use of all energy sources, including alternative energies. Included in the definitions of natural resources were which resources respondents considered the most beneficial to be used. In the survey the most discussed sources were gas, oil, wind, and solar; fracking was also included since the method of extraction was important to some respondents. Four categories emerged regarding natural resource definitions: Finite versus Infinite; and We Are versus We Use. These categories were highly associated with why certain respondents feel the way they do about how to obtain energy sources. Respondent’s definitions largely contribute to their reasoning behind why extraction of all sources are necessary especially to those who view resources as infinite as they contribute to a better quality of life. Respondents who saw resources as For Use and as Infinite tend to show a lack of consistent values on energy use, as opposed to those who view natural resources as Finite, who correlate with values and their practices of conserving energy.

A shared value of needing energy, no matter the source, is prevalent. Those concerned about resources that damage the environment also realize that others are less inclined to change their ways of life to switch to more environmentally friendly sources and habits. Those concerned and highly aware respondents also understand that alternative sources are timely and costly and that many cannot afford the changes necessary. Values associated with the various energy sources were not entirely different from each other; conservation was important for all but fracking; and A World of Beauty was associated with those concerned with coal and fracking but not with advocates for alternative energy sources. Unity with Nature was associated with both alternative energy supporters as well as with the topic of fracking.
“[Natural resources] are there to be tapped. The next resource...the next breakthrough, nuclear needs to be tapped so I’m a big advocate for that, I’m not lock all the doors, actually I don’t want to lock any doors.” (Carter)
“Surely natural resources have intrinsic value in and of themselves without being used by man. Natural resources also support the animal kingdom at large, and other elements of the natural world.” (Peony)
“Obviously nature, water, plants, food, etc but also human partnership within our world (culture, diversity, art, etc)” (Ocelot)

Change
“...Don’t wait until the 11th hour to make changes, make them while we’re okay so we don’t fail.” (Ape)

Whether or not change should be made and what form those changes should take was a large Dividing factor among respondents. The topics that were most important to respondents were issues decidedly requiring immediate attention and change; these topics were: GMO’s, fracking and commonly used energy resources ranging from coal and oil to wind and solar, and natural resources. Even for respondents who were relatively against change, these topics were important because of their connection to change. Regarding GMOs the majority of responses commanded a need to end their use. However, while there was a general consensus on the need for change there remain no suggestions for means of such a change. Values such as wealth and personal freedom along with mid to low levels of awareness about GMOs prevent a switch to organic GMO free products and consequently prevent change. As stated above there is a fear of lifestyle changes; there is a Divide in what people consider a positive quality of life.

The majority of people against the widespread consumption and purchase of GMOs, as our case in point, were in favor of change. Respondents who promoted change claimed behaviors that exhibit sustainable lifestyles such as driving energy safe vehicles, for example. All respondents discussing genetically altered foods agreed changes were needed, indicating that only respondents with high levels of awareness discussed this topic. Suggestions on how to limit the consumption on GMOs, however, were minimal due to respondents considerations of others with lower incomes and factors preventing the switch from GMOs to organic products. A respondent, Carter comes to this conclusion when addressed with the fact that not many people buy organic products, “Why? It seems pretty obvious to me, what’s the difference between buying a banana that costs 40cents a pound and one that costs 80? Considering the number of bananas you eat, unless I had six kids then it would be a big difference.” However, Carter, a key informant and someone who is highly aware of many sustainability topics also supports change despite the many Dividing factors such as cost.

Like GMOs, fracking is another Dividing topic that depends on levels of awareness and respective behaviors. Despite generally low levels of awareness about fracking across our sample, a significant amount of respondents were against fracking or propagated changing current extraction methods. Urgency and concerns about environmental impacts were also important for the concerned respondents; impacts of fracking created a sense of urgency which reinforced the idea that this method of
extraction requires change due to the health effects harming both people and the environment. Fracking has grown in the state of Colorado, with over 500,000 wells mainly in rural counties, and proponents are arguing that it is helping the economy, therefore change is unwanted as it promotes a wealthier quality of life for particular individuals. However, as mentioned previously, more sustainably directed values such as Protecting the Environment, A World of Beauty, and Conservation were associated with fracking discussions which demonstrates more respondent’s disapproval towards fracking. Many efforts are being made to ban fracking in Colorado, although the oil and gas industry is contesting these efforts and arguments of a wealthier Colorado society.

Oil and coal extraction are also argued as harmful to the environments which explains respondent’s disapproval with these as well. For this group of people a change in energy consumption is necessary and therefore possible because the damages to the environment and limited water supply require aid. Opposing arguments brought attention to the high existing energy usage levels which cannot currently be sustained without oil and coal. These Dividing arguments provide examples of why change is conceivably unachievable. During interviews it became evident that out of all the discussed natural resources, solar was the only source considered to be truly beneficial. It appears as though the majority of the discussion on all energy sources was that of concern for the environment and at least a curiosity for alternative resources. The Divide is mostly within cost and how to implement these new potential sources without generating too much change.

“If we don’t stop we won’t even have potable water...We don’t care, we take 2 hours in showers and stuff and we just throw everything away. It’s going to change. It’s going to have to change.” (Charlotte)

“Now, as you get more and more educated it kind of creates a dilemma because it’s your livelihood, but then you want to change the way you do things. It’s not easy though when you’ve done them a certain way for years and years.” (Abigail on genetically altered foods)

**Cost**

“Until you start putting the right prices on things in a system that basically values price over everything else, it’s hard to send a message.” (Leah)

Question 147 in our survey, “what may we never all agree about with regards to sustainability?” produced significant responses with arguments of both urgency and cost. Those arguing about which energy and sustainability issues were urgent in this question generally have higher levels of awareness while cost was a concern regarding all topics and therefore respondents from each side. Certain arguments such as climate and GMO consumption were seen as urgent to respondents with high awareness and pro-sustainability values and behaviors, others were less concerned. However, when querying about cost even those who did not answer that specific question did find many resources as too costly to replace current resources and methods. Cost is interrelated with change because despite the evident need for change many respondents understand that cost is a contributive factor prohibiting change or argue that the cost of changing to alternative resources is not yet profitable enough to reverse the effects from other sources.
Banning fracking was seen as a benefit for 67% of respondents including those who argued that alternative resources were too costly. Due to cost, however, discussion on alternative energy resources is also a Divide issue. Of the various energy resources discussed, from coal to wind, concerns regarding cost was most prevalent. Among the various resources discussed, solar was voted the most costly by the 33% of respondents who chose to discuss solar. Because solar was voted both the most beneficial but also the most costly resource, it is evident why there is still heavy reliance on commonly used sources such as coal and oil. Conversely, all other sources from coal to wind were also seen as being too costly to a certain degree.

To maintain quality of life standards, the definition which widely varied among respondents, evidence suggests the same amount of energy consumption that is being used currently is necessary for the people mainly concerned with this value. Therefore, cost is a Dividing factor linked with disturbing the quality of life for these respondents; this inhibits the desire to change current use of resources. Also a Dividing factor related with cost and quality of life is how to progress into a more sustainable society. In addition to cost impeding change, “the How factor” is preventative of change as well because as cost affects quality of life so does any executed method of progress.

“People want something for nothing, they don’t get why we don’t use renewable resources but they don’t want to pay for it. They want energy but they don’t want to pay for it, they want their house to be powered and they don’t care where it comes from, they don’t see the effects.” (Ape)

“I don’t have the money for stuff like solar panels but if it was cheaper to change over I probably would at least think about it.” (Austin)

How

“Everyone has a different level of how we use resources and why they need to use resources and the justifications for the usage of that resource.” (Carter)

Interviews regarding all Divide topics (GMOs, fracking, energy sources and use, and natural resource definitions) are mainly Divide topics due to respondent’s disagreements with respect to how to use the above resources or how to change the use of them. In finding that the How was the main underlying Divide issue we discovered, through text searches on the words “use” and “change,” that the How emerged as suggestions mostly, but also in arguments on the use of resources and genetically modified organisms or on ideas for change. As such, in searching through “use” and “change,” the How factor was evident in respondent’s arguments about continuing the use of specific resources, or in changing them. While some of these arguments were suggestive they were also indications of embedded values and behaviors perpetuating their arguments of current usage or change. For example, a respondent under the code name “Ape” argues for the use of coal and solar so no resource gets completely depleted, this reflects his values of conservation and protecting the environment. Another example of respondents reflecting on their values is through Carter’s argument for personal freedom which he rated as extremely important in regards to allowing fracking, “Fracking is a personal responsibility, there’s no way you can prevent a community from not allowing fracking, and the reason is ownership...so you’re denying access to his property when you say ‘you can’t frack.’” The How factor is the Divide because Dividing characteristics associated with respondents such as their
values and definitions of natural resources affect their behaviors. Practicing behaviors to maintain one’s quality of life generates individual’s suggestions on what to change and how, thus on the How factor. These suggestions ultimately promote change in one direction or another depending on those specific values and behaviors. The How is also Dividing because cost is involved in change and thus executing a How. In other words to execute any How change is required as is cost.

In the case of GMOs, levels of high awareness prompted concern for respondents over the purchase and consumption of them. Their environment-oriented values along with their fears of damages from GMOs, such as health concerns and water contamination, promoted a positive image of change and accordingly their meanings behind quality of life. Collectively, this information provides less of how, but it does suggest weaning away from dependence on GMOs or completely stopping production of GMOs all together. Unfortunately, due to cost concerns for many regarding purchasing alternatives to GMOs, how to provide healthier options and how to compel more people to become aware of the changes needed, creates a gap in opinions on GMOs.

Fracking became evident as a Divide topic in terms of how we extract our resources. This is seen in the arguments by those who strongly believe in switching to alternative forms of energy. The Divide is mostly a result of the negative effects that fracking has on water. Therefore, as water is an important issue for all the respondents in this study, the How that people argue for or against is how to provide mass amounts of energy for society; some argue fracking is an efficient method of providing energy to sustain current consumption habits. Whereas others believe the way to sustain energy consumption patterns is through alternative energy, as conveyed. Those who support fracking also argue that fracking does not effect water, Luke, another respondent, argues this point, “It doesn’t pollute the water. So you drill wells and put a piece of casing in the ground like 500 feet down and cement it. The rig will come and drill again and that casing has to go in below all of the water tables.” It became clear that the Divide is also partially due to not only awareness levels but information; for example, some believe water is not harmed while others do. How is a Divide issue on fracking in a similar way that all other limited resources are. How to use them and how much should be harnessed created a Divide, much of which is based on the respondent’s perceptions and definitions of natural resources (as discussed in the natural resource definitions section) and what information they have on the subjects.

How people defined natural resources varied greatly among respondents and appeared to have a direct effect on their behaviors and attitudes they exhibited. Behaviors and consequently the amount of consumption of resources varied depending on respondents definitions. The definitions varied between one extreme of the idea that resources are solely for human consumption versus the other extreme of considering natural resources as a component of Nature necessary for the Earth’s survival, with humans occasionally included in natural resource definitions. Implementing individual’s Hows reinforces what a person considers the Quality of Life they want to maintain.
Quality of Life

“We all want a good quality of life.” (Leah)

Values, behaviors, and definitions are interrelated with the various perspectives of the meaning of quality of life; maintaining specific criteria are enforced by behaviors. While everyone can agree “we all want a good quality of life” (Leah) the Divide lies within what defines quality of life for individuals. However, quality of life also Divides people based on future-minded perspectives or instant gratification. The future conscious versus the individual oriented are compatible mindsets within respective values claimed by each respondent such as unity with nature versus power or wealth. How people perceive quality of life has a direct relation to the Dividing topics which are: the use of genetically modified organisms, fracking, alternative resources and the use and consumption of those resources based on definitions of natural resources.

Those who oppose GMOs are generally in the future minded category, anticipating the problems that GMOs pose, effecting their concerns for the future generation’s quality of life. Health impacts and water pollution were the two most common concerns when respondents were interviewed. However, the underlying cause of their fears was that regarding the lack of knowledge surrounding GMOs. These people exhibit behaviors such as eating organic food, driving hybrids and others that implement their values of protecting the environment. They additionally concern themselves with the habits of those who are not concerned about GMOs and the continuation of production through purchase. The impact GMOs have on certain respondent’s quality of life are similar to the concerns that surround resource extraction as unsustainable to their quality of life.

Fracking is another issue that segregates those who are future-minded and those with an individual position. The possibility of future misfortunes such as depleting the water table and poisoning the drinking water, create the basis for arguments opposing fracking. On the other side of the spectrum, people argue that in order to maintain our current quality of life it is necessary to increase the extraction of resources. One of our key informants, Leah, spoke about a conservative man she met at a conference who argued for the use of alternative resources in addition to everything being used today because he wanted “more, more, more, he wanted it renewable, but he wanted more.” A bridge occurs when discussing the potential of using alternative energy sources. Yet this bridge breaks down when quality of life depends on the use of alternate energy sources due to environmental concerns.

How respondents defined natural resources correlated with their definitions of quality of life. Definitions of natural resources include examples of specific types of resources such as oil, wind, water, coal and humans. With definitions themselves Dividing people into groups that see natural resources as infinite or finite affecting peoples behaviors, their quality of life is affected as well. The respondents who stated that natural resources were not simply for societies consumption tended to consider the natural environment and its condition as necessary to upholding a high standard for quality of life. The alternate view being that quality of life is determined by the conveniences attained through use of these resources. Another factor pertaining to quality of life is its maintenance. Fear of losing ones quality of life impedes their attitudes and behaviors in regards to change.
Conclusion

“I don't think people want to harm the environment—that's not what people set out to do. They just want something to get done and they don't mind harming the environment to get it done. So, I guess it'll just have to come down to when we don't have these resources to use anymore—oil and stuff—and we're all going to have to agree that we can't use those anymore and we have to find alternatives.” (Charlotte)

We Obtained our information by gathering background information on each of our respondents. This background information includes values and behaviors. Behaviors practiced were those associated mostly with Unity with Nature, Protecting the Environment, and Conservation, and were behaviors such as driving energy saving vehicles, recycling containers, and buying organic products. The other prominent values were Wealth and Power. Dividing topics under the large energy and sustainability umbrella discussed in the interviews were genetically modified organisms, fracking, the use and expansion of existing energy resources, and definitions of natural resources. A majority of respondents disagreed with GMOs, fracking, and the current consumption levels of energy sources. However, there were enough respondents to discover that the Divide within the topics resulted in How to create a more sustainable society. The How suggests change despite the side (pro or anti-sustainability) and it is evident in the results that respondents do not favor change as it requires changing their behaviors and ultimately their quality of life. The Divide in energy and sustainability can be summarized into three interrelated factors: topics of interest that contain dividing issues such as GMOs and fracking, How to deal with these issues, and the potential for altering quality of life standards.

As mentioned earlier regarding our initial theory, we originally presumed the Divide would be due to a “they factor,” the quote above by Ape on cost exhibits this initial thought. Ultimately, our findings led us to the “How factor,” which we discovered through text searches using NVIVO10 software, the two revealing words were “use” and “change.” The quote from Leah in the introduction exhibits this as well as the quote from Carter under the “How” section. An individual’s definition of natural resources is crucial to a study regarding energy and sustainability because it ultimately is another form of a value system in way as the definition (whether it is We Are or We Use) guides peoples behaviors for their Quality of Life. With the guidance of values, natural resource definitions, and behaviors, cost also substantially contributes to the Divide, without cost perhaps change would be easier, as demonstrated in the quote by Austin in the “Cost” section. Cost is important in regards to change because many respondents against changing certain methods of energy consumption in place now realize costs would rise with changing. It is important to reiterate change as a contributing issue to the How factor and to the Divide. In respondents suggestions and arguments on usage was this promotion of change or fear of change. How to execute an individual’s suggestions on How to achieve a more sustainable environment or on How to use natural resources implies change in some way and this affects those on the opposing side’s quality of life as well. Values and Behaviors perpetuate arguments on usage or change.
Locked Up for Life: The Supreme Court on Life without Parole for Juvenile Offenders

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Introduction

The Supreme Court of the United States has drawn upon "evolving standards of decency" in applying the Eighth Amendment’s ban on cruel and unusual punishments to cases involving juvenile offenders. Over the past few years, the Court has rejected the death penalty for juveniles, sentences of life without parole for juvenile non-homicide offenders, and mandatory life sentences for juveniles who were convicted of homicide. This paper examines some recent decisions in this area and discusses efforts by lower and state courts to interpret and apply them.

Background

The Eighth Amendment states that, "[e]xcessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted." The Amendment does not flatly and categorically prohibit capital punishment. The death penalty has been used in America since colonial times. Captain George Kendall was shot by a firing squad in Jamestown, Virginia in 1608 for sowing discord and spying. The next recorded legal execution in the colonies occurred in Virginia fourteen years later when Daniel Frank was put to death for the crime of theft.

The Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments reflect an acceptance of the constitutional legitimacy of the death penalty, providing that no person shall be deprived of "life, liberty, or property, without due process of law." The Fifth Amendment's protections apply at the national level and the Fourteenth Amendment's apply against state actions. The immediately relevant point, however, is that persons can be deprived of their lives, if they receive due process of law.

But the death penalty is constitutionally impermissible if it is inflicted in a "cruel or unusual fashion." Methods of execution change and methods of execution matter. What is "cruel and unusual" today may have been regarded as "humane and customary" yesterday. "Humane capital punishment" appears to be an oxymoron to some, but certain methods of execution are crueler than others. Burning at the stake, breaking on the wheel, pressing under stones, drawing and quartering, boiling in oil, disembowelment, crucifixion, and beheading were once common and usual. Today, they are rejected as incompatible with contemporary standards of decency. Standards of decency evolve and courts apply such concepts with an eye towards these evolving standards.1

From Furman (1972) to Gregg (1976)

In 1972, a divided Supreme Court struck down a challenged death penalty law in Furman v. Georgia (408 U.S. 238). Five separate concurring opinions were written. Only Justices Brennan and Marshall concluded that capital punishment is always constitutionally prohibited. The remaining concurring Justices – Douglas, Stewart, and White – objected to the appearance of racial bias or arbitrariness in the application of the death penalty. A fundamental problem was that state capital punishment laws gave juries too much discretion about whether or not to impose the death penalty. The four Nixon appointees – Chief Justice Burger and Justices Powell, Rehnquist, and Blackmun – dissented. In fact, Chief Justice Burger’s dissenting opinion stressed that the Court had not banned capital punishment and invited state legislatures to reform their capital-sentencing procedures to limit jury discretion.

Responding to Furman, thirty-five states accepted Burger’s invitation and revised their death-penalty laws. Ten states attempted to eliminate jury discretion
entirely by making the death penalty mandatory for certain crimes. This approach did not succeed. In 1976 (Roberts v. Louisiana and Woodson v. North Carolina), the Court invalidated mandatory death penalties. Twenty-five states tried a different approach. They provided juries with “guided discretion,” requiring two-stage trials in capital cases. The first stage would determine guilt or innocence of the defendant and the second would determine the punishment based on a consideration of aggravating or mitigating circumstances.

Four years later, in Gregg v. Georgia (428 U.S. 153, 1976) and two companion cases, Proffitt v. Florida (428 U.S. 242, 1976) and Jurek v. Texas (428 U.S. 262, 1976), the Court ruled that modified death penalty laws successfully addressed the Furman objections. Justice Stewart, writing for the majority in Gregg, said that the Eighth Amendment draws its meaning from “the evolving standards of decency that mark the progress of a maturing society” (Trop v. Dulles, 356 U.S. 86, 1958). “Excessive” punishments that inflict unnecessary pain or that are grossly disproportionate to the severity of the crime are prohibited. But capital punishment for the crime of murder is not invariably disproportionate. It is an extreme sanction suitable to the most extreme crimes. Dissenting, Justices Brennan and Marshall reaffirmed their Furman opposition to capital punishment.

Capital punishment was back. It resumed one year later under revised state death penalty statutes when convicted murderer Gary Gilmore was executed by a firing squad in Utah in 1977.

Since then, courts have considered whether the punishment fits the crime, whether the punishment imposed was the one intended by the legislature, and whether the punishment can be applied to convicted criminals who are mentally retarded or who were juveniles when they committed their capital offenses. Depending on the circumstances, sometimes death sentences have been upheld and sometimes they have been struck down. The death penalty for juvenile offenders was rejected by the Supreme Court (Roper v. Simmons, 543 U.S. 551, 2005).2 Subsequently, the Court invalidated sentences of life without parole for juvenile non-homicide offenders as “cruel and unusual” (Graham v. Florida, 560 U.S. ___, 2010). More recently, the Court rejected mandatory life-without-parole sentences for juvenile homicide offenders too (Miller v. Alabama and Jackson v. Hobbs, 567 U.S. ___, 2012). This paper examines the Supreme Court’s recent handling of such cases.


William Wayne Thompson participated in a murder when he was 15 years old. He was convicted of first-degree murder and sentenced to death. The United States Supreme Court considered whether a death sentence is cruel and unusual punishment for a crime committed by a 15-year-old. Was Thompson’s age at the time of his offense a sufficient reason for denying the State of Oklahoma the power to sentence him to death?

Justice Stevens, joined by Justices Brennan, Marshall, and Blackmun, observed that many respected professional organizations, other nations sharing our Anglo-American heritage, and leading members of the Western European community find that “it would offend civilized standards of decency to execute a person who was less than 16 years old at the time of his or her offense.” Punishment should be “directly related to the personal culpability of the criminal defendant.” There is broad agreement that
adolescents as a class are “less mature and responsible than adults.” For this reason, “less culpability [attaches] to a crime committed by a juvenile than to a comparable crime committed by an adult.” Teenagers are “less able to evaluate the consequences” of their conduct. They are “more apt to be motivated by mere emotion or peer pressure” than are adults. Given the lesser culpability of juvenile offenders and their capacity for rehabilitation and growth, the retributive and deterrent purposes of capital punishment are not well served by executing a 15-year-old offender. Execution of such juvenile offenders is constitutionally impermissible. Justice O’Connor concurred. Justice Kennedy did not participate. Justice Scalia, joined by Chief Justice Rehnquist and Justice White, dissented.

If 15 is too young, what about 16 or 17? The Court next considered whether it is constitutionally permissible to execute persons who were 16 and 17 years of age, respectively, at the time that they committed capital crimes. **Stanford v. Kentucky, 492 U.S. 361 (1989)**

Kevin Stanford was 17 years old when he committed a murder in Kentucky. Heath Wilkins was 16 years old when he committed a murder in Missouri. Unlike Thompson, involving a 15-year-old murderer, here the Court upheld death sentences that had been imposed on both juvenile defendants.

Justice Scalia, delivered the opinion of the Court. Chief Justice Rehnquist and Justices White, Kennedy, and O’Connor – who switched sides from Thompson – also voted to uphold the capital sentences. Scalia pointed out that “a majority of the States that permit capital punishment authorize it for crimes committed at age 16 or above.” Concurring, O’Connor explained that the sentences imposed on Wilkins and Stanford should not be set aside because “no national consensus forbids the imposition of capital punishment on 16- or 17-year-old capital murderers.” Justice Brennan, joined by Justices Marshall, Blackmun, and Stevens, dissented.

As of 1989, no 15-year-old capital offender could be sentenced to death, but some 16- and 17-year-old capital offenders could be sentenced to death. **Thompson** and **Stanford** both involved the notion that diminished culpability on the part of a defendant is relevant to determining the appropriateness of the death penalty. In several related cases, the Court considered the relevance of insanity and mental retardation to capital punishment. **Ford v. Wainwright, 477 U.S. 399 (1986)**

This case presented the question, is it constitutionally permissible to execute a person who has been declared legally insane? The Supreme Court identified shortcomings in Florida’s procedures for determining sanity and ordered further evidentiary hearings on the question of Ford’s competence to be executed. Writing for the majority, Justice Marshall pointed to a centuries-old tradition in common law barring execution of a prisoner who is insane as “savage and inhuman.” Consistent with this common-law heritage, Marshall concluded that the Constitution also prohibits the execution of a prisoner “whose mental illness prevents him from comprehending the reasons for the penalty or its implications.”

Does the same reasoning apply to the mentally retarded? Does the execution of mentally retarded murderers always constitute cruel and unusual punishment?

The Supreme Court held that executing mentally retarded individuals who are convicted of capital crimes does not necessarily violate the Eighth Amendment. In this case, however, the Court struck down Johnny Paul Penry’s death sentence because the jury had not been properly instructed about how to take into account the his mental retardation and other mitigating factors. Justice O’Connor, delivering the opinion of the Court, noted that in Ford v. Wainwright, a clear national consensus supported the conclusion that “the Eighth Amendment prohibits execution of the insane.” Here, however, there was “insufficient evidence of a national consensus against executing mentally retarded people convicted of capital offenses for us to conclude that it is categorically prohibited by the Eighth Amendment.” Mental retardation is one factor that may “lessen a defendant’s culpability for a capital offense” and such mitigating circumstances must be considered in determining appropriate punishment for individual offenders. In some such cases, a capital sentence may be constitutionally permissible. Justices Brennan, Marshall, Stevens, Blackmun, Scalia, Rehnquist, White, and Kennedy concurred in part and dissented in part.

To summarize, during these post-Gregg years (1976-1989), the Court ruled that it is constitutionally impermissible to execute 15-year-old criminals and the insane. However, the Court also ruled that it may be constitutionally permissible to execute 16-year-old criminals and the mentally retarded. The Court was “refining” its approach to the death penalty during these years. Whether “refinement” represented “clarification” was another question.

Thirteen years later, the Court reexamined Penry: was it still constitutionally permissible to execute mentally retarded individuals or had standards of decency evolved?


Should the death penalty ever be imposed on a mentally retarded criminal? Here the Supreme Court reversed its position from Penry and ruled that it is always cruel and unusual punishment to execute mentally retarded individuals. Justice Stevens, joined by Justices O’Connor, Kennedy, Souter, Ginsburg, and Breyer, delivered the opinion of the Court. Noting that mentally retarded persons have “disabilities in areas of reasoning, judgment, and control of their impulses,” Stevens said that they “do not act with the level of moral culpability that characterizes the most serious adult criminal conduct.” Citing an increase in the number of states banning such executions since Penry was decided in 1989, the Court concluded that a national consensus had developed that capital punishment is “excessive” for mentally retarded offenders.

Standards of decency continued to evolve. Sixteen years after Stanford, the Court revisited the death penalty for juvenile offenders. The question before the Court was, Is it constitutionally permissible to execute persons who were under the age of 18 when they committed capital crimes?

Roper v. Simmons, 543 U.S. 551 (2005)

Christopher Simmons was 17 when he planned and committed a capital murder. After he had turned 18, he was sentenced to death. The Missouri Supreme Court set aside Simmons’ death sentence in favor of life imprisonment without eligibility for release. It held that, although Stanford v. Kentucky (1989) rejected the claim that the Constitution bars capital punishment for juvenile offenders younger than 18, a national
consensus had developed against the execution of those offenders since *Stanford*. The United States Supreme Court agreed, ruling that the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments forbid imposition of the death penalty on offenders who were under the age of 18 when their crimes were committed.

Justice Kennedy, joined by Justices Stevens, Souter, Ginsburg, and Breyer, delivered the opinion of the Court. Kennedy cited the rejection of a juvenile death penalty in most states, the infrequency of its use, the trend towards its abolition, the immaturity and reduced culpability of juvenile criminals, and overwhelming international opinion on the subject in support of the decision. The Court also noted that in December 2003, the Governor of Kentucky decided to spare the life of Kevin Stanford, and commuted his sentence to one of life imprisonment without parole. The Governor declared, “[w]e ought not be executing people who, legally, were children.” As such, the Governor ensured Kentucky would not execute the very juvenile offender whose death sentence the Court had upheld in *Stanford v. Kentucky*. Justices O’Connor, Scalia, Thomas, and Chief Justice Rehnquist dissented.


Terrance Jamar Graham was 17 years old when he was convicted of armed home robbery and sentenced to life in prison without parole. Is a sentence of life without parole for a juvenile convicted of a non-homicidal offense “cruel and unusual” punishment? The Court ruled that such a sentence is excessive. Justice Kennedy, joined by Justices Stevens, Ginsburg, Breyer, and Sotomayor, delivered the opinion of the Court. Chief Justice Roberts concurred separately. Citing *Kennedy v. Louisiana* (capital punishment is impermissible for non-homicide crimes), *Atkins v. Virginia* (capital punishment is impermissible for criminals with low-range intellectual functioning), and *Roper v. Simmons* (capital punishment is impermissible for juveniles), Justice Kennedy found the challenged Florida sentence to be unconstitutional. Kennedy concluded that the fact that life sentences are rarely imposed on non-homicide juvenile offenders demonstrated that a national consensus had developed opposing such sentences. In addition, Kennedy stressed that juvenile offenders have lessened culpability, non-homicide crimes are less deserving of the most severe sentences than premeditated murders, and such sentences have been widely rejected throughout the world. Justices Thomas, Scalia, and Alito dissented.

More fully, Justice Kennedy noted that punishment must be “graduated and proportionate to the offense” (*Weems v. United States*, 217 U.S. 349, 1910). In determining proportionality, a court begins by comparing a defendant’s sentence with sentences received by other offenders for the same crime. Next, a court can utilize “categorical rules,” reviewing legislative enactments and state practices, while exercising “its own independent judgment whether the punishment in question violates the Constitution” (*Roper*). Kennedy observed that seven states permitted life without parole sentences for juvenile homicide offenders and 37 states (and the District of Columbia) permitted such sentences for juvenile non-homicide offenders. But infrequent application of such sentences convinced Kennedy that a national consensus had developed against their use. Citing *Roper*, Kennedy went on to emphasize juveniles’ relative immaturity and lessened culpability. Juveniles are “more capable of change than are adults” and their actions do not necessarily evidence “irretrievably depraved character.” There is a relatively greater chance that a juvenile’s “character deficiencies


will be reformed.” Furthermore, life without parole is “an especially harsh punishment for a juvenile” with a long life ahead. Continuing, Kennedy found that the sentence does not serve legitimate penological goals: retribution and deterrence are undermined by the lessened personal culpability of juvenile offenders; incapacitation for life rests on the assumption that the juvenile offender is incorrigible; and rehabilitation cannot be advanced by life imprisonment. Kennedy also cited a global consensus against the challenged sentencing practices, noting that “the United States now stands alone in a world that has turned its face against” life without parole for juvenile non-homicide offenders. Finally, offenders who prove to be irredeemable may deserve to remain incarcerated for the remainder of their lives. But the Eighth Amendment requires an opportunity for release based on demonstrated rehabilitation. Why a categorical rule instead of a case-by-case approach? Kennedy feared that sentences based on subjective determinations of judges and juries that a juvenile defendant was “irredeemably depraved” could unjustly deny eventual parole to rehabilitated offenders. The state is barred categorically from determining at the outset that such offenders can never reenter society: “The Constitution prohibits the imposition of a life without parole sentence on a juvenile offender who did not commit homicide. A State need not guarantee the offender eventual release, but if it imposes a sentence of life it must provide him or her with some realistic opportunity to obtain release before the end of that term.”

Concurring, Chief Justice Roberts agreed that juveniles are generally less culpable than adults and that Graham’s sentence was excessive. A defendant’s age is relevant to sentencing. But Roberts objected that the majority went too far in establishing an unnecessary and unwise categorical rule that “a sentence of life without parole imposed on any juvenile for any non-homicide offense is unconstitutional.” The Court should limit its holding to the offenses that Graham committed in this case. Some juvenile defendants may commit more “heinous or grotesque” non-homicide crimes and may deserve more severe punishment. The Court should respect the “reasoned judgment” of sentencing judges in cases that come before them.

In dissent, Justice Thomas argued that sentences of life without parole for juvenile offenders would not have offended the framers of the Constitution. The fact that so many states permit such sentences indicates that no national consensus stands in opposition. Thomas criticized the majority for rejecting the judgments of legislators, judges, and juries who have decided that such sentences fit the crime in particular cases. Thomas was unwilling to assume that he and his fellow Justices “are any more capable of making such moral judgments than our fellow citizens.” The Florida Legislature, not the United States Supreme Court, should determine whether or not such sentences should be available. In the face of overwhelming legislative support for life without parole sentences for juvenile non-homicide offenders, the majority imposed a categorical prohibition on them. In so doing, the Court substituted “its own sense of morality . . . for that of the people and their representatives.”


Graham established a categorical rule that a sentence of life without parole for a juvenile non-homicidal offender is cruel and unusual punishment. What about a sentence of life without parole for a juvenile convicted of homicide?
In July 2003, when he was 14 years old, Evan Miller participated in the killing of Cole Cannon. Miller and a companion beat Cannon with a baseball bat and burned his trailer while Cannon was inside. Miller was convicted and sentenced to a mandatory term of life imprisonment without the possibility of parole. In the companion case, Kuntrell Jackson, along with two companions, all of whom were 14 years old at the time, robbed a local movie store in Blytheville, Arkansas. During the robbery, one of the other boys shot and killed the store clerk. Jackson was convicted of capital murder and aggravated robbery. He was sentenced to a mandatory term of life imprisonment without the possibility of parole.

Writing for a five-to-four majority, Justice Elena Kagan found the sentence to be disproportionate, holding that the constitutional prohibition against cruel and unusual punishment forbids mandatory sentences of life without the possibility of parole for juvenile homicide offenders. Justice Breyer, joined by Justice Sotomayor, issued a separate concurring opinion. Chief Justice Roberts, Jr., joined by Justices Scalia, Thomas, and Alito, filed a dissenting opinion.

Kagan pointed out that, in neither case, did sentencing authorities have discretion to impose a different punishment on the 14-year-old offenders. State law mandated that the juveniles be sentenced to die in prison even if a judge or jury thought that his youth, lessened culpability, greater capacity for change, or the nature of the crime made a lesser sentence more appropriate. Such mandatory sentences conflict with the requirement of individualized sentences for defendants facing serious penalties. In \textit{Roper}, the Court invalidated the death penalty for all juvenile offenders. In \textit{Graham}, the Court invalidated sentences of life without parole for juvenile non-homicide offenders. And here, the Court invalidated mandatory life without parole for juvenile homicide offenders. Kagan reasoned that two lines of precedent were relevant. The first balanced the culpability of the offender (the mentally retarded or insane) with the severity of the sentence. The second involved \textit{Graham’s} comparison of the severity of life without parole for young people to the death penalty itself. Since \textit{mandatory} imposition of the death penalty was rejected by the Court (\textit{Woodson v. North Carolina}, 1976; \textit{Lockett v. Ohio}, 1978), it follows that mandatory life-without-parole sentences for juveniles also violate the Eighth Amendment. Recalling \textit{Roper} and \textit{Graham}, Kagan emphasized that “children are constitutionally different from adults for purposes of sentencing.” A lack of maturity, undeveloped sense of responsibility, recklessness, impetuosity, failure to appreciate risks and consequences, vulnerability to outside pressures from family and peers, and limited control over their own environment on the part of juveniles make their criminal actions less likely to be signs of “irretrievable depravity.” \textit{Graham’s} categorical ban on life without parole for juveniles relates only to non-homicide offenses, but its central point that the offender’s age is relevant to the Eighth Amendment applies in homicide cases too. Mandatory penalties ignore central considerations. Mandatory sentencing laws that prevent the sentencing authority from considering an offender’s age violate a core principle: “imposition of a State’s most severe penalties on juvenile offenders cannot proceed as though they were not children.” Kagan did not claim that life-without-parole sentences were categorically banned for juvenile homicide offenders. Mandatory sentences, however, were another matter. A judge or jury must be able to consider relevant mitigating circumstances before imposing the harshest possible penalty for juveniles. Laws that require that \textit{all}
juveniles convicted of homicide receive life sentences without possibility of parole, regardless of their age and the nature of their crimes, violate “the principle of proportionality, and so the Eighth Amendment’s ban on cruel and unusual punishment.”

Four dissenting Justices disagreed. Chief Justice Roberts’ dissent was joined by Justices Scalia, Thomas, and Alito. Roberts said that determining the appropriate sentence for a teenaged murderer presents “grave and challenging questions of morality and social policy.” But it is not the Court’s role to answer such questions. It is the Court’s role to apply the law. The text of the Constitution does not preclude mandatory life-without-parole sentences for juveniles. In fact, such sentences are not “unusual.” Therefore, the Eighth Amendment’s ban on “cruel and unusual” punishments does not prohibit legislatures from providing for such sentences.

**Application Questions: How Are State Courts Interpreting Miller?**

Much attention focuses on the Supreme Court’s announcement of general rules. This is understandable. But how do these general rules apply to particular cases that are at some point in the judicial pipeline? Kagan’s opinion did not specifically say that Miller was retroactive and applicable to previously decided cases.

In brief, the judicial pipeline includes several key junctures. The initial trial is a factual event in which each side tries to persuade the judge or jury to accept their presentation. On direct appeal, a defendant tries to persuade the appellate court that a reversible error occurred and the conviction or sentence should be overturned. If unsuccessful, a defendant can move to collateral review proceedings in state or federal courts. Most collateral reviews involve claims of ineffective counsel, prosecutorial improprieties (e.g., failure to supply exculpatory evidence), or illegal sentencing.

State courts are now faced with the question of whether the Supreme Court’s decision in Miller should apply retroactively to defendants sentenced before the decision. When this issue arises while a defendant’s case is still pending (including direct review), state courts have uniformly applied Miller retroactively. This is because in Griffith v. Kentucky (479 U.S. 314, 320, 1987), the Supreme Court held that “failure to apply a newly declared constitutional rule to criminal cases pending on direct review violates basic norms of constitutional adjudication.”

When faced with challenges to sentences where Miller seems relevant but the cases are no longer pending, state courts have not been consistent in determining whether Miller applies retroactively. This occurs most frequently in cases dealing with collateral review.

In such circumstances, many state courts turn to a non-binding test articulated by the Supreme Court in Teague v. Lane that allows for retroactive application of new laws on collateral review. Under this test, a new rule applies retroactively on collateral review in only two circumstances: 1) “if it places ‘certain kinds of primary, private individual conduct beyond the power of the criminal law-making authority to proscribe[;]’” or (2) “if it requires the observance of those procedures that . . . are ‘implicit in the concept of ordered liberty’” (489 U.S. 288, 1989). The Supreme Court noted that the second exception was meant to apply only to “watershed rules of criminal procedure” (311).

An Illinois appellate court applied Miller retroactively to collateral review of a defendant’s sentencing in People v. Morfin (2012). In this case, Nicholas Morfin challenged his mandatory sentence of life imprisonment because he was a minor at the time of his sentencing. The Illinois Court held that the rule in Miller should be applied
A retroactively under the *Teague* analysis because *Miller* created a new substantive rule. The court reasoned that even though *Miller* did not make it always impermissible to sentence a minor to life in prison, its requirement that courts hold a sentencing hearing before issuing a life sentence mandated a broader sentencing range than Illinois statutes previously required. The court also stressed that the relief granted to Jackson, another defendant in the *Miller* decision, attained relief on collateral review, which suggests that the *Miller* decision should apply retroactively on collateral review.

Similarly, the Supreme Court of Louisiana applied *Miller* retroactively in *State v. Simmons* (2012) to require a hearing for the resentencing of a defendant who was sentenced to a mandatory life sentence when he was 17 years old. It is worth noting that the court in *Morfin* did not view this as a case dealing with collateral review because it dealt with a motion to correct an illegal sentence. In *Hill v. Snyder* (2013), however, the Eastern District Court of Michigan did classify this case as one dealing with *Miller*’s application on collateral review. Some states appear to treat claims of illegal sentencing as “collateral” review and others handle them under “direct” review.

On the other hand, in *People v. Carp* (2012), a Michigan Appellate Court refused to apply *Miller* retroactively. This case involved the collateral review of defendant Raymond Curtis Carp’s sentencing of mandatory life in prison for first-degree murder, armed robbery, and larceny when Carp was fifteen years old. The court held that even though *Miller* created a new rule, it did not meet either exception under the *Teague* test, so it does not apply retroactively. The court also reasoned that the *Miller* rule does not proscribe any sentencing authority because even though it does not allow mandatory life sentences for minors, it does still allow such sentences after a sentencing hearing. Further, the court held that *Miller* did not create a “watershed rule” of criminal procedure because its absence does not create an impermissible likelihood of inaccurate convictions.

The Fifth Circuit Court also refused to apply *Miller* retroactively on collateral review in *Craig v. Cain* (2013). Here, Dale Dwayne Craig asked the court to consider collateral review of the mandatory life sentence he received at age seventeen in light of the Supreme Court’s decision in *Miller*. The court acknowledged that *Miller* created a new rule, but found it did not meet either of the *Teague* exceptions to justify retroactive application. Similar to the court’s reasoning in *Carp*, the court here found that *Miller* did not “categorically bar all sentences of life imprisonment for juveniles” and did not create “a ‘watershed rule of criminal procedure implicating the fundamental fairness and accuracy of the criminal proceeding’.”

Additionally, a Florida appellate court also refused to apply *Miller* retroactively for a collateral review in *Geter v. State* (2012). The court gave Drewery Geter a mandatory life sentence for first-degree murder when he was just seventeen years old. The court in *Geter* did not go through a *Teague* analysis in reaching its decision. Instead, the court reasoned that because *Miller* has a *procedural* effect and does not determine guilt, and because the old rule has been strongly relied upon by Florida courts for a long time, a retroactive application of *Miller* would “destroy the stability of the law” and should not be applied retroactively.

Additional application questions involve how state legislatures will respond to *Miller*. For example, Pennsylvania law provided two possible punishments for first-degree murder: execution or life in prison. Conviction for second-degree murder
required a life sentence. Since juveniles were ineligible for the death penalty after Roper, mandatory life sentences were the only alternative. The General Assembly approved a bill, signed into law by Governor Tom Corbett on October 25, 2012, establishing new mandatory minimum sentences. Juveniles 14 years old or younger would serve a minimum of 25 years for a first-degree murder conviction and a minimum of 20 years for a second-degree murder conviction. Defendants from 15 to 17 years of age would face minimum sentences of 35 or 25 years respectively. Critics maintained that these severe, mandatory minimum sentences ignore the spirit of Miller. Retiring State Senator Mary Jo White said, “Judges need discretion. We have now tied their hands.”

Conclusions

Standards of decency regarding juvenile sentencing evolved relatively quickly from 1988 through 2012. At first, capital offenders who were 16 or 17 years of age when they committed their crimes could be sentenced to death. Three landmark decisions followed. First, in 2005 (Roper), the Court recognized a bright, categorical line in holding that capital offenders who were less than 18 years of age when they committed their crimes could not be sentenced to death. Second, what about life sentences without the possibility of parole for juvenile offenders? What about sentencing such offenders to die … in prison? In 2010 (Graham), the Court found that juvenile non-homicide offenders could not be sentenced to life without parole. Third, what about juvenile offenders who committed homicides? In 2012 (Miller), a five-to-four majority of the Court concluded that mandatory life-without-parole sentences for juvenile homicide offenders are constitutionally proscribed cruel and unusual punishment. The Court continues to confront evolving standards of decency as it seeks a national consensus on the meaning of the Eighth Amendment in contemporary times. And as the Court discerns and articulates these evolving standards, lower courts struggle to address the “devilish details” of applying these holdings to specific cases.

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Kennedy v. Louisiana (554 U.S. 407, 2008)
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State v. Simmons, 99 So. 3d 28 (La. 2012)
Craig v. Cain, 2013 WL 69128 No. 12-30035 (5th Cir. Jan. 4, 2013)

See also:
Death Penalty Information Center web site http://www.deathpenaltyinfo.org
Clark County Prosecuting Attorney web site on the Death Penalty http://www.clarkprosecutor.org

Notes


Fundamental Approaches in Teaching Macroeconomics to International Political Economy (IPE) Students

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ABSTRACT
Although Introductory Macroeconomics and Microeconomics are pre-requisites for the course International Political Economy (IPE), the author’s five year experience teaching IPE courses to students majoring in International Studies indicate that they show an insufficient background in macroeconomics. This paper proposes the creation of an introductory IPE course with a dynamic approach inter-relating economic indicators with political and social ones in national and international contexts. This paper intends to prove two assumptions: hypothesis # 1 is that the course IPE for students majoring in International Studies requires a pre-requisite in Introductory IPE which includes macroeconomic concepts, and that, while the Introductory Macroeconomics course should be kept as a pre-requisite, the Introductory Microeconomics course can be excluded from the curriculum because IPE basically relates to macroeconomic issues in the international arena; hypothesis # 2 is that the Introductory IPE course should interrelate economic, political, and social indicators within a holistic approach using domestic and international contexts.

1. Introduction
This paper proposes a dynamic approach to inter-relating economic indicators with political and social ones in national and international contexts in teaching macroeconomics to IPE students. The “ceteris paribus” is herein reviewed. As its name implies, international political economy is a field that sits on the cusp of international economics and international politics. The course is structured around a discussion of “globalization” and the consequences of its implementation to the world economy as viewed from different standpoints.

I have taught INT-205 (International Political Economy at the undergraduate level) on thirteen occasions, and INT-405 (International Political Economy at the graduate level) on five occasions. The first class in each course includes a quiz about elementary macroeconomics, whose results have shown that students’ background in macroeconomics is not satisfactory, despite the fact that both ECO-105 (Microeconomics) and ECO-106 (Macroeconomics) are pre-requisites to International Political Economy. Along the course I have had to emphasize basic economic concepts that were supposed to be known. Some of the weak points that students have shown so far are that: (a) they studied the different chapters of the macroeconomics and microeconomics textbooks without inter-relating their main components; (b) the “caeteris paribus” assumption which is necessary for understanding each concept separately becomes an obstacle if it is not relaxed when studying the economy as a whole and the inter-relation among its components; (c) they are used to studying economics in a memorizing way without getting deeper into each of the components (for example free trade chapters do not generally contemplate its relation to unemployment and to the general situation of the economy); (d) they are not used to attempting essay-type questions in their exams, but rather used to quizzes, short-answer questions or calculations based on memorized formulae; (e) students find it hard to understand real economic problems at the national or international arenas since political or social issues are not usually linked to the teaching of economics.

An example of the lack of preparation in macroeconomics is that Chapter VI of the current IPE main textbook (Cohn, 2011) becomes harder to understand because it requires knowledge of the inter-relation among external and internal measures to reduce the balance of payments deficits, as well as critical thinking in understanding the different currency regimes.
This paper intends to prove two assumptions: hypothesis # 1 is that the course IPE for students majoring in International Studies requires a pre-requisite in Introductory IPE which includes macroeconomic concepts, and that, while the Introductory Macroeconomics course should be kept as a pre-requisite, the Introductory Microeconomics course can be excluded from the curriculum because IPE basically relates to macroeconomic issues in the international arena; hypothesis # 2 is that the Introductory IPE course should interrelate economic, political, and social indicators within a holistic approach using domestic and international contexts.

The literature review section of this paper discusses textbooks conducted by other scholars on the way to teach macroeconomics in general as well as Introductory IPE. This is followed by a section on methodology describing the hypotheses in connection with teaching Macroeconomics as a pre-requisite for IPE and the way to analyze the interrelation of the economic, political, and social indicators. The findings section will prove the two hypotheses on the basis of the analysis of data about assessment quizzes and surveys, as well as the author’s teaching experience in Introductory Macro and Microeconomics and IPE from 2000 to 2013. The paper ends with the conclusions.

2. Literature Review

From the late 1990’s until 2009 I have been teaching introductory macro and microeconomics using several editions of McConnell & Brue, *Economics* textbook, starting with (McConnell, Brue, 1996). In the subsequent editions, the authors have been constantly adding chapters, upgrading data, introducing online technology, and creating a very solid treatment of pedagogically well explained economics. According to the preface of the 19th edition, “nearly one out of four U.S. students in principles courses used the 18th edition of *Economics*.” It falls by itself that this textbook plays an important role in the learning of economics in the largest economy of the world.

McConnell, Brue, Flynn (2012) follow the general focus of its preceding editions in the sense that each chapter basically refers to one specific topic (for example fiscal policy) which is explained theoretically and with some examples with reference to other chapters (like the business cycle), but without a deep connection among other topics inside a country, and even less in the international arena. This inter-relation in the real world (for example between fiscal policy, unemployment, and inflation) is left to students in research papers or in their professional work. The assumption “caeteris paribus” is systematically used in the explanation of different topics.

Morales-Pita (2003) analyzed the treatment of contractionary fiscal policy in eight textbooks about macroeconomics, and in all of them the topic was related to inflation, but not to unemployment, and all of them assumed that if demand went down, then the price level also did, which contradicts economic reality. Later on Flynn McConnell, Brue, Flynn (2012) introduced the concept of sticky prices, but again without explicitly referring to unemployment.

In 2009 this author started to teach International Political Economy, which represents a milestone in his pedagogical and scholarly career because from that moment on he could relate the economic indicators not only among them, but also domestically and internationally, politically, and socially. So, the “caeteris paribus” assumption was replaced by a dynamic holistic analysis of “cause” and “effect” of policies among countries, as well as by a sequence of unintended consequences in time. Without the background in economics it is impossible to deeply understand the political and
social changes taking place simultaneously in different countries as a result of the implementation of a given economic policy. Reciprocally, having perceived the political and social effects domestically and internationally, the economic significance of the policy was understood in a more complete way. In other words, the knowledge of economics enables the better understanding of political and social issues internally and externally, while the knowledge of political and social consequences of the implementation of economic policies paves the way to a deeper understanding of economic indicators.

For example, the implementation of the Marshall Plan was economically, and politically convenient for the US at the end of the World War II in 1944 because the recovery of Western Europe and Japan was necessary for the US economy; but the resulting recovery of the US allies harmed the US balance of trade as of 1971, and led to unintended consequences around the world in the following two decades as far as inflation, unemployment, wars, and recessions were concerned.

Having come to the conclusion that textbooks in introductory macroeconomics consulted by this author do not generally inter-relate its indicators across different chapters inside or outside a country; and that economic indicators are not inter-related with political and/or social issues, it was then deemed necessary to analyze some textbooks in international political economy as far as dealing with economic indicators in explaining political and social issues.

Watson (2005) focuses on different definitions or trends in Political Economy (PE). The relationship between economic, political, and social issues is recognized and talked about, but the specific indicators of the three scientific directions are not mentioned. There is no connection to the most important economic events in the world. The student who reads and studies this book will not be able to understand a newspaper article about the collapse of the EU, or the hegemonic character of the US economy, the international institutions, or international indicators.

For example chapter I – Approaches to IPE: beyond states and markets - deals with the different theoretical perspectives in IPE, but without the use of a single economic parameter or indicator. Chapter II – Historicizing Rationality Assumptions – focuses on IPE in the History of Economic Thought different schools of thought analyzing the relationship between the individual and society. No mention to a single economic indicator. Chapter IV - Moral Propriety within PE: The work of Adam Smith – mentions some economic parameters as price, cost of production, and producer, but do not relate explicitly them to political or social problems.

IPE is simply the extension of international relation debates to economic issues. The roots of PE can be found in moral philosophy. Watson relates political economy with social issues in the sense to go beyond the states and the markets approach. The purpose of this textbook was not to indicate which economic indicators should take place in the interaction between political and social issues.

Sackrey et al (2010) states that Political economy is different as interrelated with economic, social, and political issues. Political economy was identified with mainstream economy. They trace a mythical separation of the mainstream economics between economics and political power.

It studies renowned authors such as Adam Smith, Karl Marx, Veblen, Keynes, Galbraith, Swedish Social Democracy. It is interesting to note that they describe the modern welfare state in Sweden, which represents a society where the public understanding of capitalism, has been influenced more by ideas from political economy than by those from the economic mainstream.
In this essay, the authors criticize “mainstream economists” referring mostly – but not exclusively to economic models that (1) are narrowly conceived, (2) are quantitative and expressed in complicated mathematical terms, and (3) depend upon certain restrictive assumptions about how people behave, always have behaved, and always will behave. The authors recognize that there are mainstream economists who move beyond the strict confines of models and assumptions to examine institutional aspects of the economy. And many empirically investigate people’s actual behavior, instead of assuming that they all behave in the same, predictable way.

The essay does not refer to current world economic, political, and social issues, not even to globalization and its consequences on the world economy.

Balaam et al (2013) contains a current historical approach to the main IPE problems, but there is no mention to macroeconomic indicators, which are assumed to be known.

It uses an analytical approach synthesizing methods and insights derived from economics, political science, and sociology as conditioned by an understanding of history and philosophy, as well as interrelationships of the state, market, and society in different nations.

It centers and profoundly shapes three interrelated global developments: the Arab Spring, The European sovereign debt, and the Occupy Wall Street movement. They are a reaction to corrupt government and growing inequality.

The first chapter of the text deals with the fundamental nature of IPE and some analytical issues related to its multidimensional character. Chapters 2 through 4 are the core chapters of the text that explore the history and policies associated with the three dominant IPE perspectives, economic liberalism, mercantilism, and structuralism. These theoretical tools are useful in understanding any political, economic, and social issues in the global economy of the past as well as the present. Chapter 5 develops two alternative IPE perspectives – constructivism and feminism – that derive, in part from the three main outlooks under study.

The authors refer to important IPE issues such as globalization in inter-relation with trade, growth and income inequality, the combination of national security and democracy, the influence of social groups on markets, the rise of the emerging economies, the relationship between financial crises and market regulation, the power of transnational corporation and markets in fighting against illegal markets. The authors assume that the reader knows macroeconomic parameters, which are not explained or inter-related in the textbook.

For students majoring in International Studies, and consequently taking International Political Economy, it is necessary to receive the knowledge of economics under a holistic approach. The conventional way to teach economics needs to be modified or complemented to make it more accessible and understandable for this type of students.

The pedagogic and scholarly contribution of this paper is to create the foundation and main focus of an Introductory International Political Economy book dealing with macroeconomics for students majoring in international studies, as a pre-requisite for the IPE course. The following section is dedicated to the methodology used to test the hypotheses of this paper.

3. Methodology

This paper will analyze the inter-relationship between the teaching of Introductory Macroeconomics and IPE using two hypotheses.
Hypothesis # 1 argues that the course IPE for students majoring in International Studies requires a pre-requisite in Introductory IPE keeping the Introduction to Macroeconomics course as a pre-requisite and excluding the Introduction to Microeconomics course. This argument stems from the lack of background in macroeconomics shown by these students when they start receiving IPE. The hypothesis will be proven, firstly, through an assessment of the quizzes about elementary macroeconomics offered to our students the first class session in INT-205, IPE; and secondly, through a survey carried out to the best section of students the author has had during the four-year experience in teaching the course.

The traditional Introduction to Macroeconomics course should be complemented with a holistic approach inter-relating economic indicators with political and social parameters inside a country and among countries. This new focus would emphasize critical thinking versus memorization, and replace short answers and quizzes with essay-type questions in the evaluation system. The Introduction to Microeconomics can be removed as a pre-requisite given the fact that IPE issues are basically related to macroeconomic phenomena. The use of graphs and mathematical formulae inter-relating microeconomic issues - that have considerable importance for students majoring in economics, finance, business, or accounting - are not frequently used in international relations. The different market structures explained in Introductory Microeconomics can be understood by explaining IPE concepts like contagion as a result of oligopolistic behavior of several governments without introducing the oligopolistic or monopolistic competitive figures. The concepts of positive or negative externality and minimum wage discussions, among other topics, can also be understood without the use of figures.

Hypothesis # 2 formulates that the classical way of teaching Introductory Macroeconomics (the lack of inter-relation of economic indicators among different chapters, or of the political and social impact of economic policies) does not foster the necessary critical thinking requirements for understanding IPE. IPE necessarily requires the understanding of dynamic relations among nations, and therefore these types of analyses include the simultaneous interaction of different factors, which is normally substituted in economics textbooks by the “caeteris paribus” assumption. This hypothesis is proved through the empirical results obtained by this author in teaching not only INT-205, INT-364 (Advanced IPE – European financial crisis) INT-405, but also a very interesting experience derived from teaching IPE to graduate students last fall quarter (INT-402) who had no exposure to macroeconomics in the classical way.

This paper’s contribution to teaching IPE relates to a new way to make macroeconomics more understandable to students majoring in International Studies both in undergraduate and graduate courses. The innovation has to do with the necessary interconnection of economic, political, and social variables analyzing domestic and international issue in the IPE context. Appendix 1 contains the students’ evaluations in INT-205 and INT-402 during the fall 2013 quarter that clearly show that the aforementioned innovation has been fully attained.

4. Findings
Students’ lack of preparation in macroeconomics was perceived by me the first time that I taught IPE using Cohn (2009). In the first class I assign a quiz about elementary macroeconomics which contains the basic knowledge required for IPE. It does not contain any graph or any calculation. Each question refers to theoretical
aspects which require to be known. The following table lists the results of the quizzes since the fall 2012 quarter:

(See Table 1)

During the academic year 2012-2013 the background in macroeconomics shown in the macroeconomics quiz assigned to my INT-205 students is very low because the percentage of students passing the exam fluctuates between 10% and 38% in the range 70 – 100, and between 38% and 53% in the range 60 – 100. Considering the fact that the passing rate of the sections has been very good (84% for the fall 2012 quarter, 85% for the winter 2013 quarter, and 90% for the spring 2013 quarter), I have reasons to believe that the low passing scores in the macroeconomics quiz do not reflect poor general academic performance in the students. As a matter of fact, the few students who failed the course in the three quarters in all but one case had serious problems of attendance.

In spring 2013, I administered a second, much harder, quiz about macroeconomics the last day of classes and the passing rates increased from 20% to 64% in the range 70 – 100 and from 35% to 87% in the range 60 – 100. Analyzing each student separately in all cases every student increased considerably his/her score in the first quiz, which was less hard.

In the course about Europe similar results were obtained before in the percentage of passing went from 14% to 48% in the range 70 – 100, and from 47% to 67% in the range 60- 100. An interesting note about these results is that these students come from International Studies, Economics and Political Science.

I also introduced the quiz about macroeconomics in the graduate course (INT-402), where most students had never taken macroeconomics and the results were poor in the quiz done the first day of classes; but, nonetheless, they had an exemplary attendance not only to classes but also to extra-sessions about their research papers, good academic results in the mid-term and final exams, and the research papers. So, the initial lack of macroeconomics background was complemented by an extraordinarily intense and perseverant effort (both from students and faculty) to attain good academic results. (Appendix # 1 contains part of their students evaluations open ended questions).

The results of the quizzes were similar going from 36% passing rate in the first attempt to a 55% in the second attempt in the fall 2013 quarter, and also in the first attempt for winter 2014 students – where the passing rate was 27%.

In the fall 2013 quarter, I had the best INT-205 section ever, with perfect attendance in the 60 % of the class sessions, 100% participation in the two seminars, 100% passing and 66% students with “A” grades. The students inspired me to create a survey about their opinion as to which would be the components of a syllabus for a course preceding INT-205. All students filled out the survey. They were encouraged to do so by giving 5 extra points to be added at the total score of the course. The results of the survey are listed below:

List of topics
A) Economic indicators and stabilization instruments in relation to the US economy.
B) Economic indicators and stabilization instruments in relation to different countries’ economies (for example the effect of free trade in Mexico in relation to unemployment in Mexico and the US)
C) The use of graphs.
D) Economic issues interrelated with political ones.
E) Economic issues interrelated with social ones.
F) Economic issues interrelated with political and social ones.

(See Table 2)

The considered to be most important issue to be included in the syllabus was “economic issues interrelated with political and social ones.” Only one student thought this issue to be not important.

The second most important issue to be included in the syllabus was “economic indicators and stabilization instruments in relation to different countries’ economies. The majority of students considered to be very important the inter-relation among economic, political, and social issues, as well as the inter-relation of indicators and stabilization instruments among different countries. Consequently, a holistic approach is highly needed as an antecedent to International Political Economy.

The less important topic to be included in the syllabus was “graphs,” which absorbs a considerable amount of time in the classes of Introductory Macroeconomics and especially Microeconomics. Only one student thought this topic to be very important; and three students, as important. So, according to this survey, graphs, which are so important for majors in economics or business, are not indispensable for majors in international studies.

Recommendations about improving the syllabus, mentioned by some students were the following: 1) To reduce the number of case-studies; 2) To allocate “Growth versus social justice” before the political indicators; 3) To reduce emphasis on political indicators because they are included in other INT courses; 4) To allow more time for (Important parameters in macroeconomics, including supply and demand).

The results showed that students were able to inter-relate different topics in IPE. They proved to have a holistic approach to the course INT-205. I felt compensated by their analyses and recommendations.

According to this author’s experience in teaching INT-205, as well as the results of the macroeconomic quizzes, and the survey about the components of a course as a pre-requisite to INT-205, the course about Introductory Microeconomics (ECO-105) can be removed as a pre-requisite, while the current Introductory Macroeconomics can be complemented by a course about Introductory International Political Economy, which should include the components listed in the following table:

(See Table 3)

The creation of the Introductory International Political Economy in the undergraduate curriculum for International Studies majors as a pre-requisite for INT-205 was approved at the International Studies Department meeting on March 7, 2014.

Conclusions

This paper has proven its two hypotheses, that is to say, hypothesis # 1 that the course IPE for students majoring in International Studies requires a pre-requisite in Introductory IPE which includes macroeconomic concepts and analyses complementing the Introduction to Macroeconomics course and removing the Introduction to Microeconomics course as a pre-requisite; and hypothesis # 2 is that the Introductory IPE course should contain interrelation among economic, political and social indicators within a holistic approach using domestic and international contexts.

The first hypothesis was proven through an assessment of the macroeconomics background that the students had before taking the IPE course (INT-205, INT-364, and INT-402) as well as through a survey carried out to the best section of INT-205 students. The Introduction to Microeconomics can be removed as a pre-requisite given the fact that IPE issues are basically related to macroeconomic phenomena.
The second hypothesis was proven through the empirical results obtained by this author in teaching not only INT-205, INT-364 (Advanced IPE – European financial crisis) and INT-405, but also a very interesting experience derived from teaching IPE to graduate students in the fall quarter (INT-402) who had no exposure to macroeconomics in the classical way. With the collaboration of students taking INT-205 in the fall quarter, the paper developed the subject matter and main content of the components new course about Introductory IPE, with inclusion of elementary macroeconomics with a new holistic interdisciplinary approach. Through proving the two hypotheses this paper is contributing to a new way to make macroeconomics more understandable to students majoring in International Studies both in undergraduate and graduate courses. The pedagogic and scholarly innovation has to do with the necessary interconnection of economic, political and social variables analyzing domestic and international issue in the IPE context. Appendix 1 contains the students’ evaluations in INT-205 and INT-402 during the fall 2013 quarter, which clearly show that the aforementioned innovation has been fully attained.

APPENDIX # 1 - STUDENT EVALUATIONS  (INT-205)

Question: What research techniques, theoretical models, writing skills, or other tools did you acquire through this course?

- This class is largely application based; we studied theories and economic practices that have failed or succeeded, and used this information to discuss the GPE of today.
- I acquired very strong tools as far as studying, researching concepts I didn't understand, and thinking outside the box with concepts that I can now apply to the IPE.
- I learned how to pin point the important points within a reading. I learn how link theoretical models and perspectives with the practical daily economic strategies of different countries.
- The class really helped me to synthesize information. Previous economic classes have been more about memorization but this was about applying concepts and thinking for myself.
- I acquired how to analyze and critically think about important economic issues on a macro scale that can be influenced through political issues as well. I also had learned how to effectively understand a graph in relation to historical issues that has been covered in class, allowing me to reason why a graph behaves in the way that it does.
- I learned how to analyze the international economy from a variety of perspectives.
- A great understanding of the international political economy, which I was really clueless about before...besides having taken micro and macro economics.
- This course taught me mostly economic terminology that is needed for a basis in economic research/ analysis.

Question: Please cite one example of the relationship between the socio-politico-economic situation of a country and its foreign trade partners.

- The EU (trade partners of 26 countries in Europe) and their socio-politico-economic situation where they feel like they will benefit more from having free trade and the same currency, making it easier to trade.
The relationship between the socio-political-economic situation of a country and its foreign trade partners will depend on the economic situation of the country at that time. The country must take into consideration how the inclusion of their foreign trade partners into their economy will affect the domestic producers and alter social dexterity.

For example, when the US went into a recession, we didn't import as much. Because we weren't importing that means that other countries weren't exporting to us. This caused a global recession and a drop in the global GDP.

If one country is in recession, its consumption goes down. This means that this country's trade partners are affected. They will need to decrease their exports to that country because if its low demand for imports. This means that their balance of trade will lean more towards a deficit.

With Russia, Putin in his later years spent way to much money on the citizens creating a deficit in the government's budget. This helps the citizens, only until the country slips into a recession where investment drops and economy slows down. Politically, Putin wants to keep his power, however, he needs to balance government spending without leading to social unrest through heavy taxation or spending cuts.

Growth is needed and without it many problems arise in both sides.

If a country is unstable politically and socially, protectionist policies may be enacted in order to protect themselves from a potentially unstable global economy.

One situation we learned was that of Latin America where it suffered from high debt and wasn't able to repay it because their exports were valued low in the international economy.

The US and IMF interaction with Russia during the 1990s transitioning from a communist economy to a market economy. It affected poverty within society, disabled the Russian economy, and Russia lost trust with the US politically. Also the lack of rule of law can destroy the trust of the people in a government as happened in Russia.

Question: Do you understand the connection between economics, politics and social issues? Please, briefly explain why.

Yes-- These three components are very intertwined; when something happens to one (for example, a new president is elected), the other two see changes because of it people believe in the government.

Yes, the connection between economics, politics, and social issues is very important. Social issues can affect the economy and politics of a country and vice versa. For example, if the people of a country are not happy due to high unemployment, inflation, and a recession then that will have adverse consequences to the political environment of that country.

Yes. If you look at issues of inequality you can clearly see how these issues penetrate economics, politics and social issues. There is social unrest and uprising surrounding this distribution, such as the Occupy movement. Investors don't want to invest in unstable economies and if the Gini coefficient is growing, this means the market of consumers may be shrinking.

Yes, they are all interrelated. Politics: how to handle an economic dilemma, whether a government should be big or small. Social: how big or small the government's role is in an economy influences the amount of aid people can
expect when economic recession strikes, economic problems may lead to riots, etc.

- Yes, an economy is in need of government spending to help get it out of a recession as private investment dwindles for fear of risking too much. Socially, the government could apply austerity measures that cause civil uprising in order to pay off debt or balance budgets. Politically, there can be a gridlock in the country during a recession since many interests are in conflict with each other.

- I understand the relationship a bit after our class. Growth is an important element in all of these areas since with it the country would be able to move forward, it also decreases inequality. The government must intervene in the economy if it is doing bad, once this happens then the private investors will be more willing to invest. The growing economy will boost social programs for the public if only the congress can agree on programs. They are all interconnected.

- Yes in that if government is corrupt or in a political gridlock they will be unable to pass measures that are needed to help the economy which will in turn negatively affect society and the "Social Contract" they have between them.

- Yes, a strong economy can only be achieved by a likewise strong government. A government helps to continue foster growth by providing social services such as unemployment compensation.

- Yes, Politicians pick what to do with the economy, the economy then directly affects the people in countries and the people have issues such as poverty.

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**Question:** Please cite one example of the relationship between the socio-politico-economic situation of a country and its foreign trade partners.

- A country may form a trade agreement with another country to not have tariffs on goods imported from that country. They could go so far as to have free movement of labor, the same currency, and the same tariffs on other imports from countries.

- The relationship between Thailand in the United States during the East Asia Crisis of 1997....Thailand depended so much on the US, that they pegged the Bhat to the Dollar, and when investors pulled out of Thailand, there were massive consequences socially and politically.

- Depending on what each country is experiencing domestically, international economics is affected if other countries have trade relations with that same country. For example, the creation of the IMF was established in order for member countries to help other countries out of debt that may have been caused due to some political issues the country is struggling through.

- Greece, for example, is going through a very devastating debt crisis. The economy is doing poorly, the politics are some of the most corrupt in Europe and socially, the citizens are unemployed and are emigrating to other countries. Greece imports more than it exports so there is a deficit and Greece is considered to be a net borrower rather than a net lender. The confidence in Greece has fallen so other countries do not feel comfortable trading with the country. With less jobs in the market economy they are producing less as a country, as well.

- Post-market economy China and its interactions within the global market.

- Export led countries, specifically in natural resources and commodities, are often reliant on the development of other countries. Brazil is a good example of a country that possess a lot of these types of resources and its growth is reliant on
countries like China. When China’s manufacturing centers are booming, then Brazil is able to export more and its economy will grow.

- Corruption leads to deterred economic reforms and poor investment choices (abroad and foreign). When foreign firms notice this, they are far unlikelier to invest in that country.

**Question:** Do you love economics after taking this course? Please briefly explain why.

- I realize how important and interesting it is, but it is still confusing.
- Yes! Before this class, I was confused about economics. I never thought I liked the subject, but now, I am really interested in IPE and find myself wanting to read news, articles about current events in IPE. It is very important and very fascinating.
- Yes. I like economics a lot after taking this course because it is amazing to see how nations are affected by each other because of the way economic systems function and how each economy is different from the other.
- I have a respect for economics more so now than I did before taking this course. I did not know anything about economics before this class and this really opened my eyes to see how global economics really factors into everything currently happening. Many things make a lot more sense now that I understand how everything is related.
- I like it A LOT more than I did before September.
- I definitely like economics more than I thought that I would. It connects to so many different areas of society/politics and has enriched my views and ideas.
- I wouldn't use the word love, but I do have a new found respect for it. I've taken plenty socio-political classes, but one thing that was always missing from my undergrad was the economic component which ties everything together. I feel comfortable taking another economics class

**References**


Table # 1 - Statistical results of the survey about students' backgrounds in introductory macroeconomics

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Table # 2 - Ratios of answers.
A total of 22 students participated in the survey (100%)

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Corporate Style Education Reform and the Latino Community

Steven Pray (Student)
Central Washington University
Abstract

Education reform has taken on a new meaning to the Latino community in the United States. Some of the most salient reforms to the Latino community such as standardized testing, proliferation of charter schools, advancing competition, and managing schools in a top-down approach will all be examined in detail. Numerous studies such as one published by Stanford University will be used to quantify data pertaining to the issues. This paper will also include the perspectives of educational historians such as Diana Ravitch. A comparative analysis of reforms in the United States and Finland will also be used to suggest the most effective ways of reforming America’s education system. Issues such as poverty and English language barriers that pose a threat to Latino’s at a disproportionately high rate will also be observed.

One of the elements of American exceptionalism is comprised of our nations deeply rooted history in public education. In fact, the origins of public education in America can be traced back to the colonial period (Sen, 2014). Educational opportunity was one of the elements that set America apart from Europe; in the United States every resident was given the opportunity to attend public school and earn a baseline education. On the contrary, education was something that only the most privileged citizens were capable of obtaining in European countries. Education in the United States has never been static and has undergone various changes at different points in time. However, changes took place on a more local scale, as education was something that was almost entirely under the jurisdiction of individual states. The United States Department of Education wasn’t in existence until the early 1980s (Sen, 2014). Over the past three decades, education reform has taken on a new meaning, especially to the Latino community, who now make up about 21 percent of the students in the United States (Gandara). I would consider many of the harmful modern reforms to be corporate oriented.

Corporate style education reform gained traction during the Reagan administration. President Reagan appointed the National Commission of Excellence in Education to publish a report about the state of education in America (“Socialist Alternative”). The report titled Nation at Risk opened the floodgates towards reform; before long the neoliberal camp and their allies in the White House aimed to take advantage of “failing schools.” Pro-business and pro-privatization groups and individuals began to pitch ideas about how to solve the education “crisis” in America. Many of the corporate style reforms today include: standardized testing, proliferation of charter schools, advocating competition amongst students and teachers, and transforming schools into being run in a more top down approach. The list is not limited to these reforms but they will be the ones that I will focus on. There is sufficient data to conclude that these types of reforms are disproportionately harmful towards the Latino community along with other minority groups.

Corporate style education reform gained one of its most significant victories upon the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. President George W. Bush championed this reform that was eventually passed with bipartisan support in congress. No Child Left Behind became the first real propagation of standardized testing. It is no secret that Latino students consistently perform worse than their white counterparts on these types of tests. “In 2009, at the national level, the achievement gap between
Hispanic and White students at grade 4 and 8 in mathematics and reading was between 21 and 26 points on the National Assessment of Educational Progress scale (Hemphill, Cadelle, & Vanneman, 2011)." The NAEP compiles and analyzes data from every state given the results from their No Child Left Behind mandated tests. While there is no argument as to what the numbers show, there is disparity as to why the numbers are so lopsided against Latino students. Teachers groups and civil rights groups have criticized the tests as being flawed for over a decade. One major issue that is not accounted for when students are testing is their English language skills. Latino students are much more likely to face challenges understanding what is being asked of them then students who speak English as their first language. In fact, "high-stakes testing causes additional damage to the many students of color who are English language learners. The tests are often inaccurate for ELLs, leading to misplacement or retention. ELLs are, alongside students with disabilities, those least likely to pass graduation tests ("Fair Test")." Unfortunately, a one-size fits all approach to testing will not accurately measure a student's intellectual abilities. The National Center for Fair & Open Testing identified numerous problems with high-stakes testing from early childhood through college entrance. One of the issues they identify is that, "Schools at times suspend, expel, 'counsel out' or otherwise remove students with low scores in order to boost school results and escape test-based sanctions mandated by the federal government's 'No Child Left Behind' law, at great cost to the youth and ultimately society ("Fair Test")." Due to the stringent sanctions that No Child Left Behind demands from failing schools there is now an incentive for trying to phase out failing students, most commonly Latinos, from school. This causes a domino effect that fate many Latinos to low paying, non-managerial job positions in the work force. The Annie E. Casey Foundation found the gap between the test scores of white and Latino students has grown over 30 percent since the 1960s. One of the explanations given for this phenomenon is that, "students with grandparents who have graduated from college always score higher, suggesting that the tests unfairly penalize students who are the first in their family to attend college (Rooks, 2012)." This is proof that there is a snowball effect negatively impacting the Latino community when educational policies are geared towards non-minority students. The damages of high-stakes testing can last generations when those tests are used as a tool to prescribe students educational futures. Not only are standardized tests slanted against minority students but also they are flawed in general when it comes to measuring the amplitude of a student's capabilities. "Standardized tests do not judge a student’s complex thinking skills or the practical application of knowledge. They do not encourage creativity, but instead reward memorization and test-taking strategies (Bullock, 2013)." In fact, these tests often only measure subjects such as math, reading, and writing. This means that subjects such as art, history, music, and physical education go largely unnoticed. Since these subjects are not tested on this also creates a curriculum gap that stunts Latino student’s creativity and critical thinking skills. The practice of standardized testing needs to be brought to a halt. A "bubble-in" the answer type test shows us nothing about a student’s intellectual capabilities. On the contrary, these tests can be used to more accurately predict a student’s zip code or the type of car that their parents drive.

Another corporate reform tactic being utilized is the transformation of traditional public schools to charter schools. Charter schools are defined as, "publicly funded elementary
or secondary schools that have been freed from some of the rules, regulations, and statuses that apply to other public schools, in exchange for some type of accountability for producing certain results, which are set forth in each charter school's charter ("National Education Association"). Essentially a charter school is run by a private organization or business but paid for with public tax dollars. Most are not unionized and some charters are run by for-profit companies. While there may be some merit behind the idea of charter schools many of the practices associated with them inadvertently or directly harm Latino students. Charter schools are often marketed as an alternative to traditional schools that have not met the needs of minority students. Advocates of charter schools say they are a way to get kids out of their failing neighborhood schools and into more successful environments. However, this is inconsistent to evidence published at Stanford University’s Center for Research on Education Outcomes. The research conducted in this study looked at test data from charter schools in 26 states and the District of Columbia. The results indicated that only 25 percent of charters outperformed traditional public schools in reading while 29 percent of charters delivered stronger results in math (Layton, 2013). On the contrary 56 percent of the charters produced no significant difference in reading and 19 percent had worse results than traditional public schools (Layton, 2013). In math, 40 percent produced no significant difference and 31 percent were significantly worse than regular public schools (Layton, 2013). While data doesn't suggest that charter school attendees are gaining any sort of significant advantage over their traditional public school counterparts there is some outcry over the opportunities of Latinos to be admitted into these schools if they so choose to attend. Many charter schools use a lottery system to determine who will be accepted. While a lottery system in and of itself doesn't advance any sort of discrimination, the process towards applying does differentiate between minority and non-minority students. Latino students are more likely to have parents at home without any English language proficiency than any other group. Without a parent capable of guiding a student through the process of applying to go to a charter school the student’s opportunity is significantly minimized. Latino students often have parents who work jobs that that don’t provide them with the flexibility to spend hours outside of work going through the process of going to a charter school. Extra hoops to attain a quality education are not in the best interest of Latino students. The proliferation of charter schools across the nation in many of the most populous cities, where Latinos are most likely to reside, mean less traditional public schools. The relationship between the proliferation of charter schools and the closing of public neighborhood schools is a cause and effect relationship. As charter school numbers have gone up in urban cities mass closing of traditional schools have taken place. While mass closures of schools are troubling in itself, the type of students being displaced is even more troubling. More often than not, the schools that are being closed are highly populated by minority students, including Latinos. It is not uncommon for the schools that are being closed in cities like Chicago, Philadelphia, Oakland, and New York to have populations upwards of 90 percent minority students. There have been demonstrations of pushback against these types of school closure policies. “Opponents describe the closures as a steep blow to a generation of minority students already struggling with social and economic instability. The school closures and their unintended consequences have sparked protests among parents, students, and advocates who say the school board targeted
minority students and low income communities (Lee, 2013).” Randi Weingarten, president of the American Federation of Teachers, spoke on the issue saying, “You have poor kids all over the country but the mass closures are disproportionately affecting children of color. Instead of fixing a school and making public schools the center of a community where parents want to send their kids, you’re hurting communities, you’re hurting schools and you are sending kids outside of their neighborhood to places that in the long run, frankly, are no better than the places they left (Lee, 2013).” She went on to further say the mass closure model is an “abdication of responsibility” by school leaders. It seems disconcerting that students who perform best in public schools, white and affluent students, are rarely never displaced from their neighborhood schools. If charter schools are not performing any better, or even in some cases worse than traditional schools, and minority students such as Latinos are being hurt by their growing presence, it may seem counterproductive that their numbers are increasing steadily every year. Most charter school reformers and business leaders credit charter schools with being a key solution within the overwhelming problem of minority students “failing” in traditional public schools. Educational scholars such as Diane Ravitch believe there is an ulterior motive to the proliferation of charter schools in America. Many of the businesses in charge of operating charter schools are run for profit. Education budgets in states across the nation total in the hundreds of billions per year, leaving many venture capitalists salivating at the opportunity to get a piece of this budget. Many charter schools are run by for-profit educational management organizations (EMOs). EMOs have developed over time as a result of the charter school movement. The Roosevelt institute highlights some of the ethical issues with allowing EMOs to run schools funded by taxpayer dollars. “There is a good reason that public schools are run by state and local governments rather than for-profit businesses. As a society, we expect government programs to be tailored to serve the needs of citizens and create common standards for the betterment of all. If we blur the line between private businesses and public schools, we may wind up diverting public funds to support a company’s bottom line rather than our shared educational goals and values (“Roosevelt Institute”).” One of the many major donors for charter school operations in the United States is Alice Walton. In fact, in 2008 the Walton foundation spent over $2 billion dollars on charter school propagation (Connelly, 2012). Alice Walton is the heir to the Walton fortune, which was amassed by her father’s chain store, Wal-Mart. In my home state of Washington she was responsible for donating over $1.1 million dollars to the pro charter school campaign during the 2012 election (Connelly, 2012). One of the reasons I refer to modern reforms as corporate style is because they are literally funded by corporations and their owners, such as billionaires Bill Gates and Alice Walton (Barkan). The connection between for-profit charter schools and the Latino population is discouraging. By allowing private businesses to profit off of charter schools they have an incentive to make sure currently operating schools are “failing.” If traditional schools are deemed as “failing” it gives venture capitalists ammunition to lobby politicians and parents into buying the idea of charter schools. Minority students such as Latinos overwhelmingly populate the schools that are targeted as “failing”. Putting an incentive into keeping disadvantaged students in “failing” schools is not good public policy for the Latino community. Shutting down neighborhood schools destabilizes communities and is not the answer that is in the best interest of Latino students.
One of the most commonly used concepts in free market economies is the idea of competition. Capitalists see competition as the best way to achieve the most desirable results. Corporate school reformers are now trying to translate competition in the markets into the classroom. Federal funding for schools across the nation is now being distributed through a competition-based program, known as Race to the Top. The three key elements of the program are simple. “Teachers will be evaluated in relation to their student’s test scores. Schools that continue to get low test scores will be closed or turned into charter schools or handed over to private management. In low-performing schools, principals will be fired, and all or half of the staff will be fired. States are encouraged to create many more privately managed charter schools (Ravitch, 2010).” Race to the top is a highly data driven program. Since federal dollars are largely handed out based on standardized test score results Latino students will likely see very limited resources headed their direction. This program doesn’t sit well with many of the nation’s leading civil rights groups. They insist that federal funding should be based on need, not competition. As many teachers have put it, “education is a right, not a race.” Injecting competition into public education isn’t just limited to how federal dollars are dispersed but also into individual classrooms. Corporate backed legislation being implemented across the nation calls for a new merit pay system for teachers. Historically teachers have been paid according to the degree they hold, with advanced degrees earning extra pay, and how many years teachers have spent in the classroom. Under a merit pay system teachers would compete for their paychecks. Teachers who have the highest test scores would be paid the most, while teachers with students who don’t perform well on tests would be docked pay. As outlined earlier every piece of data indicates that Latino students don’t do well on standardized tests. If these types of tests were used to determine teacher pay then classrooms with highly dense Latino populations would be avoided at all costs. Merit pay leaves absolutely no incentive for the most highly skilled and sought after teachers to work in a school with a disadvantaged population. Education secretary Arne Duncan has been calling upon states to create merit pay systems for the last five years. In places where merit pay has been introduced such as New York City havoc has prevailed as teacher-cheating scandals have been exposed. It is a sad day in education when teachers have to cheat in order to maintain their livelihood. Competition based reforms are not good public policy for America’s school children, especially those in already disadvantaged circumstances such as the Latino population.

A top down approach to public education is another corporate emulated style of managing education. In step with businesses and corporations many reformers want to hand over more control to someone at the top of the chain in the name of accountability. Many super-populated cities in which Latinos largely inhabit around the nation are currently undergoing this seizure of power all in the name of more easily unhinging current policy for better results. Mayoral control of public schools is the latest trend in a top down approach to education. New York City is a prime example. The New York State Legislature gave Mayor Michael Bloomberg control of the New York City public schools in 2002 (Ravitch, 2013). In return for supreme authority of the public schools in New York City Mayor Bloomberg promised results. He said that with his newly granted powers the schools in his city would see soaring test scores. While test scores were on an upward trajectory for a few years they eventually plummeted. “In 2009, 86.4% of the
state’s students were "proficient" in math, but the number in 2010 plummeted to 61%. In 2009, 77.4% were "proficient" in reading, but now it is only 53.2%. The city's pass rate in reading for grades 3-8 fell from 68.8% to 42.4%, and the proficiency rate in math sunk from an incredible 81.8% to a dismal 54% (Ravitch, 2013). The originally inflated numbers were largely due to the fact that state standards for passing had been unreasonably low; after they were slightly raised the house of cards came crashing down. Chicago public schools are another great example of mayoral control. In May of 1995 Mayor Richard M. Daley gained direct control over the public school system as a response to legislation passed by the State of Illinois legislature ("The United States Conference of Mayors"). This legislation created a corporate structure of school management, including a Chief Executive Officer position. The CEO even had the power to close schools that she deemed “chronically underperforming.” A publicly elected school board was replaced with a five member Chicago School Reform Board of Trustees that is appointed solely by the mayor. Fast forward fifteen years and current Mayor Rahm Emanuel has closed over 50 schools in his city in one year, largely populated by African-American and Latino students on the south end of the city (Lee, 2013). The movement against democratization of public schools poses a serious threat to Latino students across the nation. When public schools are handed over to mayors and their appointed committees, where is the Latino voice in the decision making process? Blocking community voice and interests in the public school systems across America does nothing but disenfranchise Latinos from institutions that they are already struggling to attain positions of power within. According to the School Superintendents Association less than two percent of superintendents are of Latino descent. This is a startling low number considering the number of Latino students reflected in classrooms today. By blocking elections of public school officials there is little hope that the Latino community will be represented in the decision making process.

While the corporate reforms taking place across America leave Latino students in a dire situation there are viable solutions that should be examined. A great starting place would be to replicate an educational experience that has proven to be successful. Finland is consistently ranked as having the most superior education system in the world. Many of the educational practices in Finland are in direct contrast to what the United States has implemented in the last few decades. Issues such as poverty, standardized testing, and curriculum all need to be addressed.

Ending high stakes testing is a great place to start in improving education for Latino students. American schools need to spend more time educating and less time ranking and sorting based on standardized tests. Standardized testing has its roots traced back to the eugenics movement when scientists were attempting to prove racial inequalities. For every minute a Latino student spends taking a test, they lose a minute of learning time. The United States needs to repeal provisions in the No Child Left Behind Act that are mandating standardized testing. The Latino population would also greatly benefit by capping the amount of hours each school year that student’s are allowed to spend taking standardized tests. There are few, if any, required standardized tests in Finland.

The privatization movement in the United States is nothing more than a distraction to the real challenges that Latino students are facing. Instead of spending public dollars on privately run enterprises, often for profit, we need to improve the
existing schools that we already have. When public neighborhood schools are closed in poor neighborhoods, Latino students lives are thrown into chaos and destabilized. Instead of demeaning “failing” schools the United States needs to double down on their investments to achieve the American ideal of equality of opportunity, regardless of your zip code. Mayor Rahm Emanuel of Chicago sends his kids to the private University of Chicago Laboratory Schools (Lee, 2013). The laboratory schools have many wrap around services that students in Chicago’s public schools are being denied. Art, music, world languages, librarians, computer labs, and physical education are all part of the curriculum in the laboratory schools. If this type of holistic education provides for a broad, deep, and rich curriculum that is good enough for the mayor’s children, then it should be good enough for all the kids living in Chicago, including disadvantaged Latino students.

Lastly, and most importantly, poverty needs to be addressed. Latino students are twice as likely than white students to be living in poverty (“American Community Survey Briefs”). There is virtually no poverty in Finland, so every student comes to school with the mental capacity to learn. Every student in Finland also has access to adequate healthcare, which cannot be said for every student in the United States. According to the organization Feeding America there are 15.9 million children living in food insecure households. Over 23 percent of Hispanic households are food insecure (“Feeding America”). These are numbers that every American should be ashamed of. Poverty is a vicious cycle and an adequate education is the best way to combat it. Latino students need to be on an equal playing field, which may require more resources that previously provided.

The state of education for Latino students is in a very disheartening position. The deck is currently stacked against these students and their communities. Civil rights activist and attorney Lani Guinier says three questions need to be asked whenever a system of discrimination has been instituted. First off, “who are the winners and the losers (“Gettysburg College”)?” Winners and losers have been established in the American education system now more than ever, with Latinos often on the losing end. Every student in America is given a report either labeling them as “passing” or “failing.” The second question she poses is, “who is making the rules to the game (“Gettysburg College”)?” There is virtually no Latino presence when it comes to decision-making mechanisms within the educational system of America. Latinos lack the resources and sheer numbers to be involved with crafting the policies that are salient to their community. And lastly Dr. Guinier asks, “What are the stories that the winners tell the losers to keep them playing the game (“Gettysburg College”)?” All over America corporations and businesses have paid millions of dollars to get legislatures to facilitate the execution of charter schools across this nation. As stated earlier, the privatization of schools is almost always pitched as helping disadvantaged students gain access to the types of schools that they deserve. It is time to tell American billionaires that Latino students are not for sale. By answering Dr. Guinier’s questions it is evident that the current corporate reforms taking place in America today are institutionalizing Latino failure for generations to come. It is time for America to give every American, including Latinos, the opportunity to achieve the American dream, starting with an adequate education.
References


Revolutionaries Off The Street -
Sequel Number Six: The 1990’s

Lem Londos Railsback
Independent Scholar
Like two 800-pound gorillas, Ronald Reagan and his good friend in England Margaret Thatcher dominated the Western political scene during the 1980’s. When his vice-president and two of the vice-president’s sons got involved in the Sharpstown Savings and Loan scandal—all which, ultimately, cost the American taxpayers over one trillion dollars—Reagan suppressed the Sharpstown story until the votes were in and he was sure that his vice-president had won the presidency. Bush’s powerful and cutesy “Read my lips: NO NEW TAXES!” promise that he made to the 1988 Republican National Convention reverberated throughout his presidency. When he did raise taxes in 1990, however, and then signed the Audio Home Recording Act in 1991—the first government-imposed royalties on recording devices and media, the general public determined that he was untrustworthy. As Saddam Hussein invaded Kuwait, Bush ordered Operation Desert Shield to drive the aggressor back to Iraq. However, it soon became obvious that Operation Desert Shield had not seriously changed Saddam Hussein’s attitude or behavior: he was still violating the United Nations Security Council’s Resolution 688. And he was most certainly not fully cooperating with inspectors who were searching for weapons of mass destruction. Hussein continued his mistreatment of Iraqi citizens, especially the Kurds and the Shiites. Bush ordered Operation Desert Storm to upgrade the conflict and to aim it directly at Hussein. Later, in 1992, Pat Buchanan used the “Read my lips…” extensively and effectively to bludgeon Bush in the Republican presidential primary, and that televised bludgeoning affected the general public. Consequently, although the public generally applauded Bush’s Operation Desert Shield and Operation Desert Storm against Iraq and Bush’s “dramatic increase in U.S. troops and resources in the Persian Gulf,” they voted him out of the presidency after only one term.

As Clinton gained the presidency, he was immediately challenged by middle-Eastern extremists who bombed the World Trade Center only thirty-six days after he had taken his oath. The culprits were apprehended, prosecuted, and jailed. Although “The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) formally ceased to exist on 26 December 1991,” the ensuing struggles of the new republics to forge their new national identities and destinies posed many new challenges throughout the Clinton administration. When Clinton’s predecessor George Bush visited Kuwait in April 1993, the Iraqi IIS attempted an assassination of Bush. In retaliation, Clinton “ordered a cruise missile attack on the Iraq Intelligence Service’s principal command center and control complex.” Also in 1993, Clinton hosted a meeting of Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) Yasser Arafat and Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin that led, in September, to a declaration of peace known as the Oslo Accords. However, Arafat reneged on his word and refused to sign the drawn-up agreement. As related by Clinton, Arafat telephoned Clinton three days before Clinton was to leave office. “You are a great man,” Arafat said. Clinton replied, ‘The hell I am. I’m a colossal failure, and you made me one.”

New problems appeared in Africa. In 1994, an elite group known as the akazu began a genocide in Rwanda.

During the approximate 100-day period from April 7, 1994 to mid-July, an estimated 500,000—1,000,000 Rwandans were killed, constituting as much as 20% of the country’s total population and 70% of The Tutsi then living in Rwanda...Perpetrators came from the ranks of the Rwandan army, the National
Police..., government-backed militias including the *Interahamwe* and *Impuzamugambi*, and the Hutu civilian population. Clinton air-dropped food and supplies for the refugees of the Hutu and Tutsi genocide. After he discovered that those foodstuffs and supplies intended for the refugees were not always reaching their intended destinations, he sent non-combatants in July to the Rwandan capital Kigali to distribute those foods and supplies.

The Rwandian Genocide served as the impetus for creating the International Criminal Court to eliminate the need for ad hoc tribunals to prosecute those accused in future incidents of genocide, crimes against humanity, and war crimes. Clinton viewed the reluctance of his country and of its NATO allies to intervene in the Rwanda turmoil as a great failure. In the same year, Clinton assisted President Aristide to re-gain his presidency in Haiti from a military coup. Also in 1994, the Republican Party gained a majority in the House of Representatives.

After the death of Marshall Tito, the former Yugoslavia broke apart, and the Christian Serbs began their own “ethnic cleansing” against the Muslims and Croats. Bosnian Serbs’ “ethnic cleansing’ [which] involved using murder, rape, expulsion and imprisonment on a large scale to drive Muslims and Croats from territory the Bosnian Serbs wished to claim.” After the Markale massacre in Sarajevo, Clinton and England’s Tony Blair led a coalition of NATO’s troops and supports and American air strikes against Yugoslav targets under *Operation Deliberate Force* to lead the Serbs, the Muslims, and the Croatian forces to the peace table. The *Dayton Agreement* among the Serbs, the Muslims, and the Croats was signed in Dayton, Ohio, in November 1995. In April 1995, Timothy McVey bombed the federal building in Oklahoma City. In June of the same year, Clinton issued his Presidential *Decision Directive 95* to declare terrorism as a matter of national security and a crime. Clinton lifted trade sanctions on Viet Nam in 1994. In 1995, Clinton issued *Executive Order 12957* to impose economic sanctions on Iran. Under the *Agreement Framework of 1994*, negotiated by former President Carter, Clinton and North Korea agreed that North Korea would stop attempting to create nuclear weapons, the U.S. would assist North Korea to construct reactors to generate electricity, and the two would cooperate on other issues. (North Korea tested its first nuclear bomb two years later.) To counter Saddam Hussein’s violations of established “no-fly zones” and other provocations, Clinton launched *Operation Desert Strike* in September 1996 against targets in southern Iraq. Hussein continued his provocations. In 1998, Clinton ordered four days of strategic air attacks on Iraqi targets. New challenges arose from the Taliban and Osama Bin Laden in Afghanistan. In retaliation for bombings on American embassies in Nairobi, Kenya, and Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, Clinton fired cruise missiles at Al Qaeda training camps in Afghanistan and at a pharmaceutical factory in Khartoum, Sudan. In 1998, Clinton, through the negotiations by Senator George Mitchell, brokered a peace between the nationalist and unionist forces in Ireland.

Unfortunately, the old dark forces reappeared in the old Yugoslavian area. In the spring of 1998, ethnic tension in the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia—the state formed from the former Yugoslav republics of Serbia and Montenegro—heightened when the military forces responded in the Autonomous Province of Kosovo and Metohija. More than 90 percent of the residents of...
Kosovo were Muslim and ethnic Albanians, many of who wanted independence from the country. Yugoslav forces were mobilized into provinces to quell Albanian rebels.  

Again, Clinton and his NATO allies launched a massive air attacks in spite of serious opposition from Russia and China, two members of the Security Council. The air raids targeted both military and civilian targets—e.g., refineries, factories, television stations, and other.

Two months of NATO airstrikes devastated Yugoslavia. It was the first time in NATO's history that its forces had attacked a sovereign country, and the first time in which air power alone won a battle. In June 1999, NATO and Yugoslav military leaders approved an international peace plan for Kosovo, and attacks were suspended after Yugoslav forces withdrew from Kosovo.

In short, in the face of proven savagery and even with registered and vocal opposition by two members of the UN Security Council, Clinton and his like-minded colleagues mounted a humanitarian effort and succeeded.

Throughout the remaining years of his presidency, Clinton worked to bring peace to the Middle East and to other trouble spots around the globe. In 2000, Clinton and the People's Republic of China reached agreements on human rights, and both countries entered into equal partner trading rights agreements.

**Decade Demographics**

According to the 2000 Census, by the end of the 1990's, 281,421,906 Americans, not counting illegal immigrants, lived in “the lower 48,” in Alaska and Hawaii, and in the “American territories.” In 1999, only about 4.2%—i.e., 5.8 million—were unemployed. Although the minimum wage by 1997 was $ 5.15 per hour, the average salary by 1999 was $ 13.37 per hour, and the average annual pay in 1998 for a teacher was $ 39,347.00. In 1997, males were expected to live to 73.1 years while females were expected to live 79.1 years. Auto accidents claimed 49,772 lives in 1997. Even though the national debt in 1993 sat at 290 billion dollars, the Clinton policies left a surplus of over $ 230 billion by 2001. Dolly the famous female sheep was “the first mammal to be cloned from an adult somatic cell.” Although the giant Hubble Space Telescope had been shot into orbit by an earlier administration, certain refinements and repairs and the regular maintenances were shouldered by the Clinton Administration.

The amazing World Wide Web set up shop in 1982. Whereas, only 15% of the households owned computers in 1989, by the end of the decade—i.e., 2000—51% owned computers with 41.5% of them online. The expanded ownership and varied use of the computer—e.g., e-mail, online marketing, online gambling, and online commerce—and the continuing fruits of silicon valley truly designated the decade as “the electronic age.” Over time, plug-ins—e.g., “BTW” (“By the way.”), “GOK” (“God Only Knows”), and “IMHO” (“In My Humble Opinion.”)—and the names of Bill Gates, Steve Jobs, and IBM became commonplace. Project Gutenberg provided entire books to be read online. Audio books became popular. As meta-bookstore corporations crushed small book stores, prices for books rose dramatically, especially university textbooks. John Grisham, Michael Crichton, Amy Tan, Danielle Steele, Tom Clancy, and their peers cashed in on the markets for their respective genres. Giant corporations began to merge with other giant corporations. Whereas only 41% of the American population had completed high school in 1960, by the end of the 1990’s, 83.5% had
achieved high school education. As a booming economy with low unemployment and a minimum wage of $5.15 per hour was blessing America, violence in the major cities grew into a condition of life for urbanites. The 1992 video-taped beating by four policemen of Rodney King; the 1993 bombing of the World Trade Center and, in the same month, the killing of four U.S.B.A.T.F. during their unsuccessful raid on the Branch Davidian compound in Waco, Texas; the bombing by Timothy McVeigh and company of the Alfred P. Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City; and the nineteen school shootings in 1999—e.g., the fifteen killings and twenty-three woundings at Columbine High School ravaged the public psyche. The trial of O.J. Simpson for murdering his ex-wife and her friend provided lengthy televised spectacle.\(^{16}\) (Some authorities assert that the televised slow police chase of O.J. Simpson through the streets created the impetus for televising “on the spot” in real time of news events. Televised coverage of three wars—the Gulf War, the Desert Shield, and the Desert Storm—grabbed the public’s attention and made popular the 24-hour news cycle. In addition to the rampant violence, rampant sexual abuses like the sexual abuse of twenty-six women by Marine and Navy personnel in the Tailhook Incident,\(^{17}\) threw the country into shock. Accusations against President Clinton by several females further shocked the country.

Scientists detected “extrasolar planets orbiting stars other than the sun.” DNA for identification purposes became extremely useful in criminal law. HAART therapy against HIV significantly reduced HIV mortality. NASA’s Pathfinder landed on Mars and deployed the roving Sojourner. In April 1997, the Hale-Bopp shot past our sun for the first time since 4,200 hundred years ago. Biodegradable materials and recycling become popular. Genetically altered crops appeared on the market. Dark matter, dark energy, brown dwarfs, and black holes were discovered. The Galileo probe studied Jupiter. Construction on the International Space Station began in 1998. The American public grew concerned over environment protection, global warming, and other nature-related issues. The Chernobyl disaster, which was still causing cancer in the region through the decade and beyond, heightened the worries. Several environment-defending organizations formed; Greenpeace was one of the most famous “activist” groups. Creation of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change led “to the adoption of the Kyoto Protocol in December 1997, a binding agreement signed by several developed countries.” In 1990, homosexuality was removed by the World Health Organization from “its list of diseases.” Selena Gomez and Carmen Electra achieved fame. Body-piercing, tattoos, and video games grew into fads. The Channel Tunnel between England and France opened in 1994. Princess Diana, her friend Dodi Al-Fayed, and their chauffeur Henri Paul died in an automobile crash in August 1997. Mother Teresa died on September 5, 1997.\(^{18}\)

Extra assistances were provided via the \textit{Elementary and Secondary Act} to poor children and to children with limited-English-proficiency children in school with emphasis on science and math. The drug Ritalin evolved as the frequent dosage for Attention Deficit Disorder and for Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. Drug prevention was added to the curriculum. A major educational evolution was achieved as online education emerged. Hot debate flared across the country on multiculturalism, technical/vocational education, schooling throughout the whole year, and other issues. \textit{The Americans With Disabilities Act of 1990}, the “don’t ask, don’t tell” ruling in 1993, the
short-lived Brady Bill—the requirement to wait five whole days before purchasing a gun, established new paths of behavior. The North American Free Trade Act among Canada, the U.S., and Mexico opened vast avenues for profit for corporations on the continent.

In 1994, the Republican Party gained control of the House of Representatives and began a welfare-reform program including but not limited to the Family Support Act and the Temporary Assistance to Needy Families Act. When Mexico’s peso currency devalued and threatened to set off a serious international economic crisis, Clinton proposed U.S. assistance to Mexico. The Republican-controlled House of Representatives vetoed his notion. In response,

Clinton drafted a $20 billion loan package for Mexico to restore international confidence in the Mexican economy. The loan was approved and Mexico completed its loan payments to the United States in January 1997, three years ahead of schedule. However, issues such as drug smuggling and U.S. immigration policies continued to strain relations between the United States and Mexico during Clinton’s terms in office.\(^{19}\)

The North American Free Trade Act and the $20 billion loan package encouraged the timely stability of the peso and the healthy growth of the Mexican economy.

**Additional Adventures and Brave Steps**

The Clinton—Gore Administration achieved many gains for the United States of America, including but not limited to the following.

- Longest economic expansion in American
- More than 22 million new jobs
- Highest homeownership in American history
- Lowest unemployment in 30 years
- Raised education standards, increased school choice, and doubled education and training investment
- Largest expansion of college opportunity since the GI Bill
- Connected 95 percent of schools to the Internet
- Lowest crime rate in 26 years
- 100,000 more police for our streets
- Enacted most sweeping gun safety legislation in a generation
- Family and Medical Leave Act for 20 million Americans
- Smallest welfare rolls in 32 years
- Higher incomes at all levels
- Lowest poverty rate in 20 years
- Lowest infant mortality rate in American history
- Deactivated more than 1,700 nuclear warheads from the former Soviet Union
- Protected millions of acres of American land
- Paid off $360 billion of the national debt
- Converted the largest budget deficit in American history to the largest surplus
- Lowest government spending in three decades
- Lowest income tax burden in 35 years
- More families own stock than ever before
- Most diverse cabinet in American history\(^{20}\)

In 1993, Bill Clinton named Ruth Bader Ginsburg to the Supreme Court; in 1994, he appointed Stephen Breyer to the same body. Clinton named sixty-six judges to the United States Courts of Appeal and nominated three hundred, five judges to the United States district courts.\(^{21}\)

Regardless of which designation is preferred by a reader, most certainly the Generation Y/Millennial Generation/Millennials /ME Generation/Generation Next/Net Generation/Echo Boomers/hipster Generation enjoyed the many blessings of the decades of the 1990’s! The new, electronic capabilities offered through the new worldwide web and the global positioning system poised to revolutionize daily American life. The easy-to-come-by plentifulness of food, shelter, travel, entertainment, and standard
conveniences ushered in a notion of greed and entitlement across the land, especially among the young, the ME Generation.22

**Revolutionaries Off the Street**

**ARPANET:** For sure, Al Gore did not invent the internet. And he never claimed that he had invented the internet.23 However, he did secure funding for the ancestor of the internet and, later, for the development of the internet itself. His call in the early 1980’s “for creation of a national network of ‘information superhighways’,” and his subsequent effort toward that goal contributed directly to the creation of the ARPANET and, later, the internet.24 Gore was known early-on in the 1970’s as a “genuine nerd, with a geek reputation running back to his days as a futurist Atari Democrat in the House.”25 While serving later in the Senate and as Vice-President, Gore labored to explain and endorse the economic, political, and educational blessings of high-speed telecommunication. His S 2594 Supercomputer Network Study Act of 1986 and his High Performance Computer and Communication Act of 1991 enabled the creation of the National Information Infrastructure. He became a member of the Board of Directors for Apple, Inc. and served as a senior Advisor to Google.26

Advanced Research Projects Agency provided funding and expertise to develop “one of the world’s first operational packet-switching, the first network to implement TCP/IP, and the progenitor of what was to become the global Internet.”27 The ARPANET, as it was called, electronically linked research laboratories and universities inside the United States so that scientific endeavors and development could communicate instantaneously and extensively. Leonard Kleinrock invented the packet-switching technology in 1962: this technology made possible the eventual internet.28 Paul Baran, Donald Davies, Lawrence Roberts, Robert Kahn and Vinton Cerf, Louis Pouzin, J.C.R. Licklider Ivan Sutherland, Bob Taylor, Frank Hart, and other experts and specialists contributed to the eventual success of the ARPANET.

In time, the ARPANET grew more sophisticated and broader and, even, international. The establishment, development, and refinement of the experimental Texas-Israel Exchange Program was spear-headed by Jim Hightower, then-Texas Commissioner of Agriculture. Specialists in Israel and Texas worked on the Texas-Israel Exchange (TIE) and exchanged technological concepts, technical vocabulary, and periodic progress reports via the ARPANET. The first TIE project was the Laredo Blue Print Farm Project. The Laredo Farm was designed to discover/develop improvements for “agricultural and livestock production in arid climates,”29 very important considerations for Israel, Texas, and Mexico. To augment funding by the State of Texas and by Israel, John Broadfoot persuaded the Meadows Foundation to provide additional funding. Plenti Peist served as the farm’s architect, and Dr. Jacinto Juarez, then-Dean of Institutional Development for the Laredo Junior College coordinated the project. One of the results of the Farm effort is the provision of electricity via the Farm’s giant wind generators to the home campus of today’s Laredo Community College, formerly known as Laredo Junior College..30

**World Wide Web:** Marshall McLuhan’s concept of a “global village” has become a reality through the internet. After all,

The Internet is defined as the worldwide interconnection of individual networks operated by government, industry, academia, and private parties. Originally the Internet served to interconnect laboratories engaged in government
research, and since 1994 it has been expanded to serve millions of users and a multitude of purposes in all parts of the world. The Internet, as no other communication medium, has given an international or, if you prefer, a “Globalized” dimension to the world. Internet has become the Universal source of information for millions of people, at home, at school, and at work. By March, 2014, an estimated “2,937 million” people use the internet. The top ten languages of the world’s users of the internet are English, Chinese, Spanish, Japanese, Portuguese, German, Arabic, French, Russian, and Korean.

Over several years, Tim Berners-Lee carefully studied Leonard Kleinrock’s packet-switching and related technologies as they emerged. His attention was focused on

…the Hypertext Editing System (HES) at Brown University, among others Ted Nelson and Andries van Dam, Ted Nelson’s Project Xanadu and Douglas Engelbart’s oN-Line System (NLS). Both Nelson and Engelbart were in turn inspired by Vannevar Bush’s microfilm-based “memex,” which was described in his 1945 essay “As We May Think.”

Berners-Lee’s breakthrough was to marry hypertext to the Internet. In his book *Weaving The Web*, he explains that he had repeatedly suggested that a marriage between the two technologies was possible to members of both technical communities, but when no one took up his invitation, he finally tackled the project himself. In the process, he developed a system of globally unique identifiers for resources on the Web and elsewhere: the Uniform Resource Identifier (URL).

Over time, Berners-Lee and others continued improving/internationalizing the internet. “On March 8, 2013, Tim, along with Vinton Cerf, Robert Kahn, Louis Pouzin and Marc Andreesen, was awarded the Queen Elizabeth Prize for Engineering for “ground-breaking innovation in engineering that has been of global benefit to humanity.”

Through the internet, the computer-literate American sixth grader can now process more information in a single afternoon than the ancient pharaoh’s scribe could process in a complete year. The internet has “opened up” whole societies to individuals with the necessary computer capacity. And that same internet has “opened up” whole societies to other whole societies via individuals enabled with the necessary computer capacity. The “opening up” process has essentially served to democratize and empower the enabled individuals in every participating society. And, of course, the undemocratic forces have continued to slow down, meddle with, misfigure, misdirect, and/or destroy the internet and the “freeing” that it does. (After all, there really are some individuals out there who really don’t believe that everyone should enjoy the rights of “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.”) Amazingly, recently, I was checking the latest postings in April of Jack Holland’s The Last American Newspaper. I was startled to view a TED 2014 YouTube, recorded in March, 2014, in which Chris Andersen interviewed Snowden in Russia. Snowden appeared via a computerized robot which Snowden could manipulate from Russia to move around the stage, to look at the huge audience from several angles, and to speak from the television screen in the chest of the robot. The topic was “Here’s how we take back the Internet.” I was further amazed to watch Tim Berners-Lee walk to and onto the stage to converse with Snowden. At the end of their half-hour-or-so talk, Berners-Lee wanted to shake Snowden’s hand.
Since there was no hand to shake on the robot, Berners-Lee simply held on to one of the robot’s legs and wished Snowden well. Besides all of the startling points raised during the interview/conference, I was absolutely amazed at the technology whereby the person in Russia was conversing with someone in Canada while the whole show was being televised for YouTube and I, during the very next month, was viewing it in an always-thought-provoking local on-line newspaper!!!

Global Positioning System: In October 1957 when the Sputnik (Russian for “sattelite.”) began orbiting the earth, American congressionals were terrified. Since Russia had, quite obviously and dramatically, “beat us into outer space,” the American congressionals did not know, for sure, what to expect next—e.g., a new kind of war weapon to be attached to a series of satellites, et al. Not knowing what to expect and fearing the worse, the American congress quickly passed several pieces of legislation authorizing heretofore unheard of funding for “Cold War projects.” The National Defense Act of 1958 opened the federal coffers to support researchers/students/officials in science and mathematics; later, language studies were added. Other projects, especially in research, were initiated.

Two American physicists, William Guier and George Weiffenback of John Hopkin’s Applied Physics Laboratory (APL) decided to monitor Sputnik’s radio transmissions. Within hours they realized that, because of the Doppler effect, they could pinpoint where the satellite was along its Orbit. At the request of the director of the APL, Frank McClure, the two scientists developed the Transit System which not only could identify a satellite’s orbit and speed but, also, the location of the tracker—e.g., a Polaris submarine, a tracking station on shore, et al. With further research, “the U.S. Navy developed the Timation satellite that proved the ability to place accurate clocks in space, a technology required by GPS.” Then, the Omega Navigation System was sent into orbit. Pressures from the Cold War forced the American congress to pass even further legislation that poured even greater expenditures into research on the GPS. Research by the navy and by the air force continued at a lightning speed.

The nuclear triad consisted of the United States Navy’s submarine-launched ballistic missiles (SLBMs) along with the United States Air Force (USAF) strategic bombers and intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs). Considered vital to the nuclear-deterrence posture, accurate determination of the SLBM launch position was a force multiplier.

Through development over time, the GPS has become an “every day” device used by military, business, and civilian interests. Maintained by the U.S. government, the system is available to anyone with a GPS receiver.

Sources
Books:
Internet Articles:
Media:
Personal Interview:
Personal interview with Dr. Jacinto Juarez in Laredo, Texas, on March 8, 2014.


Ibid.

“Rwandan Genocide,” *Wikipedia*, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rwandan_Genocide, p. 1. After years of searching, an international group tracked one of the accused “war criminals” in Laredo, Texas. Since he had resided in Laredo as a Protestant minister for several years, the “catch” alarmed the citizenry of Laredo, particularly since his son held a very important and very well paid position in the community. Upon disclosure of documentation—e.g., eye witnesses’ accounts to the fact that he had invited several dozen Tutsi men, women, and children into his Christian church for safety and then called the pursuing Hutu’s in for the slaughter—he was taken away and prosecuted by an international court.

Ibid., p. 2.


Ibid., p. 3.

“Foreign policy of the Bill Clinton administration,” *op. cit.*, pp. 3-4.

Ibid., pp. 3-4.

Ibid., pp. 6—17.

“American Cultural History, Decade 1991--1999” *Lone Star College, Kingwood*, http://kclibrary.lonestar.edu/decade90.html, p. 1. Then, with the surplus of over $230 billion at the end of the Clinton surplus, the “eleven trillion,” the “twelve trillion,” or the “thirteen trillion” deficit that the Tea Party and their cohorts keep harping about had to have been “accomplished” by one of their very own.


Ibid., p. 3. As the time of the Tailhook scandal in Las Vegas, I was assigned in the Pentagon to the office of Admiral Kelso, the then-Chief of Naval Operations. Every day, I volunteered to arrived at work at 6:00 A.M. each weekday morning so that I could complete printing and distributing to concerned offices by 8:00 A.M. the Daily Casualty List. There were many each day from around the world, whether the casualty was human or equipment or supply. There were so many that the printer used an Italian “hot wire” to quickly descend to hot-cut each page of each notice loose from the giant roll of paper; the printing and hot-cutting of as many as 100 cuts per minute was not exceptional. Upon my delivery, the office concerned with each particular casualty directly addressed the problem and began to remedy it. Then, I would begin to perform my regular duties.

Admiral Kelso had gone directly to Las Vegas only to deliver a speech to the
military convention and then quickly had returned to the Pentagon. In no way whatsoever was he involved in the incidents that soon became known as “Tailhook.” But, in the highest traditions of the American military, he announced his position that “It happened on my watch.” So, he resigned. With his resignation, America lost one of its great administrators and heroes.

23 If you are one of those individuals who are spreading such vicious lies about the poor man, you should just stop immediately. Then, you need to ask god to forgive you for your craven acts. (Have faith. She will.) For discovering how that big lie got started, see “Did Al Gore invent the Internet?...” Paleofuture-Gizmodo, http://paleofuture.gizmodo.com/did-al-gore-invent-the-internet-1447761524.
26 Ibid., p. 7.
30 Personal interview with Dr. Jacinto Juarez in Laredo on March 8, 2014.
32 Ibid., p. 4.
34 “INTERNET GROWTH STATISTICS,” op. cit., p. 4.
38 For all those brave souls wishing to experience the interesting and amazing interview, see “Edward Snoden: Here’s how we take back the Internet,” TED.com, http://www.ted.com/talks/edward-snowden_here_s_how_we_take_back_the_internet.
40 Ibid., p. 2
The Promise and the Pitfalls of Ideology:
An Inquiry into a Much Used and Abused Concept

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Modern Americans appear to have a love-hate relationship with ideology, both the concept and its implementation. Stemming from its root word “idea,” ideology is used both favorably and unfavorably, depending on either one’s view of the world or one’s opinion of a specific ideology. That is, those who proudly proclaim themselves to be idealists use ideology as both a normative and descriptive term. Those who disdain that viewpoint use it as a pejorative. For the advocates of ideology, the most pressing question is whether the ideology is true or false, good or bad. For the skeptic, ideology is an intellectual delusion. The former never put the term or any variant thereof in “scare quotes” as the latter habitually do to suggest ideology’s non-factual character.

It is the unique obligation of political scientists to investigate controversies, political or otherwise, for differences of opinion more often than not have political consequences. Dedicated as it is to truth and justice, the ancient art of political science is prescriptive no less than it is descriptive. For while controversy is normal and sometimes even healthy, efforts to keep it from undermining healthy constitutions are always in order. In the modern world ideology has played a prominent and horrific role, as the genuine ideologues who gave us the French Reign of Terror; the Soviet purges, famines and GULAG; the Nazi aggression and holocaust; and the Chinese Great Leap Forward and Cultural Revolution have grimly demonstrated. These horrors have persuaded many in the academy as well as in politics to de-emphasize ideology on empirical grounds, certainly a laudable aim on its face.

But unless ideology is correctly and understood and, just as importantly, actually transcended, no amount of academic or political marginalization, stigmatization or avoidance can overcome its manifest evils. Similarly, taking refuge in so-called “pragmatism,” or the claim that one has no ideology, as some are wont to do, will not only fail but will exacerbate the problem. In plain words, false ideas are not discredited or defeated by denying wholesale the truth of any ideas, including especially of universal principles of politics or morality. I propose that we inquire into the very meaning of ideology, not simply for the purpose of defanging it but rather to understand it, and to judge it soundly.1

What is Ideology?
Wikipedia has usefully distilled several extant definitions:

An ideology is a set of conscious and unconscious ideas that constitute one’s goals, expectations, and actions. An ideology is a comprehensive vision, a way of looking at things as in several philosophical tendencies, or a set of ideas proposed by the dominant class of a society to all members of this society (a "received consciousness" or product of socialization).

Ideologies are systems of abstract thought applied to public matters and thus make this concept central to politics. Implicitly every political or economic tendency entails an ideology whether or not it is propounded as an explicit system of thought (Emphasis in original).2

As useful and complete as these definitions seem, derived from a variety of sources, they have serious difficulties. First, while ideas are no doubt the basis for ideology, labeling them as “conscious and unconscious” sheds no light on them, except to indicate that they are held by both rational and irrational political actors. Second, ideology is surely valued for its comprehensiveness but whether it actually possesses that property depends on serious inquiry. Third, referring to ideology as the ideas of a
socially dominant class blurs the distinction between rationality and rationalization. Fourth, the purported abstract character of ideology begs the question concerning its explanatory adequacy. Finally, the claim that every political or economic tendency entails an ideology is akin to calling the ruling principles mere myths.

In short, the definitions simultaneously prove too much and too little. Indeed, they are as abstract as ideology itself in that they assume adherents’ delusion by mere labeling rather than by actual proof. And they are no help in distinguishing between “world views” because the question of their truth is assumed to be irrelevant. Besides the compelling fact that truth matters, it is relevant that all adherents of an ideology believe theirs to be true, claims that merit investigation. From both an academic and a practical point of view, then, the definitions are wrong and useless. While they carry an implicit criticism of ideology, they never go beyond pigeon holing (as distinct from proving) it as mere belief or opinion, rather than knowledge.

I propose a different approach altogether, which is to give ideology, as well as the advocates of the various competing ideologies, the benefit of the doubt. Based on the Socratic approach, which gives to every idea or proposition a complete hearing before it is evaluated (the Principle of Charity), our methodology shall be to make the case for ideology in general and specific ideologies in particular, before determining, on the merits, whether either of them (or both) should be accepted or rejected.

Prior to inquiring into the nature of ideology (if that is not a contradiction in terms), I want to consider another (secondary) definition of ideology from the online Merriam-Webster Dictionary: “a systematic body of concepts especially about human life or culture.” This opens the possibility that ideology does not merely rationalize (or delude) but actually defines something which definitely exists and not merely in someone’s imagination. Whether ideology is capable of such a thing is a question we will leave to one side for the moment, but let us proceed on the assumption that it is. Indeed, the very structure of the word (ide- ology) suggests a parallel to other terms with similar suffixes, such as biology, zoology, meteorology, entomology and, of course, etymology. The suffix takes its rise from logic, meaning the whys and wherefores, or premises and conclusions, of the study or discipline in question.

If ideology is knowable and open to investigation, not as something found only in the mind but manifested in the objective world outside the mind, perhaps it is not just a quaint phenomenon but a real-world force. Ideas, let it be said, are real things. They are not tangible or empirical, to be sure, but everyone has them because our minds evidently exist to hold them. Let us go beyond our knowledge that ideology exists to the possibility that it points to the existence of real things. Those who coined the term evidently believed that ideals have a genuine “logic” to them, meaning that they can be studied and understood on their own terms. The following example may surprise some readers.

No less a political conservative than President Calvin Coolidge actually praised ideals. On the 150th anniversary of the American Declaration of Independence in 1926, he gave a speech staunchly defending it on “idealistic” grounds.

Equality, liberty, popular sovereignty, the rights of man—these are not elements which we can see and touch. They are ideals. They have their source and their roots in the religious convictions. They belong to the unseen world. Unless the faith of the American people in these religious convictions is to endure, the
principles of our Declaration will perish. We cannot continue to enjoy the result if we neglect and abandon the cause.

We are too prone to overlook another conclusion. Governments do not make ideals, but ideals make governments. This is both historically and logically true. Of course the government can help to sustain ideals and can create institutions through which they can be the better observed, but their source by their very nature is in the people.3

Rather than showing discomfort with the non-empirical character of ideals, Coolidge boldly affirms it. Indeed, by locating their source as religious, he is practically “doubling down” on his argument. Notably, even as Coolidge spoke highly of American ideals he credited the character of the nation’s people with their successful implementation. As long as the people hold to these ideals, they will survive and prosper. Thus, he upholds these ideals as the basis for good government and the advantages it makes possible. He evidently disagrees with those who locate the source of this idealism in the rationalism of the Enlightenment. Millions of people agree with him. They, like Coolidge, hold to the principles of the Declaration, implicitly distinguishing between those ideals and others which are not equally well grounded or simply false. Nevertheless, idealism, or ideology, generally has not had favorable connotations nor has it been universally admired.

**Ideology’s Fall from Grace**

To the best of my knowledge, the first common use of the term as a pejorative occurred during the French Revolution. High ideals in that case were held up as the standard for good government, but they soon became a term of opprobrium. In the name of equality, liberty and fraternity (or the rights of man), ideals still highly valued in the modern world, the French revolutionaries confronted the monarchy, aristocracy and clergy of the late 18th century and took them down (at least for a while, requiring several starts and stops for at least a century before republican government was firmly established). First using reform measures but ultimately resorting to massive bloodletting, these ideologues gave scant quarter to traditions, institutions, conventions, or received opinions, sweeping all before them. Although the more successful and long-lasting American Revolution had also been based on the “abstract ideas” of liberty and equality, the tragedy of the French Revolution provided seemingly compelling grounds for enemies of republican government to scorn it.

However, it wasn’t just the rulers or defenders of the Old Regime in the infamous Holy Alliance who (predictably) reacted in horror, but also sober advocates of representative government such as Edmund Burke in Great Britain and John Adams in the United States. That is, those who believed, like French ideologues, that the whole people should rule rather than only favored classes of them were nevertheless alarmed about France’s runaway freight train because they feared the consequences of ideological passion for liberty and good government everywhere. Conservatives on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean, then, whether they approved of the French Revolution or not, and with differing motives, were convinced that mere ideology or ideas with no ground in experience, not ideas as such, were the foe of good government. The sincerity of the apologists for the Old Regime may well be doubted, however.

Defenders of human freedom and of the republican constitution which protects it hold no brief for forms of government or other institutions which repress both. But it is
doubtful that these great goods can be saved by stigmatizing ideology in general rather than discrediting particular forms of it. The world has seen how revolutionary change which ignores or defies the constants in political life contemned by Robespierre & Company is likely to founder. Nor will it produce good government. That was the point of view of the American Founders, who were no less attached to natural rights than their overly excitable and poor imitators on the European continent. But they valued experience as well as sound principles, the evidence for which is copious, as I will show. That they put no stock in ideology or ideals per se is equally plain. I mean that they saw good politics as the combination of true principles, sound reasoning and sober expectations. But that historical fact is seldom appreciated.

**How Both Left and Right Misunderstand the American Founders**

Today the politics of the American founders are seen as hopelessly reactionary or comfortably conservative, depending on whether one leans to the Left or the Right. The Left, beginning with Charles Beard, has long excoriated the founders for allegedly opposing economic equality and social democracy; and no less for supporting aristocracy and slavery. Their charges all come down to one of hypocrisy. That is, despite their professed adherence to liberty and equality as expressed in the Declaration of Independence, America’s founders have been accused of stifling economic equality in the bud with a constitution that limited the powers of the federal government and thereby allegedly prevented majority rule. If that wasn’t enough, they gave guarantees to slavery in the Constitution itself while opposing universal suffrage.

My primary object here is not to defend the founders, as that has been done more than adequately by numerous scholars. Rather it is to reveal the odium (or inadequate appreciation) in (or by) which they are held by their critics—then and now—who dismiss their supposed “ideology” in Marxian fashion as mere rationalization for class interests. That is exactly how ideology is understood by many nowadays. But the Left is not alone in this, at least not altogether.

The Right, which generally reveres the founders, actually damns them with faint praise. Its spokesmen typically downplay equality but not liberty, seeing the former as the basis for the collectivism favored by the Left and the latter as the only effective antidote. But the founders saw these two principles, to borrow Daniel Webster’s famous phrase about Liberty and Union, as “one and inseparable.” The text of the Declaration makes it clear that equality consists not in leveling measures but in equal rights to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. It is helpful here also to recall Abraham Lincoln’s formulation in his seminal speech “On the Perpetuation of Our Political Institutions,” viz., “liberty and equal rights.” This distinguished it from equality of condition, which he, like the Founders, believed could not, and should not, be the object of government. As a young Whig, Lincoln was as opposed to leveling schemes as much as any of the old Federalists, but he had no objection to poor people like himself becoming rich by their own voluntary efforts.

The clearest rejection of mere ideology as opposed to principled politics that I know of can be found in the famous tenth essay of *The Federalist*, a work written in support of the proposed constitution. In his analysis of the cause of the fall of republics, viz., majority faction, and his proposed remedy of a large commercial republic with a multiplicity of economic interests and religious sects, James Madison summarily rejects mere theory, and specifically the theory of pure democracy:
[A] pure democracy, by which I mean a society consisting of a small number of citizens, who assemble and administer the government in person, can admit of no cure for the mischiefs of faction. A common passion or interest will, in almost every case, be felt by a majority of the whole; a communication and concert result from the form of government itself; and there is nothing to check the inducements to sacrifice the weaker party or an obnoxious individual. Hence it is that such democracies have ever been spectacles of turbulence and contention; have ever been found incompatible with personal security or the rights of property; and have in general been as short in their lives as they have been violent in their deaths. **Theoretic politicians, who have patronized this species of government, have erroneously supposed that by reducing mankind to a perfect equality in their political rights, they would, at the same time, be perfectly equalized and assimilated in their possessions, their opinions, and their passions** (Emphasis added).6

Critics of the founders typically ignore this passage, whether from hostility or misunderstanding I cannot say. Clearly, it reveals neither any “ideology” nor any slavish devotion to abstract ideas, for Madison rejects both. Experience was a great teacher for early American statesmen, as this passage shows. Pure democracies, they knew from studying ancient Greek and modern European history, are prone to violence and death. (This warning also prefigures the horrors of the French Revolution.) Note particularly the distinction Madison makes between political equality and other forms, the first seen as realistic and the others not. Although the supporters of pure democracy may be delusional, this is due to human error, not inherent limitations in human psychology.

Nevertheless, for Madison what is not attainable politically (because not compatible with human nature) is also not defensible or desirable. Although this passage is critical of what is commonly deemed ideology (albeit by another name), it is hardly hostile to ideas, for the passage consists entirely of generalizations; but they are based on practical experience. It is passions more than ideas that lead men astray, even if Madison forbears stigmatizing the motives of the patrons of pure democracy. He sees them as making honest errors, not merely rationalizing their ruling passions.

Like the dog in the Sherlock Holmes story that did not bark, the omissions in The Federalist are as important as the inclusions. According to a concordance of that great work, the terms idealism and ideology are nowhere to be found.7 On the other hand, there are exactly 100 favorable references to experience, scattered widely throughout the 85 essays and even used several times in many of them. Not surprisingly, too, there are also 33 favorable references to history. There are 18 mixed references to ideas and only one to ideal, but notice how it is used in the context of a discussion of federal and state sovereignty in No. 81 by Alexander Hamilton on the jurisdiction of federal and state courts, and specifically the charge by opponents of the Constitution that states will be subject to lawsuits without their consent:

It is inherent in the nature of sovereignty not to be amenable to the suit of an individual without its consent [Emphasis in original]. This is the general sense, and the general practice of mankind; and the exemption, as one of the attributes of sovereignty, is now enjoyed by the government of every State in the Union. Unless, therefore, there is a surrender of this immunity in the plan of the convention, it will remain with the States, and the danger intimated must be merely ideal.8 (Emphasis added)
What is “merely ideal” for Hamilton is a phantom rather than a real thing. George Washington used the term in exactly the same way in a letter to John Jay during the crisis of the Articles of Confederation and prior to the calling of the Federal Convention of 1787 in Philadelphia.

What astonishing changes a few years are capable of producing! I am told that even respectable characters speak of a monarchical form of government without horror. From thinking proceeds speaking, thence to acting is often but a single step. But how irrevocable & tremendous! What a triumph for the advocates of despotism to find that we are incapable of governing ourselves, and that systems founded on the basis of equal liberty are merely ideal & fallacious! (Emphasis added) 9

As critical as the Father of our Country was of what is “merely ideal,” note well that he understood how powerful political ideas are. Advocates of monarchy or other unjust forms of government, in his view, do not contribute to informed political debate among the American people, whose political “genius” Madison and Hamilton frequently denominated as “republican,” but to confusion and worse. Citing Madison, we can say the same for advocates of pure democracy.

What the authors of The Federalist explicitly rejected and not merely in passing were “utopians” (No. 6), “enthusiasts” (No. 29) “speculators” (No. 44) and “projectors” (Nos. 6, 14 and 26). There are five critical references to “enthusiasm” and two to “enthusiastic,” and a dozen more of the same to the term “project” and various derivatives thereof. Also, “zeal” (26 times) and “zealous” (nine times) are used warily or unfavorably.

**Ideology is the Unwelcome Guest that Never Leaves**

The leading framers of the Constitution make a convincing case for opposing political ideas not founded in experience or knowledge of human nature. But what of our current politicians and activists? Do they reject ideology for the same reason? As I suggested in the introduction, they do not. A well-worn tactic of political partisans of all stripes is to stigmatize their opposition as ideological (or as “ideologues”) while professing to be free of that tendency themselves. Such a posture and such a claim depend upon either affirming the political ideas which are true or, less defensibly, on the denial of the truth of any political ideas. Ominously, in my view, both sides incline more toward the latter than toward the former. Progressives, influenced by the doctrine of moral and political relativism, have been rather open in their disdain for the purported “ideology” of the founding fathers but conservatives less so. When those who called themselves liberals only a generation ago reverted to the name Progressive, which their forebears proudly defended, they were reacting to the effective stigmatizing of liberalism by the ascendancy of political conservatism in the Reagan Administration. But a change of name brought no change in principles. To downplay their now-controversial ideals (when they aren’t proudly wearing their renewed Progressive brand), they frequently aver that they are “pragmatic.”

For example, when Dee Dee Myers, press secretary for Bill Clinton, was once asked by Sean Hannity on Fox Network what ideology motivated her support for liberal policies, she resolutely denied following any. Indeed, she said she was a pragmatist who made an independent judgment on each issue with no general doctrine. The preferred shorthand definition of pragmatism is “whatever works.” This may not have been enough for American philosophers Charles Pearce or John Dewey, who
advocated and popularized pragmatism, but it seems to be enough for their progeny. The test of “what works” too often comes too late, however, for avoiding bad policy.

An example of liberal disdain for American ideology came during the 1990 confirmation hearings for the appointment of Clarence Thomas to the United States Supreme Court. Thomas made it clear in his opening statement that he followed the political philosophy of natural rights set forth in the Declaration of Independence, which he maintained had been incorporated into the Constitution by the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. This claim was roundly derided by Democratic members of the Senate Judiciary Committee, even as newspaper articles (e.g., in the *Wall Street Journal’s* news pages) consistently put the term natural rights in quotation marks, as if it were a mere opinion rather than a law of nature.

But while liberals and Progressives have rejected the political philosophy of the founding fathers they have not abandoned ideology. As faithful and devoted advocates of income redistribution and “social justice,” and more recently “political correctness,” they epitomize the very “theoretic politicians” who favor equality of “possessions, opinions and passions,” a viewpoint which James Madison regarded as “erroneous.” In short, they are consciously or unconsciously adhering to a utopian political doctrine which, according to the Founders, neither reason nor experience can support.

However, conservatives have similar difficulties, whatever the merits of their public policies (which are by no means utopian). The late acclaimed jurist Robert Bork, for example, also denied the existence of natural rights and even cited the Declaration as the ultimate source of the egalitarianism of the Left. Like many other conservatives, Bork was reacting to Franklin Roosevelt’s clever co-option of the Declaration’s principles, re-defined in ways that justified the New Deal’s radical departure from the free market capitalism enshrined in the Constitution and the advocacy of massive government intervention in, rather than prudent regulation of, the nation’s commerce.

The Right is correct in imputing egalitarianism to the Left, but it is wrong to find any support for that ideology in America’s founding documents, as I have shown. As previously noted, conservatives more often than not affirm their principles, primarily liberty, as the true or correct ideology, and indeed call themselves the “party of ideas.” Insofar as that means that they are thinking about the public good and not just feeling strongly about it, that is a good thing. But having a good idea is not the same thing as knowing what the public good requires, even if one’s instincts are sound.

Liberals are right to be wary of ideology, but in fact they are prisoners of it. Perhaps they expect to be praised for their good intentions, but as English writer Samuel Johnson actually wrote, “Hell is paved with good intentions.” Conservatives are right to embrace political truths but are too much enamored of “ideas” in general and not appreciative enough of the political philosophy of natural rights, which comprehends both equality and liberty. These tendencies mark many persons of both parties as ideologues, whether or not they are fully conscious of their state of mind.

The lesson to be drawn from this analysis is that ideas are not in and of themselves implicated in disastrous political experiments but rather the content of the ideas. And even the best ideas are best understood and implemented when they have been tested and proven by experience. Ideology is always questionable, requiring us to evaluate its soundness based on prudent judgment and practical experience, not to mention knowledge of human nature.
Footnotes

1. I am grateful to Prof. Samuel Martineau of De Sales University for his 2013 paper “What is Ideology?” (Presented to the National Social Science Association in Las Vegas) which renewed my dormant but permanent interest in this topic.


8. http://www.constitution.org/fed/federa81.htm The preservation of the existing forms (as distinguished from their purposes) in the former colonies despite continental revolution testifies to the founding generation’s respect for experience.


10. See Bork’s *Slouching Towards Gomorrah: Modern Liberalism and American Decline* (Harper Collins, 1997). See also *Storm Over the Constitution* by Harry V. Jaffa (Lexington Books, 1999), which takes both Bork and Chief Justice William Rehnquist to task for substituting positive law for natural law as the basis for our form of government.


12. The widespread use of the term ideology, as indicated, is due to skepticism about the truth of political ideas. In older times, it was understood that the fundamental political questions were “Who rules?” and “For what ends?” According to Aristotle, there are six basic regimes, based on the rule of the One, the Few or the Many. The healthy regimes rule in the common interest, the perverted regimes in the ruler’s interest. This categorization assumes that knowledge of what is good for polities is possible. The modern world has been decisively shaped by the revolutions in America and Europe that have established government by the people as the only legitimate form of government. German sociologist Max Weber, taking note of the wholesale change from truth to ideals, divided regimes into traditional, legal and charismatic, typified *seriatim* by the medieval regime, republican government and Bonapartism. They are meant to be descriptive, not evaluative, even if they are, in fact, value-laden terms. There were variations on the Aristotelian typology, most notably the mixed regime of the few and the many, or “polity,” while Weber’s typology applied at different periods in all three cases to France, the country which inspired it, depending upon who ruled, and when.
Realities of Foreign Language Translation in Medical Settings

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Abstract
Our survey of undergraduate nursing students and registered nurse graduate students working in medical settings reveals their perceptions of which methods of medical translation are actually used, how frequently, and how effectively.

Introduction
A patient’s condition was deteriorating and they were going to put the patient on a ventilator. No one on the unit spoke Spanish (including the doctor) to inform the patient of what was happening. Another time, in the ER, a male Hispanic patient presented and there was no one to interpret. The hospital supplied an interpreter over the telephone, but it was very frustrating and ineffective for the patient.

--Anonymous Student Nurse Respondent

Although hospitals and other medical providers in the United States are required by law and by professional regulation to supply healthcare in a language that the patient can understand well, it is apparent that the reality does not always match the goal. Even with the translating of medical information being a life or death issue, patients with little or no English still do not always receive the necessary linguistic services, or may receive inadequate communication help resulting in inadequate care. Providers have so far been essentially free to use whatever methods or tools for translating that they see fit, regardless of effectiveness. Translators are often uncertified and of varying degrees of competency. And, despite all these problems, no study has existed to determine what is really going on.

Purpose and Research Question
This paper intends to serve as a major step toward discovering and delineating the realities of foreign language translation, at least in the authors’ state of Texas. We aim to identify which methods of translation are actually being used, to what extent, and with what degree of success. Toward this purpose, the authors constructed and conducted a cross-sectional, descriptive research study. The research participants, student nurses assigned to or working in hospitals and other medical facilities, were asked to tell us which translation methods and devices are actually being used at present by hospitals and other venues such as clinics, nursing homes, public health departments, community agencies, home health enterprises and hospices. We also wanted to learn the degree of frequency that each translation method or device is being used. Moreover, we wished to gauge the participants’ perception of the overall effectiveness of the medical translating that is being provided. Our research question is therefore to determine what is the reality of medical translation services being provided to the patient in need of linguistic aid.

Background
Our cross-sectional study is part of our ongoing research into language communication issues in the healthcare workplace. In our earlier article entitled “Foreign Language Difficulties in American Healthcare: The Challenges of Medical Translation, Regulation, and Remuneration” (2014), we listed and discussed means by which written translation and oral interpretation may be accomplished. They were as follows: 1) spontaneous ad hoc interpretation performed by the patient’s relatives or friends (a dubious practice due to the high rate of mistakes); 2) translation or interpretation by a nurse, nurse aide, candy-striper, or other care provider or employee who happens to
have some capacity with the language (an erratic scenario at best); 3) translating by a linguistic specialist in the employ of the hospital (an expensive proposition obviously impossible to provide for a hundred languages); 4) translating by independent contractors brought in to interpret as needed (also expensive and not always feasible for all languages on a moment’s notice); 5) telephone-based conversation with professional interpreters through a 24/7 translating company (a sometimes adequate solution although seldom optimal, especially when the dialogue involves medical technicalities about ailments with which the interpreter is not familiar); 6) machines that translate mostly by containing prefabricated phrases (only of limited utility for one-way translation and no capacity for understanding the patient’s reply); 7) computer-assisted translation performed by software programs (legendary for disastrous errors at an alarmingly high rate); and 8) interactive internet video conferencing involving a large pool of interpreters on-call 24/7 (so far the best option available, but highly expensive as it requires both subscription fees and usually a charge by the minute or hour for the actual translating).

Hospitals and other providers cannot legally or ethically avoid providing some kind of translating service to patients because of a variety of imperatives. The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS, 2011), the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (CMS, 2011), The Affordable Care Act (2010), and the Joint Commission accreditation organization (The Joint Commission, 2011), as well as a variety of state laws, all mandate that communication be clear and easily understood by the patient, even if the patient has little or no knowledge of English (Rivers, K. T., & Rivers, D. L., 2014). Some regulators, most notably Joint Commission and ObamaCare, require medical communication in the patient’s preferred language (Simmons, S., 2009, June 15).

Even well-intentioned healthcare providers have run into difficulties because of significant impediments to effective linguistic communication. High costs, unreliable technologies, a shortage of adequately skilled translators with medical knowledge, and a lack of uniformity in laws and regulations have all hindered success. These obstacles notwithstanding, providers are still supposed to succeed at fulfilling their mandate to patients with no English or limited English proficiency (LEP). And with millions of such patients living in or visiting this country every day, compliance is becoming a crisis issue.

Methodology

Study Design, Sample

The study design used to address the research questions was that of a cross-sectional, self-administered 19-question survey with descriptive analysis of the returns. The initial sample was composed of undergraduate (N=100) senior nursing students practicing in hospitals and other healthcare sites, and senior graduate (N=8) masters RN nursing students who were registered nurses employed in Texas and currently working in hospitals and other healthcare sites. This was a convenience sample of participants enrolled in undergraduate and graduate nursing courses in the fall of 2013. Approval for Human Subjects was obtained through the IRB prior to conducting the study. The researcher explained to all the student nurses and the RN students that survey participation was voluntary and anonymous.
The final sample size consisted of 60 undergraduate nursing students and seven RN graduate students who correctly completed and returned their surveys utilized in the study. Of these, 22 undergraduate students reported never having witnessed translation and therefore were instructed not to complete the rest of the questionnaire evaluating quality of patient translation.

Results and Discussion

The quantitative data was analyzed with descriptive analysis and the comments are included as qualitative responses. The statistical program used was Statistica (StatSoft, Inc., Version 10).

Our sample return rate is 62% (N=67/108) of respondent usable survey returns. 67 students returned their surveys of which 7 are graduate nursing students and 60 undergraduates. Demographic data showed 59 (88.1%) female students including registered nurses and eight (11.9%) undergraduate male nursing students (see Table 1). Whereas male nurses in our U.S. nursing workforce are at 6.2% (Houston, C.J., 2014; AACN, 2011). Respondents aged 18-29 years were 71.6% (N=48); aged 30-39 years were 17.9% (N=12); aged 40-49 were 9% (N=6); and there were none aged 50-60 (see Table 2). There were 60 undergraduate student nurses and seven master graduate RN student nurses in the study. Since these student nurses and RN’s are attending university courses, the demographics are reflective of the population.

One of our preliminary questions of particular interest was designed to give us an idea of how knowledgeable the respondents were about the mandate to provide medical translation services in hospitals and other healthcare settings. We listed five regulatory entities and asked which ones of them mandate translation (see Table 3). The correct answer was that four entities (Joint Commission, Centers for Medicare and Medicaid, ObamaCare, and State Law) require translation, whereas the fifth entity (the American Medical Association) does not. Only one person (an undergraduate student nurse) answered correctly. However, a majority of respondents did correctly believe that the first four entities do require translation, and a very small majority of respondents recognized that the fifth entity does not. It might be wondered why the AMA, which is an organization of medical doctors, is the only one choosing not to require translation; the answer to that must be left to the imagination.

Next, we asked if the respondents had seen medical translation performed when apparently necessary. 62.7% or 42 of 67 had seen such. Rather disturbingly, nearly as many, 56.7% or 38 out of 67, reported witnessing cases where translation was not performed even though apparently necessary (see Table 4). In fact, four of the respondents (5.9%) indicated having seen more than 10 incidents of failure to perform necessary translation. It can only be gathered that the mandate to translate is not always being followed, either intentionally or unintentionally. Written translation is even more often absent than oral interpretation. Only 15% of respondents had ever witnessed any written translation in the workplace. This gap in the service is especially crucial when the patient is entering or leaving the facility and receiving written instructions. As one respondent declared, “Too many times I have seen patients/clients sign important documentation [regarding] discharge, admission, social service, billing, and surgical information without being properly informed [in their language].” A wide variety of types of abuse, financial and otherwise, can potentially result, even including
Medicare or Medicaid fraud, which are widely reported in the news as increasingly prevalent.

The various types of units or departments where medical translation was chiefly observed as occurring were the emergency department (ER), patient care units, clinics, and health departments, all of them in almost equal amounts. And who was performing the medical translation? We found most commonly it was a relative of the patient (reported by 20 respondents, representing 43% of those who witnessed translation done by someone). Second most commonly (16 respondents, 35%) was a professional translator on the hospital staff. Third was an RN (15 persons, 32%). Fourth, a nurse aide or orderly (14 persons, 30%). Fifth, an LVN (N=12, 26%). Sixth, a student nurse (N=11, 24%). Seventh, a friend of the patient (N=8, 17%). In eighth and last place, a professional translator, employed by a translating company or video conferencing company, rather than the hospital, working via video or telephone (N=6, 13%). Note that percentages do not equal 100% because each respondent may have seen translating performed by more than one type of translator. (See Table 5.) 22 respondents did not witness translation being performed and hence did not proceed to complete the survey questions evaluating quality of patient translation.

These statistics are distressing in that they show that the least competent of all possible translators, the relative of the patient, is being used the most often, whereas the most competent translator, the one who works for a professional translating company, is used the least often. That is the worst possible scenario, but evidently the most convenient and least expensive for the healthcare provider. Of course, in a given medical situation, there may not always be time to wheel in a laptop for video conferencing with a language professional, and that could excuse the use of a relative or other amateur to translate. However, when the speed of treatment is not an overwhelming concern, then the quality of the translator should be given the priority.

The high-quality off-site professional translator is most often going to be utilized in cases where the hospital does not have anyone on site who speaks the patient’s language. In this survey (see Table 6), typical of Texas, Spanish was overwhelmingly the language that needed to be translated (N=44, 65.7%). But there were also cases involving Vietnamese, French, American Sign Language, German, Russian, Farsi, and Mandarin. When asked what kinds of devices or aids to translation were used by the translators or other persons attempting translation, the most common response was “none”. The second most common response was a telephone call to an expert. Among the more seldom used were video conference with an expert, online translation sites such as Babelfish, and computer translation software. Not a single respondent ever witnessed a dictionary being used, although it would certainly seem to be a good idea and an inexpensive aid.

In our survey, we also made the interesting discovery that of 45 respondents who witnessed translation, only one saw an “I Speak” card or poster being used. An “I Speak” card or poster is a piece of paper upon which is printed the words I Speak in a large number of languages so that the patient/client can point to his or her language, indicating to the medical provider what language needs to be translated. This is an inexpensive tool that is very good for enabling the provider to quickly go seek assistance in the appropriate language. The "I Speak" card or poster is commonly available in community or county health departments, as well as many pharmacies.
Hospitals and other healthcare agencies might want to make greater use of this tool because it prevents the wasting of valuable time. For example, an employee who is only English-speaking might presume that an arriving patient is speaking Spanish, when in fact that patient might be speaking a similar-sounding language such as Portuguese or Italian. The patient and employee would have to first wait for the Spanish-speaking translator to arrive and determine that Spanish was not the correct language, and then attempt to somehow identify the correct language and contact a translator capable of handling medical translation of that language. By that time, the patient’s condition might have deteriorated unnecessarily. The “I Speak” poster or card is a handy solution to obtaining help in the right language without delay. An improvement that should be made to the “I Speak” poster or card would be for it also to include dialects and nationalities; in other words, even if the language involved is obviously Spanish, it would be highly useful to know if the patient is a speaker of Mexican Spanish, or the Spanish of one of the other approximately 40 countries in which Spanish is a major language. As an example, consider the Spanish word *horita*. “In Mexico, the word ‘horita’ means *right now*. In Puerto Rico, it means *in an hour or so*” (Galanti, 1997, p. 17; italics ours). The delay of an hour in taking medication, or in having a procedure or surgery, could have severe ramifications for the patient.

When there are communication problems between patient and healthcare provider, it is important that the problems be resolved not only satisfactorily but also promptly. Of the respondents, 88% (38 out of 43) perceived the translation as being performed satisfactorily and 76% (34 of 45) perceived it as being completed in a timely fashion. But 27% (12 of 44) of respondents do report having seen a translation effort go awry.

The respondents’ comments reflected that they observed a pattern of inconsistency from facility to facility in varying regions of Texas as regards translation services. For example, one respondent stated, “I have noticed that in the South..., there is a large amount of patients who speak Spanish or any other language who are not being offered translation services,” whereas another respondent in the same part of the country reported positively that “both Spanish and Vietnamese translators are employed and readily available for translating.” Large hospitals in large cities tend to have stronger services than small isolated facilities. This was reflected by one respondent’s comment that “I am fortunate to work in a large metropolitan facility where [translation] resources are available even in the middle of the night,” in contrast with another respondent’s complaint that she was “called on to interpret Spanish” throughout her “whole shift” when the hospital should have had a professional translator interpreting. Yet another respondent, with only very minimal knowledge of foreign language, stated that her hospital has some bilingual nurses and nurses’ aides who are willing to help her, but that she feels “ashamed” and “embarrassed” to be always seeking out their assistance because “I cannot pull them away from their jobs often.” This same respondent added that “the charge nurse tries to assign Spanish-only patients to nurses who are bilingual but sometimes we don’t know until they get to the floor and are already assigned.” A possible solution is greater use of computers and internet for assistance, but even that is of limited benefit. “I have begun pulling the W.O.W. [computer system device] into rooms with me and using Google Translate to explain things to them [limited-English patients], but their response is often too lengthy for me to understand what they are saying,” bemoaned the respondent. Another theme that became notable was that oral
interpreting is often used even in cases where written translation might be preferable, such as instructions for the patient at discharge time. American Sign Language (ASL) speakers, however, experience the opposite problem; as one respondent put it, “ASL speakers do not acquire good translation and are often overwhelmed with written instructions rather than explanations [in sign language].”

**Conclusion**

Despite laws and regulations requiring translation in healthcare facilities, the majority of nursing student respondents (57%, N= 38 of 67) working in our hospitals and other medical agencies report in our survey their perception that translation is often not taking place when needed. Another finding is that translation tends to be equally available throughout the various departments and units in a given hospital. Yet, written comments by respondents reflect that there is great difference in the amount and quality of translation services available in different regions and in different individual medical facilities. And the third major conclusion of our study is that, when translation is provided, 61% of respondents (N = 28 of 46) report the translator as sometimes being just a relative or friend of the patient (see Table 5) despite studies showing relatives and friends to be extremely unreliable and dangerous translators. As we highlighted in our prior article (Rivers, K. T., & Rivers, D. L, 2014), “Ad hoc interpreters can compromise many aspects of patient care” (Ku & Flores, 2005 referencing Flores et al., 2003, para. 9), and “using non-professional interpreters such as friends, relatives or children can lead to misinterpretations, omissions, and additions, even dangers to the person in need of treatment” (National Health Service, 2013, para. 2). All translating is very difficult and inevitably includes some errors, however “Mistakes were most likely to occur when an ad hoc interpreter was used, such as a family member or hospital employee with limited medical background” (Kritz, 2010, n.p).

**Limitations**

A limitation for this research is the moderately small sample size of 67 respondents, and the fact that only a fairly small number of them were highly experienced RNs (7). The methodology was a cross-sectional survey which has a relatively minor limitation in that it relies upon the respondent’s memories of mostly recent events. The research would have greater generalizability if it were a larger study and covered a larger expanse of our vast state.

**Implications for the Future**

An implication of our study for the future of medical care providers is that they need, if at all feasible, to begin marshalling resources, financial and otherwise, toward utilizing much more widely the high-quality interactive video teleconferencing translation services that are currently used in the wealthier facilities. They also need to become more aware of the availability of very useful low-cost tools such as the underused “I Speak” poster or card.

A prevalent theme among nurses and nursing students in our study is a call for more foreign language instruction. Respondents repeatedly wrote replies such as “I would like to learn Spanish and utilize it in my occupation,” or “It's frustrating; need to learn Spanish.” As a partial solution, they propose that the hospitals and other medical facilities provide foreign language instruction as part of their continuing education. As one respondent opined, “I think employers should offer free Spanish, optional for those
wanting to learn Spanish. It would better this area’s quality of care. CE [Continuing Education] hours for sure.” The providers could also enter into beneficial agreements and partnerships with their local colleges and universities in order to guarantee that the next generation of nurses be proficient in a variety of foreign languages.

The authors would like to explore future research with larger sample groups of nurses, student nurses, and anyone else with personal and reliable information, especially of a first-hand nature. Additionally, the authors would seek to look into the enforcement or lack of enforcement of medical translation laws and regulations in the U.S. Various regulatory agencies and professional accreditors need to be queried about how they assess and evaluate the existence of translation services in medical facilities, and what encouragements or punishments they mete out.

If there is one final, glaring reality of the current linguistic situation in healthcare settings that needs to be reiterated, it is that many healthcare providers are still dodging their responsibility to offer medical translation services. Clear multilingual communication is a great aid to effective medical care, not just a problem or impediment to be circumvented if possible. It is hard to provide good communication in any number of languages, but that does not mean that the challenge should be avoided. Even in the busiest of circumstances, quality of care should not be unavoidably compromised. Providers always claim that they are striving for improved care, not just minimally adequate care. That should apply to linguistically hampered patients, including the poor, and not just the wealthier, English-proficient clients. In many cases, the patient in question, who primarily speaks Spanish or some other foreign language, does understand some English, and accordingly the healthcare provider may be technically within the law to communicate just in English with that patient. However, as one of our respondents commented, “These patients had a better comprehension of information when spoken to them in their native tongue.” Similarly, a recent article (Domrose, C., 2013) about nursing students who minor in useful subjects such as global studies or foreign languages reports the following:

> Because she had minored in Spanish at Villanova, Sarah Sheerin, RN, BSN, now a staff nurse in the neuro-cardiac ICU at Bryn Mawr Hospital in Pennsylvania, said she was able to help a Cuban-born patient who had received a difficult diagnosis. The woman spoke English, but when Sheerin addressed her in her native language, her face lit up, Sheerin said. ‘She said it made a big difference to her. I felt like she felt more comfortable with me, like she could ask all the questions she wanted to ask.’ (p.23)

Nurses, doctors, social workers, and other healthcare professionals who studied some Spanish (or other language) in school will need continuous refresher courses in order to keep up their linguistic ability and acquire the medical vocabulary in that language required for highly competent communication in the medical workplace. One of our own respondents remarked, “I’m picking up the Spanish I once knew, but I am a long ways from being able to give awesome care to these patients.” And as our medical facilities receive more and more patients with limited or no English, our entire healthcare system will find itself farther and farther away from being able to offer the “awesome care” that for so long has been the hallmark of American medicine. Only an improved emphasis on language in the workplace can keep our healthcare at the high standard of which the health professions have been justifiably proud.
References


### Tables

#### Table 1
Characteristics of Survey Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
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</table>

#### Table 2
Respondent Age Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>71.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 &amp; over</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 3
Respondent Knowledge of Requirements for Medical Translations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Requires Translation (N/%)</th>
<th>Does Not Require Translation (N/%)</th>
<th>Missing (N/%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joint Commission</td>
<td>39/58.2</td>
<td>26/38.8</td>
<td>2/3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centers for Medicare/Medicaid</td>
<td>46/68.7</td>
<td>19/28.3</td>
<td>2/3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ObamaCare</td>
<td>45/67.2</td>
<td>20/29.8</td>
<td>2/3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Law</td>
<td>38/56.7</td>
<td>27/40.3</td>
<td>2/3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>30/44.8</td>
<td>35/52.2</td>
<td>2/3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 4
Respondent Witnessing Medical Translations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Translation done as required (N/%)</th>
<th>Translation required but NOT done (N/%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 times</td>
<td>25/37.3</td>
<td>29/43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5times</td>
<td>30/44.7</td>
<td>28/41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 times</td>
<td>5/7.5</td>
<td>3/4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;10 times</td>
<td>5/7.5</td>
<td>4/5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2/3.0</td>
<td>3/4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67/100.0</td>
<td>67/100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5
Person Who Performed the Medical Translation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Times that Respondents Witnessed Translation (N/%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relative of Patient</td>
<td>20/43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend of Patient</td>
<td>8/17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RN</td>
<td>15/32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LVN</td>
<td>12/26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse Aide/Orderly</td>
<td>14/30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Nurse</td>
<td>11/24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Translator On Staff</td>
<td>16/35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Translator Not On Staff</td>
<td>6/13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing: N=22 (31.3%) These respondents did not witness translation being performed and hence did not proceed to complete the survey questions evaluating quality of patient translation. Note that percentages do not equal 100% because each respondent may have seen translating performed by more than one type of translator.

Table 6
Respondent Knowledge of Which Languages Required Medical Translations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASL</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farsi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandarin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing: N=22 (32.8%) These respondents did not witness translation being performed and hence did not proceed to complete the survey questions evaluating quality of patient translation or observation of languages spoken.
Arriving at a New Normal:
Married Couples Adjust to Their Child’s Diagnosis of Autism

Sandra J. Romo
California Baptist University
Abstract
This study explored how married couples adjusted to the autism diagnosis of their child. Through qualitative research, it was determined that married couples adjusted to the diagnosis of their child by creating a new normal for their family.

Introduction
Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) affects children in epidemic proportions. Data indicated that 1 in 88 children have an autism diagnosis, a rate that has increased by 78 percent in the past decade (Falco, 2012). Reports also indicated that 1 in 50 school-age children have autism (Falco, 2012). Autism is a neurological developmental disorder that is characterized by deficiencies in communication and social interaction, as well as ritualized and repetitive behaviors (NIMH, 2012). Experts agree that autistic individuals exhibit unique characteristics caused by the disorder and, essentially, two people with autism are not the same. People with autism have severe and pervasive development of reciprocal social interaction, associated with impairment in either verbal or nonverbal communication skills or stereotyped repetitive behaviors (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

Autism affects parents, unlike any other childhood developmental delay. The parents of autistic children set out to embark through parenthood subscribing to societal and cultural norms. Many experienced the joys of pregnancy, the adjustment to living with an infant, and unique experiences in their toddler’s life. Then all of a sudden everything they planned and hoped for was gone because of one diagnosis: ASD.

Much like any serious medical condition or traumatic life-changing event, autism is not any different. Many parents know little about autism at the time of their child’s diagnosis, and health professionals, usually, give parents little information about their child’s prognosis (Hall & Graff, 2011). In fact, one of the scariest things about the autism diagnosis is that it is not routinely discussed among parents, unless they are affected by the disorder. It is not something that most parents seem to want to talk about, either. Autism is rarely included in the packet of information new parents receive as they leave the hospital. Instead, it is brought up around two years of age when most pediatricians routinely screen for the disorder at a 24-month physical (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2012). If something shows up as abnormal during the autism screening process, then pediatricians usually refer parents for a formal diagnosis to be completed by a multidisciplinary panel that usually consists of a neurologist, psychologist, audiologist, psychiatrist, speech pathologist, occupational therapist, and developmental pediatrician (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2012).

The diagnosis process is tedious, strenuous, and emotional for parents. There are discrepancies in the diagnosis period for a child with autism. The National Institute for Mental Health reported that the autism diagnosis process is three to six months (NIMH, 2012). However, many parents reported that the process took at least one year and up to two years to receive a diagnosis. A delay in the diagnosis process prolonged the start of therapeutic services. This led to frustration and stress among couples who went through the autism diagnosis process with their child (Hutton & Carron, 2005).

For parents, autism spectrum disorder is one of the scariest diagnoses for their child to receive (Neely-Barnes, Hall, Roberts, & Graff, 2011). I know this was my experience. My husband and I found out about our daughter’s autism shortly after her second
birthday. It was the scariest moment in our lives, as we felt helpless and cried together. To say the least, we were blindsided by the diagnosis. We were told that everything that made our daughter unique, special, and whom she was, was a result of autism. In that instant everything about our daughter seemed wrong. Our identity—who we were as a couple, as parents, and as a family—was changed forever. At the time, we had no idea that we had to construct a new normal to adjust to the diagnosis. All we thought about was the grief we felt about the loss of what we wanted for Emma and who we thought she was.

**Purpose of the Study**
The purpose of this study is to conduct qualitative research to investigate married couples who are parents of autistic children to learn about their experiences during and immediately following the autism diagnosis period. Quantitative research has been conducted about parental stress when raising a child with autism, parenting challenges with autistic children, as well as how parents cope with their child’s autism diagnosis. Most research conducted about parents of autistic children is related to the parent-child relationship and not the spousal relationship between the parents of the autistic child. Hartley et al. (2010) reported that the prevalence of divorce was significantly higher (23.25 percent versus 13.81 percent) among parents with autistic children than parents without an autistic child (p. 452).

There is little information about the process that couples utilized to adjust to raising a child with autism as a dyadic unit (Johnson, 2012). Questions such as, How do married couples work through the diagnosis period together? or What are the information needs of married couples during the autism diagnosis period of their child? have not been adequately addressed in research. Qualitative research about autism, communication, and families is sparse. Avid, Griffin, and Brough (2000) stated, “There is virtually no empirical research on how parents come to cope successfully with receiving a diagnosis of autism and adjust to the diagnosis” (p. 221). Quantitative research would only scratch the surface and not provide the details, insights, and stories of the couples who experienced the autism diagnosis period for their child. Thus, qualitative research is needed to learn from parents who are affected by autism on a daily basis. Information about a topic is best received from the source (Harrower, 2012). This study aims to do that. The following research question will be addressed through formal interviews: How do married couples adjust to the autism diagnosis of their child?

**Literature Review**

**Stress and Autism**
Stress is the body’s natural reaction to threatening situations, and it affects everyone (Ehrlich, 2012). Stress is a normal experience that affects many people at least once. Mulligan, Steel, MacCulloch, and Nicholas (2010) stated: “For parents of a child with ASD, the uncertainty surrounding the diagnosis and course of ASD combined with the emotional distress related to coping with their child’s symptoms such as problems with communication, emotional expression and antisocial behaviors can make diagnosis a uniquely stressful experience for parents” (p. 114). The literature reported that higher stress levels are experienced and that chronic stress is more prevalent among parents who have autistic children when compared to parents of typically developed children (Avid et al., 2000). It was reported that mothers experienced greater stress immediately following the autism diagnosis period than fathers did. This stress was reported to be
equivalent to post-traumatic stress syndrome for many mothers (Seltzer, Greenberg, Jinkuk, Smith, Almeida, Coe, & Stawski, 2010). Flippin and Crais (2011) explained that fathers are significantly underrepresented in autism research and as participants in therapeutic service for their autistic children. Hall and Graff (2011) found that maternal stress is one of the highest reported experiences between couples with an autistic child (p. 224).

**Information Needs and Coping**

Johnson (2012) explained that having an autistic child could have negative impacts on the family system, especially between the mother and the father of an autistic child (p. 555). Married couples must make adjustments to their daily lives and long-term plans for their family to cope with an autism diagnosis of their child (Neely-Barnes et al., 2011). Hall and Graff (2011) stated that parents of autistic children sought information about autism to relieve stress, cope with the diagnosis, and discover resources and support for their autistic child (p.193). Families with an autistic child desire to understand the disorder, and this helps parents cope and adjust to their child’s diagnosis of autism (Offit, 2010).

In order for parents to adequately cope with their child’s autism, they must have information to help them make decisions about treatment methods (Neely-Barnes et al., 2011). Health professionals often provide minimal information about autism and a prognosis to avoid giving false hope, because the etiology of autism is unknown (Feinstein, 2009). This might be difficult for parents and could cause stress as they cope. Thus, the need for information exists among parents of autistic children, and they will search for information until satisficing has occurred. Satisficing is defined as, “an information competency whereby individuals assess how much information is good enough to satisfy their information need” (Prahba, Connaway, Olszewski, & Jenkins, 2007). Prahba et al. (2007) explained that, “when individuals satisfice, they compare the benefits of obtaining ‘more information’ against the additional cost and effort of continuing to search for information” (p. 4). Essentially, Prabha et al. (2007) stated that people will find information that will make them feel good about what they found (p. 4).

As parents adjust and cope with the diagnosis of their autistic child, stress is reduced (Twoy et al., 2007). When stress is reduced, parents felt better about their child’s diagnosis and felt more satisfied about the information. Parents received information about autism from media outlets, books, movies, autism advocacy organizations, social media and online communities, blogs and the Internet (Feinstein, 2009). Offit (2010) stated that parents are tired of going through hours of behavioral therapy, the slow pace of medical research, and watching their children improve at a snail’s pace. Parents seek reputable and controversial information as a coping mechanism (p. 6).

**Family Culture, Identity, and Autism**

Culture frames the worldview and helps make sense of what people know. Culture is a dynamic, yet stable, set of goals, beliefs, and attitudes shared by a group of people, (Ravindran & Myers, 2012). Culture has a role in processing a diagnosis and the acceptance of the child’s autism (Ennis-Cole, Durodoye, & Harris, 2013). Parents of autistic children typically found out about the autism diagnosis when the child was about three years old (NIMH, 2013). These parents culturally identified with parents of typically developed children, and then lost that identity with their child’s autism diagnosis.

The news of a child’s autism diagnosis is traumatic for the parents, because parents are
forced to learn a new way (McCarthy, 2009). Married couples with an autistic child must seek a new identity to maintain a role in society (Caruso, 2010). Spouses must work together to establish a new family identity and learn new cultural norms in the autism community (Edward, 2012). As spouses sifted through mounds of information about autism and adjusted to new stressors in their family, they assumed new identities because the dynamic of their relationship changed (Siklos & Kerns, 2007). Identities are established, maintained, and changed frequently within relationships (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011). Littlejohn and Foss (2011) explained, “with the important people in your life, you will constantly negotiate mutually acceptable answers to the question, who are we and what is the nature of our relationship?” (p. 242). The shock comes from the cognitive dissonance felt at the loss of current identity and the need to find a new family identity.

Methods
To understand how married couples felt about the autism diagnosis process and the time immediately after learning about their child’s autism, it was decided to let the couples share their stories about their experiences. It was important to gain insight to what it was like to go through the diagnosis process and how it impacted the marriage and family life. This ethnographic qualitative study sought to share the experiences of married couples (still married) who have gone through the autism diagnosis period. Using a reflexive approach to qualitative research by sharing the stories of the participants, the author hopes to shed light on what the diagnosis period is like and answer the question: How do married couples adjust to their child’s autism diagnosis?

An interview guide was used in each interview with five questions; however, the primary purpose of the interviews was to let the couples share their stories about the diagnosis process, individually and together as a couple. The interview was prepared ahead of time, submitted to and approved by the Institutional Review Board at Regent University in Virginia Beach, Virginia. Participants gave informed consent to participate in two interviews. The first interview took place between the participant and the author. The second interview took place between the married couple and the author. The author conducted all interviews by phone or in person and they were recorded using a Sony digital voice recorder. All interviews were transcribed using Express Scribe software and Microsoft Word. The author utilized the stories of the participants to triangulate themes that were found to explain what the autism diagnosis period was like for parents and how they adjusted to the diagnosis. Figure 1 lists the interview guide questions used in this study.

(See Figure 1)

Subjects
The study utilized purposeful selection of three married couples, who were married for at least five years and had at least one child who had some type of autism spectrum disorder diagnosis for at least two years at the time of the interviews. The author decided not to interview parents going through the diagnosis or couples who just finished the diagnosis process. Johnson (2012) stated that the autism diagnosis process is stressful, traumatic, and confusing for parents (p. 558). It was determined that it would be difficult for parents to share their stories, if they were currently going through the process. The names of couples 1 and 2 and their children have been changed to give anonymity to their responses and maintain confidentiality.

As a parent of an autistic child, I participated in the study, and my spouse did too. I have...
bracketed my feelings in the context of this study to remain objective and to provide an ethical representation of the research. However, my relation to the research question and topic of the study should be noted. My husband and I chose to use our actual names and our child’s actual name in the study. Our interviewer was trained how to use the interview guide and conducted the interview in person. The interviewer holds a doctor of education degree from La Sierra University in Riverside, California, and understood the sensitive nature of scholarly research. The author of the study conducted the interviews for couple 1 and couple 2 and transcribed all interviews. There was no compensation given for participation in the study. Figure 2 is a table representation of the participants in the study.

(See Figure 2)

**Couple 1**
Ron and Karen have been married for 21 years and have four children. Their children are 18, 17, 11, and 5 years old. The couple resides in Pennsylvania. Ron works as a mass communication professor. Karen, by occupation, is an autism support teacher, but prefers to be known as a mother, first and foremost. Karen was poignantly about the notation of her primary title, “Mom, first and foremost” (Interview #2 Field Notes). Their youngest children—Jack, 11, and Allen, 5—have diagnoses on the autism spectrum. Allen was diagnosed in 2011 with autism spectrum disorder. Ron and Karen adopted Allen in 2011 and the adoption was finalized in 2013. Jack is Ron and Karen’s natural child. Jack was diagnosed in 2013 with childhood disintegrative disorder (CDD) after going through the diagnosis process for eight years. CDD has autistic-like characteristics but is different because skills a child lost are not regained, whereas with therapeutic services autistic children can regain some skills (Interview #2 Field Notes).

**Couple 2**
Dan and Leah have been married for 22 years, live in California, and have two children, 21 and 15 years old. Dan works as a correctional officer and Leah is a licensed vocational nurse. Their son, Dale, is 15 and has autism spectrum disorder. Dale is the natural child of Dan and Leah. Dale was misdiagnosed in 2000 with mental retardation, and in 2003 it was determined that instead he had autism spectrum disorder.

**Couple 3**
Mark and Sandra have been married for seven years, live in California, and have two children, four and five years old. Sandra is the author and primary researcher in this study, as previously mentioned. Mark works as a correctional officer, and Sandra works as an assistant professor of journalism/public relations. Their daughter, Emma, is four years old and has autism spectrum disorder. Emma is the natural child of Mark and Sandra. Emma was diagnosed at risk for autism spectrum disorder in 2011 at two years old. In 2012 she was formally diagnosed with autism spectrum disorder.

**Findings and Themes**

**The Diagnosis**
The diagnosis process began, in large part, by one of the mothers in the study noticing that something was not right with her child. Leah explained, “I just knew something wasn’t right. He wasn’t like his sister, that was ok, but I knew it wasn’t right and I couldn’t figure out what it was” (Interview #3, July 3, 2013). Karen mentioned that “He [Jack] was with us for about a day and I knew” (Interview #2, June 25, 2013). While I noticed that “She [Emma] wouldn’t talk. I had no idea why she wouldn’t talk and just...
wanted her to start talking, that’s why I brought it up to the doctor. But I really didn’t think she had autism” (Interview #5, July 5, 2013). Each of the mothers mentioned that they noticed something was not right, but did not indicate that what they, initially, noticed was autism. All of the mothers in the study took the lead and asked their pediatricians about their concerns for their child. However, Leah and I mentioned that we did not expect autism. Karen is an autism support teacher and mentioned, “I have been around autism for years. So it took me about a day to realize that Jack was probably on the spectrum” (Interview #2, June 25, 2013). The moment of realization was different for each mother. Leah, first, was told that her son had mental retardation. She explained that it was not until about three years later that she was told he actually had autism. Her reaction was, “What the heck is that? I had no idea what that was and was shocked [that] for three years I thought my son had mental retardation” (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). While somewhat similar to Leah and in contrast to Karen, I was asked to “fill out a piece of paper about Emma’s behavior. I noticed at the top of the paper that it said autism spectrum inventory checklist or something like that. That was the first time I realized they were screening her [Emma] for autism” (Interview #6, June 28, 2013).

Fathers’ experiences were quite different. Every father in the study mentioned that his wife initiated discourse about their child’s symptoms, and none of the fathers thought that something was seriously wrong with his child. Mark stated that he thought his wife was overreacting about her [Emma’s] symptoms, but admitted that deep down he feared his wife could be right (Interview #5, June 28, 2013). Ron learned about the potential diagnosis from his wife and explained: “She told me at one point and I wasn’t ready to listen to it. I wound up having to, though. I think it took over a week to really understand what she was saying. She would say something and then I’d think about it and come back and ask her some more questions. I found out through her” (Interview #1, June 25, 2013).

Dan explained that he did not want to believe that was something wrong with his son. Dan said, “I knew that something was wrong, but wouldn’t admit it to Leah. So, I told her to stop worrying. I wanted to protect her and Dale, so I didn’t listen and told her to stop talking about it” (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). Husbands also let their wives lead the family through the diagnosis process. Littlejohn and Foss (2011) explained that in relational patterns, successful relationships are complementary. That is, they exist when one of the two communicators respond in opposing ways (p. 231). In the beginning of the diagnosis process wives took the lead and husbands responded by following their wives. If the husbands had tried to take the lead from their wives, conflict would have ensued, according to relational patterns of interaction theory (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011).

After initial communication about parental concerns was expressed to healthcare providers, each couple experienced the diagnosis process differently. Couple #1 was told, at one point during an evaluation, that Jack could not have autism, because he smiled at his parents. They were also told that because he was passed around through so many families before they adopted him, the professionals were hesitant to evaluate him. Karen stated, “I was frustrated that I really felt he had it and they weren’t willing to see it.” Karen explained that “When you work with autism for as long as I have, certain things stick out,” and she saw those things in Jack (Interview #3, July 3, 2013). Couple #1 was told that Allen had some developmental delay, but they had to continue to push for further testing. Karen explained, “I had to fight quite a bit to get him in, not fight in a
mean way, but to be persistent, to get him neurological testing, and it is expensive. Finally, they did it, and found that he has belonged in a severe neurological classroom” (Interview #2, July 3, 2013). Ron and Karen both explained that it was tough, going through the diagnosis process.

Couple #2 was initially told that Dale (at three years old) had mental retardation. Leah explained that it took almost a year to get evaluated after she mentioned her concerns to her pediatrician when Dale was 24 months old. Couple #2 explained that they went through almost three years of therapies to help him learn how to function with his perceived mental retardation. Dan and Leah were only told (by the special education teacher) that Dale might have autism (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). Leah explained that Dale’s teacher asked her if she had ever heard of autism and that she taught children with autism for years and thought Dale should be evaluated for autism. After that Leah and Dan attempted to get Dale evaluated for autism and months later they found out he did not have mental retardation, but was autistic (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). Dan said, “We were shocked at the change in diagnosis. It was hard for us to react. We did not know if we should be relieved or not that he did not have MR [mental retardation], because we did not know what autism was” (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). Dan and Leah stated that it was difficult going through the diagnosis process, because they did not get any help and none of the healthcare professionals explained anything to them.

In our experience, the process of the autism diagnosis for our daughter took one year. We were told fairly quickly that Emma was at risk for autism. I recalled, “We were not really sure how to handle that. We thought either she was, or she was not, autistic” (Interview #7, June 28, 2013). We were surprised that they would not tell us if she formally had autism. Mark explained, “I remember wondering why they kept saying she was at risk for autism. I thought why couldn’t they just tell us?” (Interview #5, June 27, 2013). We had to wait until Emma turned three to receive an official diagnosis that would be accepted in the medical community and with schools. In the year it took to receive a formal diagnosis, Emma was evaluated by 10 different healthcare professionals. Collectively, they made a formal diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder.

**Frustration**

Frustration is a chronic state of dissatisfaction with unfilled needs or unresolved problems. Frustration was a recurrent theme in the literature. Participants expressed the term frustration in many different situations while they were in the process of adjusting to their child’s autism diagnosis. One area of frustration the couples felt was toward the professionals they had to work with during the diagnosis process. Couple # 2 stated, “They would just treat the symptoms. They never talked about what they could do, why this is happening, or what we can do to make it better. They never really talked about the whole diagnosis of autism; they just treated the symptoms of autism” (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). In my experience it was frustrating to see that our daughter was just another file on someone’s desk. It was disappointing to see that they would act like they care about us, but did not show that in their actions. Karen mentioned, “I was frustrated that I really felt he had it and they weren’t willing to see it” (Interview #2, June 25, 2013). Avid et al. (2007) stated that the autism diagnosis period is frustrating for parents because it places taxing demands that ask them to redefine their family and child (p. 225).

The second type of frustration was experienced immediately after the diagnosis
process. This frustration was related to the community immediately around the couple of a newly diagnosed child. Karen mentioned that she was disappointed and frustrated with how people acted toward families of children with special needs. She would always hear them say that they would help or be there, but would not follow up with their actions. Karen explained, “I would get frustrated when I was told that my kids are too high maintenance and he [Jack] was taking up too much of their time at the daycare, so they decided to dismiss him. It’s just sad and disappointing” (Interview #2, June 25, 2013). My experience was similar to Karen’s experience. In my interview, it was mentioned, “It took awhile for us to take Emma on outings or errands. She had a hard time understanding the social norms of a restaurant or places like that. So, we would get disapproving looks from people when she would not act the way they wanted her to” (Interview #6, June 28, 2013). Dan mentioned that it was frustrating that people did not understand his son. Dan explained, “I got use to the looks and way people would act in public, but was frustrated that they would not try to understand my son” (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). Regardless of what caused the frustration, it existed among the couples in the study and impacted how they adjusted to the autism diagnosis. Dan mentioned he got use to the looks, and my experience was similar because we minimized taking our daughter out in public for a while. Thus, frustration was evident within the adjustment phase couples went through for their child’s diagnosis.

**Gender Differences**

Gender played a role in evaluating how couples adjusted to the child’s autism diagnosis within the study. Men and women handle stressful situations differently. Women typically respond to bad news or stress by trying to nurture and help those around them, and men subscribe to the “fight or flight” mentality (Nazario, 2010). In the case of the autism diagnosis, it would seem natural for the mother to try to nurture and help those around her—in this case, her child. Gender differences were seen in different ways throughout the interview process. In all the couples, the wife was the leader for the family as they navigated through the diagnosis and adjusted to their “new normal” after the diagnosis. Samadi, McConkey, and Kelley (2012) explained that gender differences in the experiences of diagnosis are not uncommon between men and women. In fact, within the Iranian culture, there are detrimental societal repercussions on the women when a married couple produces an autistic child (p. 343). Husbands may not have assumed an active role in the process but passively provided support for their families. An overview of the male experiences of the diagnosis process and adjustment period immediately following the diagnosis was explored. Dan explained that he was very ignorant and acted inappropriately in the beginning as they adjusted to Dale’s diagnosis. Dan told his reaction to the news of Dale’s autism diagnosis:

> Actually, I am going to be honest. I didn’t expect it [the diagnosis]. We actually had to separate. I thought it was all her fault, because MR [mental retardation] runs in her family. You know, being ignorant at the time and not having an understanding of it, I was scared and I ran away. I wanted nothing to do with it at the time. I ignored it, and I ignored my wife and son for almost two years (Interview #4, July 3, 2013).

Mark described his experiences from a male perspective, “At first, it was a disappointment, and I felt like someone cut off my hand and I was going to have to live without having a hand. And I was never going to get my hand back. I wondered what I
Ron shared how he could not cope with the diagnosis:

The truth is I feel very powerless and I feel a sense of weakness during it, because you want to be there and be able to protect them and take care of them. And I feel fairly inept and these are kind of the raw feelings, and when you are there and you don’t know what the words mean necessarily and it isn’t exactly as clear as what I am saying. It is definitely about power and not feeling and like you have any control (Interview #1, June 25, 2013).

The male perspective demonstrated that the husbands who participated in the study felt that the news of the diagnosis was an attack on the power they held in their families and with themselves. The feelings that each husband experienced was related to a feeling of loss of power, and that adjustment had to take place to cope with the diagnosis of the child’s autism.

The female perspective was quite different, within the study. Wives took the lead in establishing care and therapies for their autistic children. This is not uncommon, as a paternal involvement within autism interventions is notoriously low (Flippin & Crais, 2011). Mothers immediately assumed the role of an advocate. Ron described that it was his wife that has fought and advocated for his children every step of the way to get them help (Interview #1, June 25, 2013). In my experience, in the beginning, I felt lost and unsure of what to do. However, I hid those feelings, because I knew I needed to get my daughter help. Leah explained that she was scared during the diagnosis process, but was determined to help her son (Interview #4, July 3, 2013). In each case, the wife was determined to get her child help. This is a raw and real feeling that mothers experience daily. However, with autism the desire to get help is stronger, because in the beginning families are not sure what to do and how to handle the diagnosis.

Become Informed

Each couple expressed the need for parents to learn about autism once their child is diagnosed. Couple #2 and Couple #3 did not know much about autism at the time of their children’s diagnosis. Autism advocacy groups work diligently to spread information about autism to the general public via mass media, however, it is frequently reported that parents’ primary source of shock at the news of their child’s autism diagnosis is because they do not know what autism is (Caruso, 2010). In the case of couples #2 and #3, there was a period of time that they had to become informed about autism and their child. Leah and Dan (Couple #2) explained that they were referred to their regional center’s library to learn about autism.

Leah described their experience about becoming informed:

We would go to the library together and check out books and watch movies there to try to learn about Dale’s autism. But, it didn’t help much, and all it did was scare us! I mean, it told us about autism, but all of the movies and things written in the books were full of bad news. If we knew back then what we know today about autism, we wouldn’t have been so scared and stressed out for our son (Interview #4, July 3, 2013).

Couple #3 (me and my husband) sought out information on our own. I spent a lot of time sifting through anything I could get my hands on about autism. My interview explained, “I wanted to read whatever I could about autism. I wanted to watch movies about autism
to see how Hollywood portrayed autistics within society. I felt that the more I read or watched about autism, the more I would understand Emma” (Interview #6, June 28, 2013). Mark explained how he attained information about autism, “I pretty much read anything Sandra gave me. She was constantly getting books and reading them. When she would give them to me, I read them and that’s how I learned about everything” (Interview #5, June 28, 2013). In my situation, the more I learned about autism, the better informed I was and could work through the diagnosis and therapeutic options.

Couple #1 had a different experience with becoming informed about autism. Karen works as an autism support teacher and teaches classes about autism education at the undergraduate and graduate level. Karen explained that she already had all the information she needed about autism. She said she had been teaching children with autism for years before the diagnosis of her two children and knew a lot about it. Ron said that he would go through information Karen gave him about the autism, but then said, “She was the expert on this, so I just sit back and let her lead” (Interview #1, June 25, 2013). However, with Allen’s recent diagnosis of childhood disintegrative disorder (CDD), Karen has begun to research and find information about CDD to help her son. Karen described it, “I look at a lot of research studies, because in the research there are a lot of the cutting-edge treatments out there. So I look at that to see what’s out there. I look at children’s hospitals and what they are doing and helping children with CDD or even about autism in general” (Interview #2, June 25, 2013). Neely-Barnes et al. (2011) stated, “In order for families to make effective decisions about treatment for their child, they need sufficient information and a clear understanding of that information” (p. 214).

Each of the couples practiced information-gathering techniques to help them adjust to the autism diagnosis and to become active participants in their child’s treatments.

Discussion

Kapp and Brown (2011) explained that families with children who have autism must adjust to the diagnosis to remain intact. It was found that families with autistic children need social support, spousal relationship, family time, and routines to adjust to the diagnosis of an autistic child (p. 459). Families must create a new normal to adjust and survive the autism diagnosis (Interviews #2 & #3). Immediately following the autism diagnosis of a child, families go through an adjustment phase (Hall & Graff, 2011). This reduces cognitive dissonance experienced during the diagnosis period. Festinger (1957) explained that cognitive dissonance is the feeling of discomfort experienced when a person holds to conflicting beliefs (p. 24). Couples must work together to reduce cognitive dissonance and arrive at a new normal. Figure 3 describes the process that married couples use to adjust to the autism diagnosis.

(See Figure 3)

Couples who have gone through the four stages in Figure 3 will arrive at a new normal. Participants in the study described the importance of working through the process cycle in Figure 3 to arrive at a new normal, where couples must work together to make appropriate adjustments in their relationship and assume new identities. The couple is more than their individual identities; they must attend to their relational identity, as well (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011), to attain a new normal. Participant experiences of the process cycle are discussed below. When speaking with couple #1, Karen described arriving at a new normal:

You have to get to the point that you find a new normal. If you don’t and
you keep thinking that you just want them [an autistic child] to get back to
the way they were, that is crazy and it is very difficult to get through that.
That marriage and family is going to have a difficult time. The reality is that
you are not going to get back to the way you thought it should be. You
have to accept a new normal. You have to be willing to adapt and adjust to
certain losses that you need to just accept (Interview #3 July 3, 2013).

Leah explained that she and Dan arrived at a new normal nearly 10 years after the
diagnosis:

Nobody ever guided us or helped us, we did it all on our own. But going
through a support group helped us so much and is so important. It helps
when going through this process. Dan and I actually isolated ourselves the
first 10 years. We didn't go anywhere or talk to anybody about it or get any
help or support from anybody. We were so focused on Dale and his
challenges and getting him to his appointments and the school and the
activities that helped him (Interview #3, July 3, 2013).

Community and support groups are an important part for adjusting to the diagnosis and
constructing a new family identity (Kapp & Brown, 2011). It was reported that the most
resilient families were the families who sought out community and support groups to get
through the diagnosis (p. 449). The autism diagnosis creates a period where families
struggle with their identity. They have to deal with the fact that they no longer are a part
of the community of parents that they have subscribed to prior to the diagnosis and
have to construct an identity and new norms within a new group of special needs
parents.

In my experience, my husband and I had to realize that we were never getting back the
lives we had before the diagnosis. We quickly realized that what we had planned for our
children and our family life changed. Our focus was on Emma and her development, so
we had little time to think about what we lost. However, Mark mentioned, “We haven’t
really lost all that much. We are still her parents and she [Emma] will still have a good
life. We lost the person we thought Emma would be, and even that is a little selfish. This
has taught me that Emma is her own person, and she will always be her own person,
not what we want her to be. We just want the best for her” (Interview #7, July 10, 2013).
Karen mentioned, “I know that divorce rate is high among parents with autistic children.
However, they must arrive at a new normal for their family to fully adjust to their new
life” (Interview #2, June 25, 2013). Once families have adjusted to their new normal,
they will have adjusted to their child’s diagnosis.

Further Research and Conclusion
This study focused on married couples and their adjustment to the autism diagnosis of
their child or children. This study did not consider sibling adjustment to the autism
diagnosis or how the whole family adjusts to the diagnosis of an autistic child. This
study was limited in its interview method. Phone interviews were the primary method
and ethnographic research could provide stronger narratives from the participants.
Studying this topic ethnographically could allow the reader to understand the marriage
of parents of autistic children deeper and would provide a broader context of what their
family, daily, and couple life is like, by spending physical time with the participants.
The goal of this study was to explore how married couples adjust to the autism diagnosis of their children. The purpose was to explore this qualitatively to tell the stories and share the experiences of the couples. Three themes emerged that demonstrated how married couples adjusted to the diagnosis of their child: the diagnosis, the frustration, and becoming informed. A fourth theme—new normal—was introduced in the discussion portion of the study. To arrive at a new normal, married couples must complete each stage in the process cycle shown in Figure 3. When a couple goes through the diagnosis together, experiences frustration immediately following the diagnosis, then becomes informed about autism and their child’s needs, they can adjust to a new normal.

References


### Figure 1. Interview Guide Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Interview Guide Questions</th>
<th>Couple Interview Guide Questions</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tell me how you found out your child had autism. How old was your child at the time of diagnosis?</td>
<td>1. Tell me what it was like for the two of you as a couple to find out you had a child who has autism?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. What led up to the diagnosis process? Example, Did you have any inclination that your child might have autism or a developmental disorder?</td>
<td>2. How long have you been married? How long at the time of diagnosis?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. How did you deal with the diagnosis? Did you seek out information? If so, from where and was it helpful? Example, books, movies?</td>
<td>3. Was there a change in communication between the two of you as a couple as you went through the diagnosis? How did you communicate with each other about the diagnosis?</td>
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<td>4. What information did professionals provide during the diagnosis to you? Did you find it useful?</td>
<td>4. How did you deal as a couple?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What (if any) information did you seek immediately after the diagnosis of your child? Example, books, articles, and support groups.</td>
<td>5. Did one partner lead the other throughout the diagnosis?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How did you adjust to the diagnosis with your spouse?</td>
<td>6. What information did professionals provide to you as parents and a married couple to work through the diagnosis?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. What were some of the most profound experiences you had during the diagnosis process?</td>
<td>7. How did you work together to adjust to the diagnosis?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. What have you learned about each other during the diagnosis process?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. How has the autism diagnosis of your child impacted how you communicate in your relationship?</td>
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249
Figure 2. Study Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Couple #1</th>
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<th>Couple #3</th>
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<td>Dan</td>
</tr>
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<td>Years Married</td>
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<td>Autistic Support Teacher</td>
<td>Correctional Officer</td>
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<td>5, 11, 17, &amp; 18 yrs</td>
<td>15 &amp; 21 yrs</td>
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<td>Children w/ other needs</td>
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</table>

Figure 3. Adjusting to Autism Diagnosis

- Diagnosis
- Frustration
- Become Informed
- New Normal
The Dream Act

Jessica Serrano (Student)
Central Washington University
Without immigration there would be no United States of America. It was immigrants that inhibited this newly discovered land and shaped the country that we live in today. The Statue of Liberty provides a constant reminder with this quote from Emma Lazarus' sonnet, *New Colossus*, engraved on a plaque:

“…Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your teeming shore.
Send these, the homeless, tempest-tossed to me,
I lift my lamp beside the golden door!”

Today in the United States there is a problem: A large number of young people who were brought into this country at a very young age are being denied equal educational opportunity because they are immigrants whose status is “undocumented”. How this came to be and is a long and convoluted story, but the essential unfairness of the situation has been recognized for some time. The proposed remedy is “The Dream Act”, but after several attempts congressional approval because of its entanglement with other volatile immigration issues. This paper is built around an analysis of the Dream Act's Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT).

The idea of The Dream Act and what it stands for, is most definitely a strength. The New York Times reported that The D.R.E.A.M Act stands for “The Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors Act, [and it] would provide a pathway to legal status for the thousands of undocumented students who graduate from high school each year. On May 11, 2011, Senator Richard Durban (D-IL) and Representative Howard Berman (D-CA) introduced the D.R.E.A.M Act as S. 952 and H.R. 1842, respectively. To date, the DREAM Act has 32 co-sponsors in the Senate and 2 in the House”. The Dream Act was created back in 2010 to establish a pathway to citizenship for young, undocumented immigrants pursuing education or military opportunities.

The Dream Act’s linkage with immigration politics and policy is its greatest weakness. Anti-immigration sentiments in the Border States and the country at large make it nearly impossible for the Republican house to support the proposal. John McCain illustrates the problem he was a co-sponsor for the Dream Act, but became more conservative on immigration issues during his 2008 presidential campaign and continued to do so during his 2010 Senate campaign, where he faced a primary challenge from the right. He voted against cloture for the Dream Act when it came up in late 2010. Like McCain, Republicans cross the board seem to get caught in what Professor Michael A. Olivas calls the “ironic pincers” of being both too much and too little—catching the ire of conservatives who call it “amnesty,” as well as the frustration of immigration supporters who think it could derail the larger battle for CIR. To overcome this weakness the Dream Act would need some serious revisions that would bring back Republicans who supported it in the past while holding Democrats want CIR.

The D.R.E.A.M Act is opportunity: (1) The Dream Act will change the lives of hundreds of thousand young undocumented students, (2) it will fortify ties along the border making the issues of illegal/undocumented immigration less polarized, (3) It will enhance the economy through full employment of the human resources developed by our public schools, and (4) It will deliver on the promise represented by the statue of Liberty by opening up Citizenship to longtime residents, who committed on illegal acts, but have lived and contributed to the American dream.
Threats to the Dream Act grow out of the post 9/11 climate and economy based fears in the Border States. The spirit captured in the most recent Arizona anti-immigration legislation illustrates the threat: The new anti-immigration policy was approved and made official by Gov. Jan Brewer of Arizona signed the nation’s toughest bill on illegal immigration into law. Its aim is to identify, prosecute and deport illegal immigrants. This was a very controversial law that left many minorities in Arizona as well as the rest of the country flabbergasted! How would the government establish racial profiling as actual law? It was indeed the broadest and strictest immigration measure in generations, would make the failure to carry immigration documents a crime and give the police broad power to detain anyone suspected of being in the country illegally. Was it possible that the U.S was taking one step forward with the fact that our government and the people had elected the very first multi-cultural president, but then taking two steps backwards, with going back to racial profiling, something the U.S had overcome in the 1960’s with the civil rights movement? These harsh immigration laws that continue to proliferate require law enforcement to treat innocent students like they are criminals, simply because their parents made a conscience choice to essentially smuggle them into a country illegally, without their knowledge.

In conclusion, it is unfair and unjust for a minor to be held accountable for their parents’ actions; it is also unreasonable and counter-productive because these smuggled “illegal” immigrant children are now grown up, they have been educated in the public schools and are contributing members in American society. The Dream Act will permit educated students who only want to contribute to the country the opportunity to pursue higher education. It all started with impoverished Mexican immigrants, forced by conditions in their home country to go forth in search of a place where they would have the opportunity to be successful contributing members of society, and thus provide their offspring a better life. The Dream Act while giving the children the privileges that they have earned, will realize the hopes their parents had for them.

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DREAM ACT: Summary National Immigration La Center https://nilc.org/dreamsummary.html
Bridging the Cultural Gap in the Foreign Language Teaching

Virginia Shen
Chicago State University
This study demonstrates how culture can be fully incorporated as a vital component of foreign language learning, and how students can develop cultural competency through authentic materials and study broad experience.

For decades, the issue of whether culture should be an integrated component in the foreign language classroom and to what degree it should be integrated has been a constant dispute among teachers of foreign languages. In recent years the teaching of culture is assuming an increasingly important role in the foreign language classroom although some teachers may still argue that culture is a secondary goal and should not be permitted to interfere with basic language instruction. Those instructors who have agreed that culture should be an integrated component of foreign language teaching face the issues of how much culture should be integrated into a language curriculum and how to teach it. Whatever the priorities, cultural instruction should be guided by two basic instructional principles. First, cultural learning activities should be planned as carefully as language learning activities. Second, culture components should be tested as rigorously as language components, lest students assume that cultural knowledge has little or no impact on grades and consequently is not worthy of their attention in or out of the classroom.

The teaching of culture can be twofold: 1. Culture with a capitalized “C”: teaching students to recognize and/or interpret major geographical features, historical events, aesthetic components of the target culture, including architecture, literature, and the arts. 2. Culture with a lower case “c”: teaching students to interpret active everyday cultural patterns such as greetings, eating, shopping, and to act appropriately in everyday situations. The choices to select cultural materials range from supplying students with identifiable cognitive facts about a culture to bringing about changes in their desire or ability to value people who think, dress or act differently from themselves. The most frequently suggested approach to the teaching of culture in American foreign language programs call for a maximum degree of integration of linguistic and cultural topics. Currently, this is most often implemented by integrating culture into a language-based textbook, that is, the text is based primarily on language features, and a variety of cultural information and activities are added. The overwhelming majority of language textbooks, especially at the introductory level, integrate culture throughout the chapters, fusing culture and language as twofold components in vocabulary, sentence structures, and the four language skills.

Culture can be easily integrated in the reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities. Culture should be presented in conjunction with related thematic units and/or closely related vocabulary and grammar content. For example, shopping habits might be discussed following a unit that introduces clothing vocabulary, or the metric system examined following a unit in which numbers are taught. The following activity illustrates how culture can be integrated through reading and writing about the massive transportation of Spain, the AVE. Level of difficulty range between Intermediate Mid and Intermediate High. The general goal is to provide students with basic facts about the Spanish massive transportation so that they will be able to compare it with their own description of a public transportation system. The specific objectives of the activity are: 1. Students will read the given passage and answer in writing the four questions that follow the passage. All answers must be complete sentences. 2. Students will write in English a one-or two-paragraph description of a public transportation system in an
Trenes AVE en España
La sigla AVE se refiere a Alta Velocidad Española, una red de trenes de alta velocidad y gran categoría de España. Como circulan a una velocidad de hasta 300 km/h (186 mph), usted puede viajar entre Madrid y Barcelona en menos de 3 horas. La central del sistema AVE en Madrid es la estación de trenes Puerta de Atocha. La línea Madrid - Valladolid sale de la estación de Chamartín. En Barcelona, los trenes AVE salen de la estación Barcelona Sants.

Rutas
Los trenes AVE recorren las siguientes rutas:

- Madrid-Barcelona (por Guadalajara, Calatayud, Zaragoza, Lérida y Tarragona)
- Madrid-Barcelona-Girona-Figueres Vilafant
- Madrid-Sevilla (por Ciudad Real, Puertollano y Córdoba)
- Madrid-Valladolid (por Segovia)
- Madrid-Huesca (por Guadalajara, Calatayud y Zaragoza)
- Madrid-Málaga (por Ciudad Real, Puertollano, Córdoba y Antequera)
- Barcelona-Sevilla (por Zaragoza, Córdoba y Madrid)
- Barcelona-Málaga (por Zaragoza, Córdoba y Madrid)
- Barcelona-Girona-Figueres Vilafant

Activities:
1. Answer the following questions in Spanish using complete sentences based on the above information.
   a. ¿Qué significa la sigla AVE?
   b. ¿En cuánto tiempo se puede llegar de Madrid a Barcelona en AVE?
   c. ¿Cuántas rutas recorre AVE?
d. ¿Cómo se llama la central del sistema AVE en Madrid?

2. Write in the target language a one-or two-paragraph description of an American public transportation system. Make believe that you are writing this for a foreigner who is taking public transportation.

3. Write a one-paragraph in Spanish comparing the two public transportation systems.

Since vocabulary is often taught in isolation, the teacher needs to ensure that integration takes place. For that purpose, each word should be placed in a meaningful language context; and attention should be placed in its cultural connotation within that context. The French adjective petit, for example, would normally mean “small”; however, it often connotes endearment in certain contexts (ma petite amie is properly translated as “my girl friend”). In Spanish, the diminutives “ito” and “ita” in addition to connoting endearment just as they do smallness, they can also connote subtleness as in “Juan es bajito” (Juan is short). In addition to explaining words that have specific cultural meanings in certain contexts, teachers should also explain words that have English cognates but those meanings are not cultural similar. For example, sale de bain is commonly translated as “bathroom”; however, if sent there, an American in France might find only a bathtub.

Culture should not be treated exclusively in English, and cultural presentations should not be limited to the lecture method. Many cultural topics lend themselves readily to role playing and/or simulation. Selected use of audio units and minidramas can provide students with more opportunities for participation. The following minidrama shows cultural differences at a farmer’s market in France:

Narrator: Two Chinese speaking students are in Toulouse, France for their summer study abroad program. They pass by an open-air farmer’s market where farmers are selling fresh fruits and vegetables.

Mei-Ling: Look at the table of fruits over there… the one where the woman with flannel shirt and overalls is sitting.

Yin-Yin: She has some beautiful grapes. Let’s go over and take a look at them.

Mei-Ling: Wao, look at these fresh grapes here. I bet they must be very sweet! (She starts to move the grapes around. She picks one, and put it in her mouth to try it).

Vendor: (Offended) Eh bien, mesdemoiselles, are you planning on buying all the grapes?

Mei-Ling: Mine, is she really rude? How would I buy any grapes that I don’t even know if they are sweet or sour if I don’t taste them first?

After the minidrama, teacher then can invite students to discuss cultural differences by explaining that in France one does not touch the fruit in a display. Unlike in Chinese speaking countries, customers are often invited to taste fruits before purchasing; the vendors in France select the fruit for you since they have spent much time arranging it. When carefully planned, specific Cultural Days can provide students with meaningful cultural experiences. Teachers need to determine the approximate amount of time or number of days to be spent on culture. On the basis of student interest and the availability of material, they should then identity the most important topics to be covered.
Suggested activities may include a packet of materials which may include vocabulary and useful phrase at the customs, hotel, and restaurant. Ask students to simulate traveling abroad, going through the customs at the airport describing items brought aboard; then checking in at the hotel soliciting information about hotel amenities and near-by tourist points; after hotel check-in, going shopping at an open-air market. Ask students to bargain with vendors and purchase at least three items. Finally, order food and drink at a restaurant. Identical materials or pictures of personal articles, passport and customs forms can be used for customs inspection, clothing and shoes can be clipped out of magazines for shopping purchase, and restaurant menus can be used for restaurant scene. This activity provides students with practice on vocabulary and expressions on traveling, hotel, shopping, and eating at restaurant.

¿Tienen reservaciones?                                ¡Buen provecho!
Cultural awareness can be enhanced through authentic materials and illustrations.

Cinco de Mayo                           La piñata                        El Día de los Muertos
Flamenco Dancers                                         Hispanic Celebrities
Description: What do you see in this picture?
Can you describe some of the items?
What are people doing?
How are they dressed?

Information gathering: Can you tell where or when this picture was taken?
Do some of the objects or places in this picture have historical significance?
Does the picture tell you anything special about life in this country?

Comparison: What makes this picture Hispanic/Chinese/Japanese, if anything?
Could a similar picture have been taken in the United States? Where? If not, why?

Another crucial factor in enhancing foreign language learning is through study abroad programs. Study abroad has been a common practice in higher education and can range from two weeks to a year in order to enhance students’ language learning, their sensitivity of cultural diversity, and their personal growth. Numerous researches have asserted that study abroad has positive effects on student personal and cultural awareness, confidence, and language ability. Williams (2205) affirms that participating in a study abroad program increases students’ cultural sensitivity more than those who stayed on a campus with a culturally diverse environment. Talburt (1999) suggests that,
study abroad challenges students’ personal cultural beliefs which pose both difficulties and learning opportunities. Through a series of studies Lange and Paige (2003) document the power of study abroad affirming that there are aspects of another culture that cannot be learned through explicit teaching which must be learned through experiences. Furthermore, faculty who study abroad or teach abroad also report that they have more actively inserted a global perspective in their teaching than their colleagues who have not traveled abroad (Sandgren, et al., 1999). With the push for globalization, more faculty now are engaging in study abroad or teach abroad programs, and have benefited significantly from the experience while their students, in turn, benefit from their cultural experience.

Typical examples are the study abroad programs Chicago State University, a public institution strongly committed to encouraging the development of students' cultural awareness and to producing informed global citizens. Various study abroad programs have been established to enable students to flourish academically and personally. Annually three study abroad programs are coordinated in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures: Toledo, Spain; Nice, France, and Kaohsiung, Taiwan. Prior to departure students who wish to study abroad in Taiwan are required to have completed at least two language courses in the target language, and enroll in an orientation course to enhance their Chinese language skills and to acquaint themselves to sociopolitical, economic, and cultural characteristics of the country of their study abroad program. Students are also assessed in the language proficiency before and after the trip. As coordinator for the month-long study abroad program in Taiwan, I participate in the curriculum design for the program which generally includes The curriculum language instruction, cultural sessions-traditional musical instruments, calligraphy, martial art, and field trips to museums, national parks, and cultural festivals. During the program students are required to keep weekly journal and research on an aspect of Taiwan related to their field of study at CSU. The research paper is to be submitted upon returning. The learning outcomes of the 2011 cohort showed an average language proficiency of 48% prior to study abroad which was increased to 79% after the program; the initial proficiency of 68% was increased to 96% in 2012. In 20013 the initial proficiency of 42% was increased to 83% upon returning. The assessment results indicate a highly significant improvement in listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Participated students unanimously agreed that this learning experience was beneficial to their academic development, and appreciated this unique opportunity that CSU provided to better prepare them to be citizens of the global society.

**Study in Taiwan for the 2014 Summer!!!**
Now students at Chicago State University can study Chinese language and culture at the National Kaohsiung University of Applied Sciences, our sister college in Taiwan. Through a four-week program (Mid May-id June, tentatively), you will enhance your language skills in and out of the classroom, explore the beautiful port of Kaohsiung, and participate in numerous cultural events. Do not miss out this great opportunity to broaden your horizons!

For more information please contact Dr. Virginia Shen at ex. 2058 or the Department of English, Foreign Languages and Literatures at HWH 301A, ex. 2350. Application packet is available at the Office of International Programs (SUB 240, tel. 773-995-2582)
Classroom Observation

Home Sweet Home!

Chinese Musical Instrument Class

Chinese Calligraphy Class

International Fruit Festival

Local Food Market
2013 Student Feedback:

**Student 1:** Going to Taiwan was far better than I could have expected. KUAS was extremely welcoming to all of us. The Office of International Programs at CSU gave us the opportunity to study abroad and I think the partnership with KUAS is well worth it. KUAS’s Office of International Programs really made our stay comfortable. Dr. Kenny Wu went out of his way to accommodate our stay. He picked us up and drove us to the airport, as well as gave us a tour of KUAS’s second campus. The Department of Management was also kind in inviting us to a few events, and we were grateful in being able to attend. Most importantly, the student ambassadors at KUAS went above and beyond making us seem welcome. They brought us on many field trips through the school, but also shared time with us outside of their duties. The student ambassadors showed us aspects of Taiwan that I would have been incapable of understanding without their help. I am really thankful to have met them and now value a few of them as close friends. Above all though, I am grateful to have had the chance to study abroad at KUAS.

**Student 2:** As a response to the Student Ambassadors, Professors, Office of International Programs at CSU, KUAS (Dr. Kenny Wu), Department and Institute of Business Management at KUAS, to be precise, Dr. Yi-Chun Huang (Chairperson),
and Prof. Grace Liu for their hospitality and aid during the month that we stayed at Kaohsiung University of Applied Sciences, **there are no words to describe the gratitude that I feel towards them.** Not only did the Professors and Staff do their best to help us in every way they could. It did not matter if it was out of their reach they always did their best to help us every way possible. As for the students at KUAS they were all helpful and friendly even those students who I had met for just 5 minutes they were always able to help me. However, I’m the most grateful to the student ambassadors because without their help I would not have the same experience in Taiwan as I did. The student ambassadors were basically with us every day helping us with every need we had it did not matter if it was insignificant they were always there to help us out. **There was a time when I was homesick and I just wanted to go home, but I talked to one of the student ambassadors and my roommate and they helped me overcome this. I’m really grateful about this gesture from them because if I were alone I would not know what I would do; but with their support and comprehension I felt better, and afterwards I really did not want to go home.** So, I am really grateful to the Professors, Staff members, Student Ambassadors, and my roommates at KUAS because they are the best of the best, and **there is no words or number to rate them because their hospitality is amazing.** Thank you, sincerely.

**Student 3:** I would like to take this time out to express my most sincere appreciation for all of the work and dedication of all the men and women of K.U.A.S. **At K.U.A.S. I was immersed into an environment that while I had previously studied, was very different than anything I was accustomed to.** Despite this cultural obstacle, Director Wu and his team of extremely talented and sincere individuals helped to make my stay in beautiful Taiwan an amazing experience. I would be remiss if I were to not make a note of special appreciation to the entire Student Ambassador students. **Cindy and Rexy, of the Student Ambassador team, will be two individuals that I hope to remain in constant communication for the remainder of my life. Thank you to all who had a hand in re-shaping my worldview and expanding my ability to think in my target language, for truly had I not experienced Taiwan the way K.U.A.S introduced Taiwan to me, I feel I would not have experienced Taiwan.**

As shown above, short term study abroad is useful and productive for students. Technical language skills may not improve in this short time, but the motivation for continued cultural awareness has strengthened. Student feedback also proved that culture shock is a valuable experience for increasing sensitivity to cultural diversity. All study abroad involves a certain amount of stress, but this stress lead to increased personal awareness and development. Based on the students’ comments, it is clear that participants note a positive feeling of gratitude and appreciation of cultural diversity. They all embrace “the other” and cultivate a long-lasting global friendship if not language enhancement academically.
The publication of the Standards for Foreign language Learning (1999) in the United States created the need to make important changes in the content, objectives and instruction in the foreign language classroom. Foreign language instructors now have the responsibility to create new programs that can achieve these new needs. With the new parameters, the instructor must find ways to make students use critical-thinking skills in the foreign language and culture class. Culture is multi-faceted and dynamic, and students need to take an active part in the search for meaning with the aid of authentic materials. Instructor, therefore, must facilitate the learning process by creating a learning environment where contextualization, research, analysis, critical-thinking, constructivism, peer-learning, discussion and technology are paramount. As multiculturalism and globalization have been pushed into the curriculum in recent decades, bridging the cultural gap has become an essential task for all instructors in the language classroom. It is always a pleasure to learn that students have learned more than the language structures in the classroom and appreciate the “otherness” beyond the classroom.

Notes

References
Knowledge Development

Abhijith Shyandilya C.P. (Student)
The University of Findlay
Abstract
Organization development and retention of tacit knowledge in an organization has always been an imperative hurdle in the corporate world. This paper aims to present how knowledge influences change in an organization. In this information age workplace, performance measurements change with changing contexts and roles. However, monitoring the changing roles to address emerging challenges instigates a unique research methodology. This paper aims to present an overview of how an organization in this information age is driven by research which adapts to knowledge. The knowledge which propagates management learning ordained by management policies to make way for organisational development.

Introduction
Organization sustenance, one can say is cohortly dependent on the level at which it understands the knowledge in the industry or reciprocates the knowledge development of the consumer (Grant, 1996). In other words, external knowledge dictates organizational practices. Practices which should employ a constant innovation. Organizational research and induction of a knowledge driven environment is penultimate for the growth of an organization (Hill and Rothaermel, 2003). Measuring knowledge and measuring organizational learning curve to induce a knowledgeable creative environment is highly important (Bierly and Chakrabarti, 1996). However, to establish a knowledge driven environment requires organization practitioners to employ research methodologies to ensure knowledge development (Pettigrew et al., 1992:6). This paper presents how organizational development in the digital social world we live in mandates an internal knowledge sharing and social research. However, organizations need to accommodate this need in the highest priority as knowledge research can lead to market knowledge acquisition and radical innovation and vice versa (Zheng Zhou, K. and Bing Xin Li, 2012).

This paper presents research methodologies which aid to analyze and assess the existing knowledge base, knowledge depth which effect radical innovation and change in organization. The two methodology presented in the paper to ensure and assimilate knowledge development is action research and processual research. Two research methodologies which are opposite in their approach none the less can be employed in a comprehensive manner to assess the “now” and the “then” of the organization to ensure organization knowledge transparency. Transparency which helps organizations strategize effectively to ensure development as well as sustenance (Caldwell, 2006). Consequently establishing why measuring internal knowledge as well as market knowledge is penultimate to propagate a progressive development in the strategic direction of the organization.

Discussion.
In the digital environment which entices organizations. Knowledge based view has gained prominence. Fundamentally knowledge based view is the innate ability of the organization to manage, maintain and create knowledge seamlessly (Grant, 1996). The ingenuous way the market functions today, requires organizations to innovate radically to ensure organization sustenance. Thus, organizations should embrace explicit
knowledge from a broad knowledge base to understand new information, adhere to change and to detect market opportunities to invent radically (Chesbrough 2003).

Organizations in this information age are in a state of flux as the market, competitors and the rate of innovation makes change management one of the major enterprise management criteria (McDermott, Coghlan, Keating, ). Knowledge based view has become a crucial aspect of organization development because of the need to create, retain and evolve in order to innovate radically. An organization big or small must comprehensively consider research in the highest order, as organizations outcomes are dependent on the abilities of the organizations to manage change from the knowledge based view perspective. This paper aims to present how a combination of action research and processual research will empower organizations to evolve, integrate and innovate with the help of explicit and implicit knowledge. While conducting research on knowledge based view of an organization, it is critical to evaluate the historical, processual and contextual standings of an establishment.

An organization needs to have a fecundity which helps to generate breakthrough ideas that enable firms to discover implicit knowledge which are hidden within miscellaneous information. The informations once gathered must then be accommodated in to the change management process to develop commercially viable products through resource synthesis and utilization (Hill and Rotheaerme, 2003; Zahra and George, 2002). To reprimand this hidden information, action research can be conducted. Action research not only helps in identifying the contextual and conceptual standpoints of the knowledge base of the organization but also helps to manage tacit knowledge. According to commentators, “A firm with broad knowledge has accumulated know-how across a variety of disciplines and heterogeneous market domains through its extensive knowledge exploration”. (Prabhu, Chandy, and Ellis, 2005).

To conceptually and contextually map out the mentioned broad knowledge action research is imperative. Action research bodes well to resolve social and organizational issues to those who are experiencing it and also aids to simultaneously contribute to scientific knowledge (Coghlan and Brannick, 2005; Coughlan and Coghlan, 2002; Greenwood and Levin, 2007; Gummesson, 2000; Reason and Torbert, 2001; Susman and Evered, 1978). Fundamentally action research works coherently to resolve important social or organizational issues as well as considering the subjects who experience the social issues.

Action research employs a four step process of planning, taking action, evaluation and future recommendations. In order to conduct action research, the participants must actively participate in the four step process. The primary objective of an action research is to research concurrent practices which leads to progressive actions. Concurrent practices which can be improved while scientifically building up a knowledge based view of the organization is question. In a way action research solves problems in a sequence of events to scientifically establish facts and to conduct scientific practical problem solving experiments. The solutions obtained through action research requires immediate actionable solution. However, it also helps to map out the knowledge base view of the organization which Zhou and li have propagated.

However, processual research “refers to any research concerned with a process that exists between two points in time, regardless of whether it is actually observable (Tuttle, 1997). Processual research helps to answer multiple stages of change in the
organization. The characteristics of change identified by Pettigrew (1997) are: The ability of processual change to synthesize data across a number of levels of analysis, the ability of processual change to study change in a stipulated timeline, the ability of processual change the role in explanation for context and action, the ability of processual change to find and explain outcomes.

An organization in the quest to establish the knowledge base view of the organization to accommodate change must assess internal knowledge sharing level of the organization. The organization must synthesize individually held know-how and help construct deeper and more refined understanding of its existing knowledge (Kale and Singh, 2007; Tsai, 2001). With the help of processual research organizations can comprehend the organization contexts and sequences of incident and actions that unfold over time to accommodate the knowledge change scrupulously (Dawson, 1994).

By combining action research and processual research methodologies organizations can generate recommendations for the actionable future with the help of processual research as well as to optimize organization best practices to better understand and comprehend immediate regulations needed to map out the knowledge based view of an organization (Dawson, 1994, 2003). According to commentators like Dawson and Pettigrew, processual research encompasses four longitudinal designs that enable to identify the knowledge in the organization to instigate a balance between tacit knowledge of the organization and the market progression towards innovation. The processual analysis begins by examining a retrospective view of the organization and the real time study of the current situation. Subsequently if the organization starts the action research, it can evaluate and contrast the change observed to analyze the knowledge based view of the organization. The second step according to Dawson in a processual research is to examine the process of change by evaluating the change as it occurs by interviewing the employees of the organization. In a way, action research is conducted to evaluate the processual change. This is the most critical change stage to instigate a knowledge driven development in the organization as it can help instigate a new perspective on its existing pieces of knowledge. (Zahra and George, 2002). Once the organization develops the perspective, data should be collected about the unequivocal knowledge based view implemented from the processual change and the bilateral action research. Last and the final step of this methodology would be to activate and integrate the best practices within the enterprise to develop knowledge based view competencies to propel the organization in an ordinated path towards innovation (Dawson, 2003).

However, processual research has many indigent remarks. One of the constant concerns about processual research is that it can become too cumbersome and complicated (Dawson, 1994). The individuals who drive the change in the organization are neglected (Buchanan and Boddy, 1992) and that it does not lead itself to practical recommendation (Watson, 2004). If one infers these falsifications, common gaps can be deducted. Gaps which could be addressed by conducting a parallel action research. The parallel action research will thus, ensure a streamlined research methodology to empower organizations towards market knowledge acquisitions and also to instigate knowledge sharing and innovation as a key competency of the organization. (Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005). As a result organizations can update and renew their organization processes and routines to implement ideas from emerging technological
domains to instigate and to prosper knowledge based view correspondingly developing the knowledge of the organization progressively.

Conclusion.
Effervescent market demand imposed on enterprises in the information age establishes a fundamental need to manage implicit and explicit knowledge of an organization in the highest order. Fundamentally, there is a need for organizations to comprehend the knowledge base of the organization to engineer an effective and efficient development. By employing the methods presented in the research, organizations can not only manage knowledge internally efficiently to effectively implement knowledge sharing best practices. But also can adhere to market knowledge to innovate radically to help ensure organization sustenance. Thus, creating a knowledge based view of the organization which leads to actionable decisions that aid to manage organization change effectively. Therefore, equipping organizations to plan immediate changes with action research and also to plan about the oncoming changes through processual research. Hence, establishing a link between the pragmatic and the practical underpinnings which link organization knowledge and the effervescent market demand.

References.
Three-Stage Testing as a Tool to Enhance Learning

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Answering the questions to a knowledge test requires among other retrieving the information committed to memory; retrieval of information is able to enhance the retention of the material, which results in “test-enhanced learning” (Arnold & McDermott, 2013; Butler & Roediger, 2007; Carpenter, 2012; Einstein, Mullet, & Harrison, 2012; Izawa, 1971; Keresztes, Kaiser, Kovács, & Racsmány, 2013; McDaniel, Agarwal, Huelser, McDermott, & Roediger, 2011; McDaniel, Roediger, & McDermott, 2007; McDaniel, Anderson, Derbish, & Morissette, 2007; Nelson, Arnold, Gilmore, & McDermott, 2013; Nungester & Duchastel,1982; Roediger & Butler, 2010; Roediger & Butler, 2011; Roediger, Agarwal, McDaniel, & McDermott, 2011; Roediger & Karpicke, 2006; Stanlee & Popham, 1960; Szpunar, McDermott, & Roediger, 2008.)

The content of a knowledge test, as well as the specifics of test administration can also affect learning. Content parameters include for instance the type of test (like cumulative or noncumulative test; Khanna, Badura Brack, & Finken., 2013), the format of the questions and expected answers (e.g.: multiple choice; short answer; list of statements to read; a filler task; matching terms, or essay: Glass & Sinha, 2013; Haynie, 1994; Haynie, 2007; Nungester & Duchastel,1982; Roediger & March, 2005; Kanga, McDermotta, & Roediger, 2007; Stalnaker & Stalnaker, 1934). Other content particulars that have been proven to have an effect on learning are the depth of tested knowledge, depth of processing (Craik and Tulving, 1975; Craik, 2002; Kapur, Craik, Tulving, Wilson, Houle, and Brown, 1994; Lockhart and Craik, 1990; Roediger, Gallo & Geraci, 2002; Webb, 2002), and the level of cognitive skills, concept commonly associated with Bloom’s taxonomy (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; a selected and annotated bibliography of studies concerning the Bloom’s classic approach of the cognitive domain has been provided by Cox and Unks, 1967, and the current standard version is considered the one by Anderson et al., 2000.)

In terms of the ways knowledge tests are administered, usually they are closed book (CB), collaborative (Col), open book (OB), and take home (TH). In this classification the criterion can be considered as being the access to external sources of information during test taking, and in the previous sentence the administration methods are listed starting with the one that offers no access (CB) to the one (TH) that offers full access to information external to the test taker internal memory.

Differences in the way tests/quizzes are administered (CB, COL, OB, or TH) have been shown to affect students’ learning strategies and behavior, attitudes, depth of learning, grades, as well as the authenticity, similarity of exams to the real life conditions (Block, 2012; Boniface, 1985; Francis, 1982; Heijne-Penninga, Kuks, Nrock-Adema, Snijders & Cohen-Schotanus, 2006; Koutselini-Ioannidou, 1997; Leight, Saunders, Calkins, & Withers, 2012; Rakes, 2008; Shine, Kiravu, & Astley, 2004; Stearns, 1996; Theophilides & Koutselini, 2000; Williams & Wong, 2009; Zimbardo, Butler, & Wolfe, 2003.)

Research on the long-term retention of the TH tested knowledge (Ehrlich & Haynie, 2007; Gay & Gallagher, 1976; Haynie, 2003, 2007b) has found "slightly positivenon-significant trends in support of take-home tests over in-class tests on the whole. But closer examination of the findings in these studies on the subtests of previously tested and novel information showed that these gains were entirely due to higher performance on the previously tested information" (Haynie, 2007, p. 31.) In Haynie’s studies the dependent variable was the “delayed retention”, measured by unannounced final tests administered three weeks after a prior test. The test questions “operated chiefly at
levels 1-3 of Bloom’s taxonomy: Recall of facts, conceptual understanding, and application of learning to novel situations. Each level was represented equally" (p. 27.)

In regard to COL testing, Leight, Saunders, Calkins, and Withers (2012) found that "students who participated in collaborative testing performed no differently on cumulative questions than students who took the previous exam as individuals" (p. 392.)

Experimental studies specifically designed to compare the test-enhanced learning following CB, COL, OB and TH quizzing found, however, that “the administration of take-home, open-book, and collaborative quizzes compared to closed-book quizzes significantly improved long-term retention on midterm and final” (Hoyt, Vasilescu, Feeser, & Horton, 2008, p. 58.)

A series of studies based on the same design found similar results (Hoyt & Vasilescu, 2008; Hoyt, Vasilescu, & Feeser, 2005 a, b; Hoyt, Vasilescu, & Feeser, 2006; Vasilescu, Iordan, & Hoyt, 2009; Vasilescu, Hoyt, & Feeser, 2007 a, b; Vasilescu, Hoyt, Feeser, & Horton, 2007.)

They have used conceptual questions (level 2 in Bloom’s taxonomy, requiring a higher level of cognitive skills than simple remembering.) The supplementary learning was estimated by comparing the number of correct answers in the comprehensive midterm and final tests (which always were CB) to the number of correct answers to the same questions previously presented in chapter quizzes administered in either CB, COL, OB, or TH manner.

All of these studies have been carried out in Introduction to Psychology classes, using the same textbook, for a few years the same set of multiple-choice questions, and usually by the same instructors. The sample size of each study was approximately 100 students. Moreover, the type of quizzing was semi-random, the students and even the professor would learn about it right before the quiz, when the class instructor would get a closed envelope specifying if the quiz to be administered in a few minutes was going to be CB, COL, OB, or TH. Thus, these factors were very unlikely to have affected the consequences of different type of quizzing.

Still, despite of consistency of the research design, subject matter, test questions, and to a large extend of the instructors, and having reasonably large sample sizes, no particular quiz administration procedure (CB, COL, OB, or TH) consistently yielded the significantly highest test-enhanced learning across all studies. A common finding, however, of the above-cited studies by Hoyt et al. and by Vasilescu et al. is that typically, even if not always, comparing to the CB, the COL and/or OB chapter quizzes were followed by statistically significantly higher scores in comprehensive midterm and/or finals.

Vasilescu (2013) conducted a pilot study of “Cognitive Skills Testing with Progressive Access to External Sources of Information” during test taking, where psychology graduate students were allowed to answer three times the quiz questions. The testing material was very different from that used in the previous studies (multiple-choice questions in an introductory psychology class). This time it consisted of psychopathology cases, and students’ task was to analyze them, come up with a diagnosis, and present the rational for it. First, they had to do it individually, with no access to any external source of information. Second, they were allowed to confer with their colleagues (which in not uncommon among professionals), debate the psychopathological relevance of different pieces of information presented in the cases,
as well as the goodness of fit of different diagnoses. Each student had to write down his/her own answer, which sometimes was identical to the first one, or/and to the one considered by classmates. Third, each of them was allowed access to his her own notes as well as to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual IV-TR, which was the reference text in the field, and write a different answer, or stick to one of the previously written. No communication with colleagues was allowed at the open book stage of the quiz. The quiz grade was the average grade of the three sets of answers, and had a heavy weight in the class grade, so students were highly motivated in doing their best. The study was conducted to test students’ reaction to such a multi layered quizzing, and their response was encouraging. After their first experience with the procedure, since it has been announced that would be possibly, but not certainly used again, students spontaneously asked to be allowed to take quizzes this way. Due to the small sample size of this pilot study, no inferential statistic was run, however, no change in students' participation during the regular class debates of cases, or pre-quiz review was noticed, or a decline in their grades on the individual CB component of quizzes, so their preparation for the class seemed not to have changed.

The aim of the research that makes the object of the current report was to verify if progressive access to external sources of information during test taking, besides being well received by students, would also result in a learning that is supplementary to the test-enhancing learning that occurs as a result of CB quizzing. A quiz/test that contains more than one level of access to external sources of information during test taking will be called a Multi-Level (ML) quiz/test.

ML quizzing/testing study is an attempt to obtain a tool that would maximize the test-enhanced learning while still striving to understand the factors that lead to the differences obtained in others, as well as our own studies looking at the CB, COL, OB, and TH methods of administering knowledge tests. A better understanding of those factors would hopefully allow the creation of more specific, leaner, less time-consuming tests, and capable of delivering a more powerful test-enhanced learning, but such an endeavor may still take years or decades.

The research hypothesis was that, compared to the CB format, presenting questions initially in ML format will increase the probability of a correct answer in a subsequent comprehensive test administered about four weeks later.

**Methods**

**Subjects**

A number of 83 undergraduate students at a small liberal arts college in Mideast Kentucky have participated in the study. They were enrolled in two 200 level classes: Psychology (21 students) and Economics (62 students split in an 8AM, and a 10AM section). The same instructor taught both sections of Economics.

**Procedure**

In the order of the increasing access to external information during test taking, the layers of the ML quizzes used in this study were CB, then COL, then OB. The assumptions were that:

1. In the CB condition the student could access no information external to his/her own internal memory;
2. In the COL stage the student would have access to information possessed by peers who may or may not know/disclose all the individual needed to give a correct answer, while

3. At the OB level, even if there were time and information searching, finding, processing and other individual constrains, there was an open access to the sources (books and notes) that contain all the information needed for providing a correct answer to each question.

**Design**

In each class, a couple of weeks after a CB quiz, a ML was administered, than, a couple of weeks later, another CB quiz. A subsequent comprehensive test included questions from each of the three quizzes (along with new ones).

In each class and section, the average time between the two CB quizzes and the comprehensive test was about the same with the time interval between the ML quiz and the test, which was of approximately four weeks.

**Materials**

Instructors made efforts to select for this study only conceptual questions (level 2 in Bloom’s taxonomy). No validation by independent judges of the cognitive skill level required by the questions was available. In the Economics class, to prevent leaking, not all questions were identical between the two sections.

**Results**

It was not planed, but it happened that students of the 2-section class missed taking some of their quizzes/tests at 8AM, and went to the 10AM section. Students' mobility between the parallel sections, combined to the partial non-overlap of the questions in the two sections led to a reduction of the usable sample size. Moreover, in both classes, several students have obtained 100% correct answers in the CB quizzes, CB stage of the ML quizzes, and the correspondent questions in the comprehensive test. This have generated a ceiling effect which left no room for assessing any possible difference in the test-enhanced learning following different types of quizzes for those subjects. Therefore, data from only 28 students could be used for analysis.

In the cumulative test, the post-hoc probability of a correct answer to the questions initially presented in closed book quizzes was $p = .73$, while when they were initially presented in multi-level quizzes the probability of success was $p = .82$.

For all statistical tests, we used an alpha level of .05. Data indicated that there was a significant higher probability of a correct answer following the ML ($M = .82, SD = .18$) was significantly higher than after the CB quizzing ($M = .73, SD = 0.17$), $t(27) = 2.46, p(1\text{-tailed}) = 0.01$. The increase in probability was of .91.

The effect size of the difference between the probability of a correct answer in the comprehensive test to a question initially presented in ML versus CB was $d = .46$ (medium). It can be noted that in the everyday life terms, an increase with .91 (or 9.1%) of probability of giving a correct answer in a test means an effect size of about one letter grade (which often is set at 10% of the maximum possible score.) It is worth to emphasize that this 9.1% does not represent merely an increase of the grade in an ML
quiz vs. a CB quiz, or the increase in scores between having seen before or not the
questions. That is the difference in the test-enhanced learning between having had to
answer the questions in quizzes administered in the two different conditions (ML vs. CB)
about four weeks before a cumulative test.

Discussion

Main Findings
The multi-level (three-stage) condition resulted in a significantly higher retention than
the closed book quizzing of the quizzed knowledge. That benefit was reflected, about
four weeks after quizzing, by the higher probability of a correct answer in a subsequent
comprehensive test following the ML (vs. following the CB) condition.
The difference between the percentage of correct answers in the comprehensive test to
the questions coming from multi-level (three-stage) quizzes (81.6%) and the percentage
of correct answers to questions initially presented in a closed book condition (72.5%)
was 9.1%, i.e. of about one letter grade (which often means 10% of the maximum
score.)
We assume that this difference of about 9% reflects a supplementary learning that
occurs during the multi-level quizzing as an effect of the better retention of the task
relevant information. The test-taker does have access to that information before the
quiz, when the questions are not yet know so may not be perceived as clearly as a task,
as they are during the quiz, while striving to solve the problems posed arose by them.
It is worth mentioning that the comprehensive test has been administered approximately
four weeks after the multi-level quiz, and that the average time between the closed book
quizzes and the test was about the same, so the difference in performance cannot be
attributed to the differences in time between the two type of quizzing and the
comprehensive test.

Main Limitations
The strong attrition let us to conducting the statistical analysis on a combined sample of
28 subjects, which is less than the needed sample size (N = 45) for a repeated
measures design with α = .05, β = .05, and a medium effect size.
Besides the impact on the sample size, the loss of a substantial part of the subjects who
have entered the study, means that we don’t know to what extend our findings can be
generalized to those who have been eliminated. It is possible, for instance, that those
who have commuted between sections would have been affected differently than those
who stayed with their section.
From psychometric point of view, the ideal probability of a correct answer in a closed
book quiz would have been p = .500. The p = .725 empirically fond in our data, has led
to an artificial reduction of the range of possible variation/increase under the effect of a
multi-level quizzing.
Future directions
To some extent, the in-section stability of students can be improved through syllabi
policies.
The factor that is to a larger extent under the instructor control is the distribution of
probabilities of correct answers to the quiz questions. While this would have beneficial
effects on the quality of assessment of students’ knowledge, it would also be more labor
intensive, and take more than one cycle of teaching to tune it.
Co-opting more colleagues to join the study would improve the sample size. At the same time, it would increase the inter-instructor variability that in turn may decrease the effect size, but also benefit the generalizability of the findings. If the benefit of multi-stage quizzing/testing is replicated, than it may be worth examining its underlying mechanism. The above Discussion section advances the hypothesis that before the quiz the test-taker may not be perceiving part of the to-be-learned material as a task as clearly he/she may perceive it during the quiz. This mechanism would also be consistent with the beneficial role the study questions are known to have in supporting learning, and it seems that is would lend itself to research in a pretty straightforward way.

References


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Roediger, Gallo & Geraci, 2002; Webb, 2002


Appendix

Fig. 1. Probability of a correct answer in cumulative tests to the questions initially presented in closed book quizzes ($p = .73$) versus multi-level quizzes ($p = .82$; the mean difference $p = .091$; $t(27) = 2.46$, $p(1\text{-tailed}) = 0.01$).
Gridlock USA: The Left-Right Political Quandary and Worldview Angst

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Abstract

In this article I explain two political axes that cross the left-to-right political scale metaphor, one of which is often ignored by both scholars and pundits, and the other of which is seldom clearly explained, its assumptions seldom exposed. I then posit that there are also three fairly distinctive worldview paradigms that dominate politics in the United States today. Anecdotal evidence suggests that when the basic tenants of a worldview paradigm, along with its narratives and frames, are entrenched within cultural understandings and norms, it is difficult for individuals of that culture or sub-culture to fathom the reasoning behind any other view. This situation produces indignation and anger, because entrenched views and beliefs become so important to maintaining the worldview that conflicting ideas are perceived as threats. Once these basic points concerning the political axes and worldview paradigms are clear, we can understand various political quandaries in the US today.

Keywords: American politics, paradigm, political axes, U.S. politics, worldview

Introduction

Confusion seems to reign when it comes to the question of how much Americans are divided in their political views. Hunter (1991) argued that on an increasing number of issues, America’s tend to side with one of two definable political polarities. This phenomenon he called our “culture war.” Some years later, though, Fiorina et al (2004) argued that most Americans hold centrist political views, and that it is only the politicians, journalists and political pundits who think they see a polarized America. Polls, Fiorina et al demonstrate, show that the majority of Americans have views about several salient issues such as abortion, gay marriage and gun control that are more or less a compromise between the views promoted by right-wing politicians and the views promoted by left-wing politicians (Fiorina et al, 2004). Lakoff (2008), on the other hand, argues that “centrist” Americans’ views are more difficult to classify than the polls suggest, because their views, on numerous issues, “vary every which way” (p. 46). He further argues that the left-to-right political scale is actually just an inaccurate, and perhaps even dangerous, metaphor, and that there is no true single group of “centrist” Americans. There seems to be no agreement as to whether or not America’s so-called “culture war” actually exists, whether or not there is any definable “center” in the middle of the left-to-right political scale, or even whether or not that scale metaphor is useful.

Yet I would argue that the metaphor is useful, but only if it is truly understood. The problem is that the scale metaphor is too often over-simplified, with the left and right extremes misidentified as those who have a preference for “big government” and “small government” respectively. Yet in actuality, there are multiple axes of debate running across this political left-to-right scale. In this article, I will discuss the two axes that dominate most of the political debate in the United States today. I will also demonstrate that what I will call the predominant worldview paradigms in the U.S. have shifted over the last century. Our two major political parties have followed suit by shifting their policy platform preferences, as each party attempts to capture the approval of the new, so-called centrist majority. And finally, I will explain why we have relatively new wings of each party, the notable “Tea Party” on the right and the less organized environment-preservation and gay rights activists on the left, whose political frustrations towards each other embody what we could reasonably call the “culture war,” after all.
**Left-right political axes**

The two most obvious lines of debate that run through the left-right policy-preference spectrum (the left-right political scale metaphor) concern economic policy preferences and behavior-modification policy preferences. The economic policy debate has perhaps been most accurately and simply defined as a debate between the “externalists” and the “internalists” (Wilber, 1981). Externalists, on the ideological left, believe that human suffering comes from difficulties that occur in our environment or are inadvertently caused by the structures of society itself. In other words, it is our collective responsibility to solve the economic problems of society because they are caused or cured by structures *external* to the individual. This notion assumes, for example, that poverty is something that can and should be eliminated because it is a blight that is unfairly imposed by societal and economic structures on certain unfortunate groups of people. It is up to the government, then, as both embodied by and representative of “we the people,” to get the job done. This is why, blaming poverty on weaknesses in the American economy, Presidents Kennedy and Johnson tried to eradicate this blight through governmental action — the so-called “war on poverty” (see Brauer, 1982). Today’s Democrats tend to forward progressive taxation and policies that regulate the practices of large corporations and provide assistance to the poor as ways to decrease, and hopefully one day eliminate, poverty. This is largely from whence Democrats get the “big government” label.

In direct contrast to this view, are the beliefs of the internalists on the right, who are often but less accurately referred to as economic conservatives. Internalists believe that the economy is driven by the will and innovation of productive individuals, and that anything the government does that might interfere with or even inadvertently discourage that productivity can only slow and harm the overall economy. In other words, internalists believe that the economic problems of society are caused by individuals who lack *internal* drive. This, for example, may be one reason why Congressional Republicans, in 2010, repeatedly tried to blockade the extension of unemployment benefits. An internalist might assume that such extensions reduce the incentive for individuals to take “any available job,” and could therefore actually slow an economic recovery. For example, Sharon Angle, a 2010 Republican candidate for senator from Nevada, made the comment that the American citizenry was “spoiled” by entitlements such as unemployment benefits (Ralston, 2010). Making matters worse, according to this view, is that these benefits also drive up the national debt which necessitates higher taxes on wealthy individuals and businesses. Yet according to this view, wealthy individuals have every right to fully enjoy the fruits of their entrepreneurship or innovations. It is further assumed that these wealthy individuals, along with the businesses they own, run or hold stock in, drive the economy in the first place. Following this line of reasoning to its conclusion we see the belief that to economically burden these individuals by the machinations of government is a folly that can only harm the progress of our nation or slow the recovery of an ailing economy. It is largely from these views that Republicans have earned the reputation as being for less or “smaller” government.

Politicians who are elected to office through their affiliations with these parties often seem to feel obligated to stake out positions on the farthest extremes of the left-to-right spectrum, perhaps simply to clearly demarcate their positions as being in direct
opposition to those of the opposing party. This partially clarifies reasons behind the gridlock seen in Congress and in state governments, particularly during economically trying times. Yet any given citizen may partially agree and partially disagree with both the internalist and the externalist positions. This is one place where we may find true “centrists” among the voters. For example, President Clinton’s “Welfare to Work” initiative was a product of compromise between internalist and externalist views and has for decades been highly rated among voters.

Yet this only illuminates one line of debate across the left-to-right political spectrum. The second line of debate across the spectrum is about behavior-modification policies. As of the writing of this article, about seventy-six percent of people in the United States self-identify as Christians. On the right-hand side of the political spectrum we find groups, which I will call “political-moralists,” who believe it is our collective responsibility to have an established code-of-conduct by which citizens are expected to live. Those who do not follow this code-of-conduct are to be punished, or at the least shunned, by our laws and policies. Although beliefs and biblical interpretations vary widely across the many denominations of Christianity, this desired code-of-conduct is often based loosely yet primarily on the Ten Commandments contained in the Old Testament of the Bible. Quite often, political-moralists do not believe in the “separation of church and state,” and even those who do may nonetheless believe that we should be “a nation of Christians,” and that government should, at the least, encourage “Christian-like” behavior.

This sentiment, always present given the high percentage of Christians in our nation, grew stronger than it had previously been during the “red-scare” of the 1950s. Because economic communism came to be associated with governments that discouraged organized religion, the cry for a more religious nation became part of our differentiation from these communistic regimes. Thus, in the 1950s, one nation, “under God” was added to our national pledge of allegiance. It is also to encourage this religious or “moral” nation, by some groups’ particular interpretation thereof, that certain behavior-modification laws and policies are forwarded. Here we find the promotion of laws and policies that encourage heterosexual marriage but discourage homosexual marriage. We also find here the promotion of laws and policies that discourage premarital and extra-marital sex and that discourage abortion. In this way, the Republicans are for far more intrusive, or “bigger” government, than are the Democrats.

On the left side of the political spectrum we find instead an interpretation of the Establishment Clause of the Constitution that insists that government must not interfere with or even attempt to direct individual religious choice, and therefore should not base law and policy upon anyone’s interpretation of what it means to be “moral.” These groups I will call “political-secularists,” because of their belief that the basis of our laws cannot be any religious texts. Here, instead, we find law and policy preferences that are based loosely on some interpretation of the “no harm principal” (Mill, 1859/1999). That is, political-secularists tend to want proof that a given individual’s behavior causes actual harm to other individuals before they can accept the government’s limitation of that behavior.

While there is much debate about what constitutes “actual harm” and even what constitutes a legally protectable “individual,” the majority of political-secularists want government to interfere as little as possible in the behavior of adult citizens. Unlike the
political-moralists’ position, political-secularists do not believe that it is the government’s place to dictate individual moral choice. Instead, they believe that morality and religious choice are deeply private matters which, in order to preserve liberty, must be protected from the reach of government coercion. For this reason, we find on the left, advocates for “choice” on the abortion issue, those who want extensive education about sex and birth-control choices in secondary public schools, and advocates for the marital rights of homosexuals. In contrast to what is often suggested by political opponents, political-secularists do not necessarily condone abortion, gay marriage, or any other behavior that is deviant from the majority norm. Instead, they oppose the notion that government should regulate it, believing instead that individual choice should be preserved as much as possible while still maintaining a reasonably safe and peaceful society. In this way, the Democrats, who are on the political left, are for less intrusive, or smaller, government than are the Republicans.

Here we also find a centrist position among many voters. The majority of voters say that abortion should be allowed under some circumstances, that gays and lesbians should at least be allowed to from permanent, legally recognized unions, believe that we should have sex education in schools, and want birth control to be readily available. Voters who hold these views are indeed centrists in that their views fall between the ideological far right, that wants a large, behavior-controlling government, and the ideological far left, that takes a “live and let live” position.

Yet dissipating the large/small government confusion does not clear up all of the problems that surround the left-to-right political scale metaphor. For example, additional confusion comes from the fact that Democrats on the left tend to believe that it is our collective responsibility to maintain a “reasonably safe and peaceful society” so far as that pertains to peace within the society and to collective health. It is for this reason that they often are advocates both of gun-control laws, which prevent individuals from carrying handguns or owning automatic rifles or machine guns, and of no-smoking laws, which prevent individuals from smoking cigarettes inside of buildings, airplanes and public-transportation vehicles. This is in spite of the limitation of individual choice that these laws impose, because the safety and peacefulness that this affords the collective is seen as more important, in these cases, than individual will. In this way, the left can indeed be for more intrusive, or bigger, government in a way that does have to do with behavior modification. The difference is that the right works to modify individual behavior for religious reasons, while the left works to modify collective behavior for secular reasons.

Worldview Paradigms

All of my explanation so far only sheds light on a small piece of the ideological puzzle. To further explain the political rifts in America, I will next explain what I call worldview paradigms. I borrow the term “paradigm” from Thomas Kuhn (1962), even though he used it somewhat differently, that is, to refer to what is accepted within the scientific community at any given time in history. According to Kuhn, ideas and inquiry outside of that accepted scientific paradigm have been considered to be unreasonable and irrational. Similarly, ideas and beliefs that are outside of one’s own worldview paradigm may seem unreasonable and irrational as well.
Further, Kuhn tells us that when new discoveries disturb our old understandings, they cause a sort of chaos in the accepted paradigmatic frames. If the new discoveries cause too much chaos, that is, if they are too "far out" to be accepted by the larger culture of the time, they will be buried and forgotten. But if those discoveries are accurate, eventually they will be rediscovered. This means that, sooner or later, the paradigm engulfing the larger scientific community will fracture and expand into a larger one that allows for the reality of the previously shunned discoveries. This is how science, and our understanding of the physical world we live in, expands over time.

Similarly, cultural worldview paradigms within a given populace can shift, as they have done over the last few decades in the United States. As long as the older views are predominant, newer ways of seeing things will be shunned and suppressed. However, once a large enough section of the populace has begun to embrace the new ideas and values, laws and norms will begin to change (Williams, 1997). This, in turn, invites a push-back from those holding the old value sets, which creates a sort of chaos in the political system and in social networks. Eventually acceptance expands and the new worldview paradigm becomes part of the overall norm. This would explain how societies change, and become more inclusive, over time.

Generally speaking, a paradigmic worldview is that which helps us to make sense of the vast array of information that we find all around us, all of the time (see also Beck & Cowan, 1996; McIntosh, 2007; Wilber, 1996). It is a set of rules or guidelines that we use to interpret the world, sometimes on a subconscious or 'automatic' level. Yes, it is true that the way any given individual views the world at any particular time usually encompasses more than just one of these sets of guidelines. Individuals may also vary their worldview paradigms according to situational context. The same is also true for tendencies that we can see across cultures and sub-cultural groups. Therefore, the use of worldview paradigm models to explain differences between political groups may seem like a gross over-simplification. However, it is also true that no matter which worldview paradigm one draws on to make a value-judgment about a given occurrence or interaction, the notions found within that particular paradigm tend, at least for that particular situation, to be considered as universal truth rather than as debatable assumption.

Further, anecdotal evidence suggests that when the basic tenants of a worldview paradigm, along with its narratives and frames (Lakoff, 2008), are entrenched within cultural understandings and norms, it is difficult for individuals of that culture or sub-culture to fathom the reasoning behind any other view. It therefore appears that worldview paradigms function in a way that is similar to the function of "mental models" (Johnson-Laird, 1983). In fact, worldview paradigms could help to explain how and why mental models function the way that they do, in that "people tend to filter new information according to its congruence or otherwise with their existing understandings, beliefs, and values" (Jones et al, 2011, np.).

Individuals may not even realize that worldview paradigms other than their own exist, which greatly limits their ability to understand or effectively communicate with others whose worldview paradigms are different. This produces frustration, particularly when people with conflicting values view each other as irrational or nonsensical. This situation also produces indignation and anger, because entrenched views and beliefs become so important to maintaining the paradigmic worldview that conflicting ideas are
perceived as threats. To see this dynamic in action, one only needs to witness a political
protest outside of the Supreme Court building before a decision about any controversial
issue is handed down. It is because of these perceived threats that contemporary
politics is filled with emotion, and why propaganda that relies on emotional response to
dampen critical analysis – such as in the typical campaign television ad – can be
effective in both swaying and confusing the voting populace.

Clare Graves, whose work was published by Beck and Cowan (1996), believed
that cultures followed a particular pattern of worldview change and development. This
would occur because, as individuals’ views change and develop, “they find points of
commonality and mutual understanding that manifest as distinct cultural structures”
(Brown & Riedy, 2006, p. 5). These structures within cultures can be graphed, revealing
cultural-majorities who primarily adhere to given worldview paradigms at that particular
point in time. Finally, while studying worldview paradigms as a way to understand
political divisions may seem complicated at first blush, at least the understanding of the
worldview paradigms that predominate influence politics in the United States can be
fairly easily embraced. This is because, while there are over three hundred million
individuals in the United States, it seems that we have only three primary worldview
paradigms.

That three, and only three, worldview paradigms have strong influence upon
American politics today is already fairly well established. For example, Evans (1997)
challenged Hunter’s (1991) notion that there were only two major value-system
structures within the United States and that these two formed the roots of all groups' social and political values. While Evans did find evidence of two worldviews, those two
could not explain all of the variance that he found in values with his extensive surveys.
The introduction of a third worldview, along with an understanding that these three
overlap each other and that most individuals draw from more than just one, could
explain the discrepancy that he found in the data. Then, the extensive research
performed by Ray and Anderson (2000) revealed that a third worldview value-system
does, in fact, exist. That there is a majority “center” group (“moderns” according to Ray
and Anderson) continues to be supported by extensive research (see Fiorina, 2011),
although the views and values of this center group do vary widely, just as Lakoff (2008)
arues.

Beck and Cowan (1996) referred to these three worldview paradigms are “truth-
force,” “strive-drive,” and “human-bond.” Western political theorists know the terms for
these worldview paradigms as ancient, modern and postmodern. However, “traditional”
is the term used by some right-wing politicians today to describe their own ideology.9 It
also seems to be a better descriptor than “ancient” for a set of views that in many ways
parallels those of the ancient philosophers but has nonetheless developed and changed
across time, while retaining some elements still in use by “traditionalists” today. For
example, some “ancient” ideas, such as that slavery is both natural and morally
acceptable, have been rejected. Yet other ancient ideas, such as that, within marriage,
a male over female power hierarchy is natural, biblically ordained and unavoidable, is
still embraced within the traditional paradigm.

The term “modernist” I borrow from Steve McIntosh, who has written about these
worldviews before, and uses the term “modernist” rather than “modern” because this
helps to establish the term as distinct from “contemporary.”10 Philosophies within the
modernist paradigm hail mostly from the Enlightenment Era, and are written into such American documents as the Declaration of Independence via Thomas Jefferson’s use of words written by John Locke. Finally postmodernism became a relatively strong cultural force within the United States during the 1960s (Beck & Cowan, 1996), although it, too, showed up in philosophical writings much earlier (for example, see Nietzsche, 1911). It may be that not everyone likes the term “postmodern” for the paradigm that I will describe herein, but I find it as good of a word as any. Those who study philosophy may know it best for its deconstructionism and post-structuralism, though these are only two manifestations of the larger paradigm.

Ray and Anderson (2000) concluded that, in the 1990s, approximately 25 percent of Americans could be classified as “traditional,” 51 percent as “modern,” and 24 percent as “cultural creatives,” herein referred to as “postmodern.” And, a conglomerate of more recent studies suggests that the percentage numbers mapped by Ray and Anderson have remained relatively stable in recent decades (Whetmore, 2013). Therefore, once some basic points concerning these three worldview paradigms are made clear, we can more easily understand various political stances in the U.S. today.

**Traditionalism.** The traditional paradigm is communal, but the focus of that communalism tends to be relatively small. Traditionalism favors stable institutions that forward behaviors that allow for healthy interdependency within families and communities. It is in part because of this that traditional groups tend to be highly religious. Also, while care for one’s family and one’s neighborhood is of paramount importance, full acceptance of others tends to be limited to one’s own family and neighbors, or to the members of one’s church or religious community. Loving families and peaceful neighborhoods are healthy expressions of traditionalism (Beck & Cowan, 1996).

Given its small-group communal orientation, traditionalism tends to favor government action only when it is at the state or local level. Because 76 percent of Americans self-identify as Christians, the predominant religion among traditional groups in the United States is Christianity. The combination of these characteristics of American traditionalism goes a long way towards explaining its manifest views towards our government. American traditionalists tend to distrust the national government, as it is seen as too distant from their local communities. They tend to view national-level programs that help the poor as aiding the “undeserving” (see Katz, 1989), in part because they see these programs helping people who they do not recognize as being like themselves. As Christians, they want the government to promote their version of a moral society. Therefore, traditional Americans tend to be externalists, but favor government help only for their own families and communities, and also demand local control of most aspects of government, including its distribution of welfare. They also tend to be political-moralists, and push for laws that align with their religious beliefs.

Also and unfortunately, the same social norms which ensure the functional mechanisms of traditional families and neighborhoods can have unpleasant side-effects, such as ethnocentrism, intolerance, and racism. This is partly because traditionalist groups tend to use the threat of being humiliated, shunned or ostracized as coercion to ensure that most individuals within the culture will follow the accepted set of rules and norms. Once this threat is imbedded within a culture, individuals born into the
culture may fear being perceived as different or, as they mature into adulthood, as failing to completely and properly assimilate with the culture. These fears are then projected onto to others, and become the basis for gossip, shunning, and even violence against anyone labeled as “different.” Concepts of “good” versus “bad” behaviors can evolve into perception of an “us” versus “them” conflict. “We” are the ones who adhere to particular social expectations, and “they” are the ones who do not. To make matters worse, expectations concerning physical appearances can be tangled into the mix, such that those who look “like us,” have the same skin color as “us,” dress “like us,” or wear their hair the way “we” do are seen as “good,” and those who are different in some way are labeled as “bad.”

We can also see this ethnocentrism in the “us against them” attitude that surfaces any time resources appear to be scarce. For example, when employment opportunities in the U.S. appear to be scarce, traditionalists tend to blame recent immigrants, especially illegal immigrants, because these “others” are easily perceived as “not us” and therefore in competition against “us” for the limited resources. Another example of cultural ethnocentrism’s response to perceived scarcity is the hording of rights by power-elite groups. This occurs because of a perceived scarcity of rights, which is in part created by a belief in “natural and necessary” hierarchy. The result is that those traditionalists who are at the powerful top of a legal or social hierarchy tend to believe that the granting of rights to other groups must mean the taking of rights from the currently powerful, because they believe that no two groups can ever really equally coexist.

This belief causes a strong although arguably false perception that there is among humans a scarcity of rights, which manifests repeatedly throughout American history. For example, when women were struggling to gain the right to vote, a common fear-based argument emphasized by some men was that if women gained the right to vote, men would lose their political power. John Adams told his wife Abigail that women should not have the right to vote because if they did, men would be subject to “the despotism of the petticoat.” In other words, if women were allowed to vote, they would end up with total rule over men. This suggests a notion that it is impossible for men and women to have equal political power. Adams appears to have assumed that either men could have political power or women could, but that both could not have it at the same time. Similarly, white men historically argued that blacks should not be given rights equal to their own because, given some measure of political power, blacks would “take over the country.”

Heterosexuals have likewise been guilty of arguing that if homosexuals are given the right to legally marry, heterosexual married couples will somehow lose their own political and social power. This notion of a scarcity of rights permeates much of American society, often appearing as an argument for why rights should not be extended to groups who have not previously had them. Yet no reason exists why basic “inalienable” rights must be rationed across groups. The notion is inextricably bound to the hierarchical structures of social and political power found within the traditional paradigm.

Traditionalism also forwards hierarchy as necessary to protect those who cannot protect themselves. According to Hobbes (1660/2011), hierarchies arose as a response to widespread violence, as well as to aid man’s opposition to nature as he struggled to survive. Hobbes argued that groups of people would choose one person to rule them,
because of a belief that this person could ensure the safety of the entire group. According to this Hobbesian theory, men, for this reason, were willing to swear fealty to their kings. Although the accuracy of Hobbes' descriptions of early human existence are debatable, his tale of people desperately seeking a king to rule over them and protect them is echoed in the Old Testament of the Bible, and is also seen in similar explanations of hierarchical societal organizations explained by both Aristotle and Plato. Embedded within all of these stories is an assumption that hierarchy is both natural and necessary for the survival of mankind.

Kingdoms and other hierarchical socio-political structures could be found across as much of world as was known by the writers of history, for thousands of years. It is not surprising, then, to find within the traditional paradigmatic worldview a notion that hierarchy is both unavoidable and necessary for our very survival. This may explain why traditional Americans tend to demand “strong leaders” and prefer the trustee model of representation (Pitkin, 1967), that is, they want leaders who are willing to make unilateral decisions without much if any input from the people who elected them. It also likely explains why the one national-level expenditure that traditionals almost always support is that for the military. They tend to believe that the single most important function (and in some cases the only legitimate function) of the U.S. federal government is the protection of our nation from its enemies.

**Modernism.** Modernism as it manifests within the capitalistic and democratic republic of the United States grants power and social prestige to those who manage to become financially successful. Also, perhaps because of the challenges pioneers in the American frontier faced, so-called “rugged individualism” is also highly valued. This is the notion that all individuals can and should take care of themselves, without requiring aid or assistance from others. It also forwards a notion that everyone is capable of “success,” but that it takes individual will and action to accomplish it. Because the United States has a capitalistic economy, success tends to be measured by financial wealth. Those who are seen as deserving are rewarded with higher incomes than those who are not so perceived, and those with higher incomes are awarded greater social respect and political power than those who earn less. As a result, escape from poverty is difficult but at least theoretically not impossible, and all individuals, male and female, young and old, are judged, at least to some degree, according to how much financial wealth each has managed to accumulate. This is why America’s modernists tend to be “internalists,” and why they tend to believe that the best thing that the government can do for the economy is to “get out of the way” and let the individual entrepreneur follow his or her own will.

Depending upon the culture involved, the modernist worldview paradigm can bring about a wide departure from traditionalism in some ways, and this is what has occurred in the U.S. In its beginning or “entering phase” (Beck & Cowan, 1996) of course, modernist thinking will be similar to traditional thinking. However, with the huge advance of science in the modern age, culturally diverse, relatively wealthy and technologically advanced countries like the U.S. can see a dramatic change in their majority-held value-systems, in a relatively short span of time, and all within the modernist worldview paradigm.
This change begins with the idea that beliefs which are similar enough to one’s own are tolerable after all. In fact, in the multicultural, multi-religious country that is the United States, a certain level of toleration is considered to be citizens’ patriotic duty, as without it, there would be no peace within the nation. Further, the modernist paradigm values science and discovery. Scientific knowledge builds upon itself and therefore expands exponentially. The more rapidly scientific knowledge expands, the faster the worldview may expand and evolve, as new, previously unknown or unaccepted ideas become part of the norm.

Also, modernists tend to believe in majority rule in a way not well accepted by either traditionals, who want “strong leaders,” or by postmoderns, who want extensive protection for minorities. Modernists tend to only accept legal changes away from fundamentalist doctrine when it perceives those changes to be the will of the majority. It tends to be taken for granted by modernists that not all laws are fair and that minority groups will be less than satisfied with the rules that majorities make. This, however, is seen as necessary in a democratic society. The responsibility of citizens is to obey the rules, but they always have the right to try to win the majority over to their own way of seeing things. This becomes the competitive political game of trying to sway public opinion, and the winning majority “takes all,” or rather makes all rules.

It is likely the modernists’ beliefs in majority rule and scientific evidence that tend to land them in the “centrist” middle of American political controversies such as gay marriage and the legality of abortion. They are willing to accept change as the majority will changes. And, American modernists are often swayed by scientific evidence in a way that the more religious traditionals are not. For example, polls show that people who believe the scientific evidence that homosexuality is biologically predestined rather than individual choice are more likely to accept the legality of gay marriage (Craig et al, 2005; Haider-Markel & Joslyn, 2005). Because they also believe in individual freedom, modernists tend to be political-secularists. This is partly why the Tea Party, which largely panders to the traditionals on the religious right, tends to make the more centrist Republicans rather uneasy.

**Postmodernism.** Within the postmodern paradigm, hierarchies are never allowed. There is no perceived scarcity of rights, and often no perceived scarcity of resources. Any resources which are scarce will tend to be equally rationed, because no group is seen as more deserving of or having more right to any given resource than any other group. For example, postmoderns tend to defend modern-day immigrants, legal or not, as being as equally deserving of all available rights and benefits as anyone else in the United States (for example, see ACLU, 2000). Postmoderns tend to be externalists, believing that our capitalistic system is oppressive to some groups. This is why some postmoderns favor socialistic governmental systems and are offended by the modernist paradigm’s wealth-based meritocracy. They believe that an important function of government is to help its citizens enjoy quality of life. They want to eradicate poverty, and see access to medical treatment and quality education as basic human rights.

Because postmoderns do not like hierarchies, in business and academic organizations, they may prefer decision-making committees as a replacement for top-down administrative structures. Even at the family level, postmoderns may be egalitarian, with parents often involving each other and even their children in their
decision-making processes. When it comes to government, postmoderns believe in the delegate model of representation (Pitkin, 1967). That is, they believe that leaders are supposed to keep an eye on the will of the people they represent and, as best as possible, act according to that will. When Bill Clinton used polls to determine majority will concerning public policy, postmoderns hailed him as a great democratic leader, while traditionals scorned him as “pandering” to majority whim.

Postmoderns in the U.S. tend to believe at least philosophically in the total equality of all peoples and in the importance of consensus decisions (Beck and Cowan, 1996). Because of this, some postmodernists may tend to view strict rule by the majority as an oppressive political system that systematically violates the basic “inalienable” human rights of the minority (see, for example, Alfaro, 2012). This may also be why some postmodernists within the U.S. strive to create a “deliberative democracy” (Chambers, 2003; Dryzek, 2005) whereby issues are discussed at length with all concerned groups until a consensus can be reached. This practice was used extensively by President Obama during his first term without much success. Nonetheless, this ideal that some postmoderns hope for would give the greatest amount of freedom to the largest number of people. Shunning hierarchy and elite rule, some young postmoderns in the U.S. believe that anarchy is the only true solution to oppression, and some embrace libertarianism – which explains why many of them voted for Ron Paul. Because they believe in broad equality for all, it is also the postmoderns who have led the fight for gay marital rights in America.

Finally, postmoderns are large-group communal. This communalism explains their egalitarianism, but also explains why many of them believe that government must more strictly regulate business, particularly when it comes to large corporations. Postmoderns tend to believe that the land, air and water belong to all of us collectively, and therefore no one should have the right to pollute or degrade the environment for their own profit. They also believe that we should strive for a peaceful society, because everyone deserves to live in peace and we should all strive to live in harmony with and kindness towards each other. It is for these reasons that postmoderns work to save the health of the environment, tend to desire strong regulation of guns, and often protest against wars.

Conclusion

It should now be obvious that an understanding of just two left-to-right political axes and three worldview paradigms can go a long way toward explaining the otherwise complicated dynamics of American politics. The three worldview paradigms produce differing notions about what should constitute the primary function of government, whether individual rights or collective needs are most important, how “equal” Americans citizens deserve to be, how our government officials are supposed to behave and what the most important concerns of our collective focus ought to be. But once the political axes are understood and the worldview paradigms are mapped, it is far simpler to make sense of our various political ideologies. It also becomes obvious why the two major political parties in the U.S. must attempt to satisfy the numerous “centrist” modernists, while simultaneously guarding the interests of their own political “bases,” that happen to also represent the two sides of our “culture war.”
Notes

4. The news media tend to refer to this group as “social conservatives.” However, the term “conservative” refers to a desire to maintain something, to keep it the same as it is, to conserve it. This term applies accurately to the desire to maintain a high level of gun ownership rights, for example, but does not apply accurately to very many other items currently on the moralists’ agenda.
5. During President Barack Obama’s keynote speech at the 2009 National Hispanic Prayer Breakfast he made the following statement, “So as we join in prayer, we remember that this is a nation of Christians and Muslims and Jews and Hindus and non-believers.” His words drew criticism from political commentator Glen Beck and caused quite a stir on the internet from bloggers who were angry that Obama had dared to include other religions and even “non-believers” in his statement.
6. For example, the “Moral Majority,” a political action group composed of fundamentalist Christians, lobbied for prayer and the teaching of creationism in public schools, while opposing homosexual rights and the legality of abortion.
7. For example, see Americans United (for the Separation of Church and State). They have a website at http://www.au.org/.
8. Duckitt and Fisher (2003) define “worldviews” as individual's “beliefs about the nature of their social environments” (201).
9. For example, Sarah Palin describes herself as a “traditional.” For discussion of her use of this term, see Talbot's “Red sex, blue sex,” 2008.
10. Explained in an email to me from McIntosh, received August 27, 2010.
11. This notion of natural and necessary hierarchy was perhaps first documented in Aristotle’s *Politics*.
12. John Adams said this in spite of being marginally tolerant of his wife’s feminist views. See his letter to Abigail, dated March 31, 1776.
13. I heard this one from my own family, and have much more recently heard it said as a “reason” why a Black man should not become president of the United States. For an example, see the video “Misconceptions of Obama fuel Republican campaign,” online at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zRqcfqjXCO0 (accessed 8-12-2011).
14. Homosexuals and their advocates argue that marriage is a basic human right that should not be denied to anyone. One of the counter arguments from the Christian right has been that gay marriage impinges on the rights of heterosexuals. For example, this is the primary argument used by The National Campaign to Protect Marriage (NCPM). See NCPM, "Colorado for family values," 1996.
15. Coined by Herbert Hoover in a campaign speech dated October 22, 1928.
16. For offense at the notion of wealth-based “meritocracy,” see Horwitz, "The dangers
of the myth of merit," 2009, as well as the comments posted below his online article. For discussion of whether “merit,” as measured primarily by work-ethic, actually leads to the gaining of wealth in America, see McNamee & Miller, “The meritocracy myth,” 2004, and Toch, "The meritocracy's caste system: What's good and bad about the SAT," 1999.

References


Can Online Learning Be As Effective As Classroom Learning?

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Abstract

As Adult and Career Education programs extend their online education offerings, the degree to which online students are successful as compared to their counterparts is of interest to faculty. By comparing student performance measures and assessments of learning experience from both online and traditional sections of required adult education courses taught by the same instructor, this study provides evidence that student performance as measured by grade and student evaluation ratings is independent of the mode of instruction.

One key facet of change taking place in the Adult and Career Education Department (ACED) at Valdosta State University and at institutions of higher education around the world is the growth of online learning. Allen and Seamen (2014) stated that, currently, 32 percent of higher education students take at least one online course during their academic career. The 2014 Survey of Online Learning conducted by the Babson Survey Research Group reveals the number of students taking at least one online course has now surpassed 7.1 million. “The rate of growth in online enrollments remains extremely robust, even as overall higher education enrollments have shown a decline,” said study co-author Jeff Seamen.

As the number of online courses offered in ACED increases, online education presents an opportunity to reexamine the effectiveness of our educational work. According to Seaman (2014) over one third of full-time higher education faculty have taught online courses. Because of a growing demand and the belief of a majority of university administrators, that the quality of online education is comparable to that of the traditional classroom (Allen & Seaman, 2014), online teaching may become an expectation rather than a choice for faculty.

How can faculty in higher education enhance their teaching effectiveness in diverse learning environments? With more and more courses being offered online, faculty are expected to be master teachers in both face-to-face and online environments. This research seeks to contribute to that effort by exploring the effectiveness of online learning versus face-to-face learning.

Classes in all formats have distinct strengths and weaknesses. Perhaps the greatest strength of face-to-face courses is the degree to which they facilitate building relationships and community in and out of the classroom. Increasing access to “non-traditional” or place-bound students may be the greatest strength of online and hybrid courses, which enable universities to include people who desire a degree or certificate but who cannot come to campus regularly or at all. For public universities, such as Valdosta State University, which has a mission to expand its programmatic outreach by developing and offering programs by distance learning and at off campus locations throughout the region, this goal of increasing access is especially significant.

This study is an analysis of outcomes in a course that has been taught by the author in both face-to-face and fully online delivery formats over three academic years in the Adult and Career Education Department of Valdosta State University. There was doubt and question regarding the quality of learning gained in online versus face-to-face courses. The study addressed course grades, student attrition, and student evaluation ratings.
Methodology

**Goal of the Study**

The goal of this study was to examine indicators of learning and academic success between the same online and face-to-face courses.

**Research Questions**

The research questions that were addressed in this study were:

- How do final course grades of the same course taken online and face-to-face compare?
- How do student evaluation ratings of the same course taken online and face-to-face compare?
- How do student attrition rates of the same course taken online and face-to-face compare?

**Study Participants**

The participants in this study consisted of 152 undergraduate students enrolled in a Skills for the Workplace undergraduate course. From Fall 2012 to Fall 2013, there were 93 online students and 59 students enrolled in the face-to-face classes. Ages ranged from 19 to 55. Different majors that included Human Capital Performance, Workforce Development, Office Administrative Technology, Dental Hygiene, Interdisciplinary Studies, and Organizational Leadership. Students enrolled in the course because it was required or because it could be used as an elective.

**Course Description and Format**

The course used for this study was an undergraduate adult and career education course. Researcher and the instructor of the courses were the same person. Both online and face-to-face students had the same instructor, studied the same course material, completed the same assignments, and allotted the same time frame for completion of assignments. Students in both courses were able to contact the instructor by email, phone, during office hours, or by appointment.

This study uses student performance records, student evaluation ratings of the course, and student attrition rates from six classes (three online and three face-to-face) all taught by the same instructor. To provide comparable learning experiences across the two modes of teaching, the content and structure of the course were the same. Table 1 compares the content delivery mechanisms between the two instructional modes. Students in both online and face-to-face classes were given access to Desire2Learn system. In the online classes, all course materials and activities were delivered via Desire2Learn. In the face-to-face classes, required readings other than the textbook and multimedia resources were made accessible online. In addition, the instructor also required the students to use the assignment function on D2L to submit assignments and retrieve feedback. Otherwise, classroom activities such as lectures, discussions, and group projects were carried out in the classroom. The main difference between the two types of classes was the mode of interaction between instructor and students as well as among students.

*(See Table 1)*
Findings

Learning effectiveness as measured by student grades is independent of the mode of instruction. Table 2 presents the grade distribution of the six classes. There was no significant difference between online and face-to-face students’ performances.

(See Table 2)

To obtain the students’ evaluation ratings of the course, a survey was distributed. The purpose of student evaluations was to help the instructor improve courses and instruction; moreover, students’ evaluations are used in the annual evaluation of faculty. Table 3 contains results for the course evaluations.

(See Table 3)

The survey asked the students to assess the effectiveness of the class in achieving the objectives on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neutral), 4 (Agree), 5 (Strongly Agree). The result is presented in Table 4.

A statistical analysis of students’ course evaluations showed no significant difference in instructional quality based on the format used. Together with comparisons of student work, these results provide additional evidence in support of the finding of no significant difference between formats in the area of instructional quality.

(See Table 4)

All the online classes had higher failure rates as compared to face-to-face classes. Table 5 shows that 18 percent of students failed in online classes, whereas only 3 percent failed in face-to-face classes. Students who failed the class were often those who discontinued their study within the first two weeks of the semester.

(See Table 5)

Discussion

This study points to a number of critical issues about online learning and raises questions for further study. First, once students are enrolled, it is important to retain them in the course. Franola (2001) suggests that motivation, realistic expectations, highly integrated live sessions, and application of advanced technologies contribute to persistence in both the academic and corporate distance-learning environment.

Conclusion

The results of this study confirm Bernard et al. (2004) and Means et al. (2009) that the delivery method (online vs. face-to-face) is not as important as the instructional strategies employed since there were few differences between the quality of work from the online and face-to-face courses. The study concurs with the general body of knowledge that online courses can be just as effective as face-to-face courses. The results of this study, and others like it, suggest that online instructors should focus on providing high quality instruction for online learners. Interaction among the learners and with the instructor is important in face-to-face and online formats. Cognitive engagement in online courses is highest when students feel a personal connection with their instructor and course content. Faculty must develop instructional skills that work best in the online environment so that students are engaged and connected with the instructor and their peers.

Further research should take into account variables such as:

- interactions with course interfaces
• course design and organization
• faculty characteristics and instructor expectations
• ongoing assessment linked to immediate feedback
• creating a sense of community
• students’ motivation
• learning styles

All are qualities that could contribute positively to the effectiveness of online learning. Dykman and Davis (2008) wrote “Teaching online is an exercise in continual incremental improvements.” We need to explore what new and wonderful types of learning environments make learning effective for both online and face-to-face students.

References


Table 1
Comparison of Content Delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Method</th>
<th>Online</th>
<th>Face-to-Face</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lectures</td>
<td>Wimba/PowerPoint</td>
<td>Instructor/PowerPoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimedia Resources</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Online</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Discussion Board</td>
<td>Classroom Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Projects</td>
<td>Online Teams</td>
<td>Face-to-Face Teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submission of Assignments</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Online and in Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback to Students</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>In Class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2
Comparison of Grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACED 4810 Contemporary Skills for Workplace</th>
<th>Fall 2012 to Fall 2013 Online Students</th>
<th>Fall 2012 to Fall 2013 Face-to-Face</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Number of Students</td>
<td>Number of Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WF</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Table 3
Comparison of Course Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACED 4810</th>
<th>Fall 2012 to Fall 2013 Online Students</th>
<th>Fall 2012 to Fall 2013 Face-to-Face Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Course Evaluation Score</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>4.77</td>
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</table>

### Table 4
Comparison of Course Evaluation Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation Question</th>
<th>Online Mean Score</th>
<th>Face-to-Face Mean Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The course increased my knowledge of the topic</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the course was excellent.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
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### Table 5
Comparison of Fails and Withdraws

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Online</th>
<th>Face-to-Face</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACED 4810</td>
<td>Number of Students</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Fails/Withdraws</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of Fail/Withdraws</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
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</table>
The "Motor City" Project in Luizhou, China:
Building the Foundation

Hui Xu (Student)
Central Washington University
Automobile production has become the pillar industry of Liuzhou City as it enters the 21st Century. In China a “pillar industry” is the leading industry upon which national plans for accelerated economic growth are based. Many auto giants including General Motors Corporation, Nissan, Shanghai Automotive Industry Corporation, and China Faw Group Corporation have contributed to the development of the pillar by investing in Liuzhou. The Liuzhou automotive pillar has attracted supporting industries creating a comprehensive industrial cluster that transformed the city into not only a national production base for automobiles, but also for automotive parts.

A wide range of vehicles are produced, such as mini-vans, saloon cars, commercial cars of multi-purpose, trucks on light, medium, or heavy duty, vehicles for special purpose, and structure-changed vehicles under top brand names such as Shanghai General Motors Wuling (SGMW), Dongfeng Chenglong, Dongfeng Fengxing. In 2008 Liuzhou ranked No.5 among all the cities in China with a total output of 699,700 automobiles and SGMW’s market share was over 50% for mini-commercial vehicles in China with a monthly sales volume of 100,000 (Liuzhou Government website, “Introduction to Liuzhou”). In 2009 automobile industry in Liuzhou accounted for 43% of the city's total industrial output and auto production crossed the 1 one-million mark moving the city up to forth in nation ranking (Liuzhou 2010, Liuzhou Automobile Industry Development Plan). Up to this point automobile production in China and Liuzhou was strictly for the domestic market, but as ASEAN accords came into play the decision to build a “Motor City” in Liuzhou caused officials at all levels to look toward the greater regional/global market.

1. The history of the auto industry in Liuzhou

Liuzhou has been the major industrial center of southwest China since it became the terminus of Qiangui railroad from Longli, Guizhou province. This railroad, established in 1939, was the first railroad with standard specifications in the southeast China and it transformed Liuzhou into its railway hub and a major railroad center. The railroad pillar coupled with Liuzhou’s excellent geographical location resulted in the rapid development in steel, metallurgy and engineering machinery industries.

Today with a population of 3 million it is the economic center of Guangxi Zhuang autonomous region. As an industrial city, it has many industrial sectors. The automotive sector, which has been in place for a more than 80 years, is now the most important. The motor industry in Liuzhou began in the year of 1933. The automotive industry of Liuzhou is the oldest in the Guangxi Zhuang autonomous region, the first automobile of Guangxi was developed and built in Liuzhou in 1933. The engine was a charcoal burner converted at the Liuzhou Machinery Factory. Upon completion the first automobile was driven to Nanning, the provincial capital of Guangxi Zhuang autonomous region.

The success of the first automobile increased confidence and enthusiasm in Liuzhou and plans were laid for the establishment of the auto industry. In the 1960’s the Liuzhou agricultural machinery factory and Liuzhou machinery factory combined efforts to realize the dream of cargo truck production in Liuzhou by sending a team of engineers to Beijing and Nanjing to study cargo truck design. After the research team returned, lack of equipment and experience made development of the vehicle and the manufacturing process very difficult, virtually everything had to be handmade. On April 20, 1969, the first handmade Liujiang brand truck finally rolled off the line.
At this point the Liuzhou commercial automobile industry really took off when three major motor companies and two automobile engine companies began to plan, set up and expand operations in the city. They were Liuzhou Micro Car Factory, Liuzhou Automobile Factory, Liuzhou Special Automobile Factory, Liuzhou Machinery Factory and Liuzhou Engine Factory. From this point on development was very rapid: in 1969, the “LIUJIANG” brand was introduced; 1997 automobile production reached 10,000; 2003 production exceeded 100,000; 2006 production reached 500,000 and in 2009 it hit the milestone of 1,000,000.

During the initial period, as with the handmade truck, almost all automotive enterprises generated their own technologies which created a lot of constraints and limitations. To address these problems the city and the automobile manufacturers launched a program of industrial reorganization and plant upgrading. The first big industrial reorganization was a horizontal merger that took place in the 1980’s (Liuzhou 2003 and Luizhou Wuling, “Introduction of Corporation”). The Liuzhou Automobile Factory joined the Dongfeng automobile industry consortium and the Liuzhou Special Automobile Factory joined the China Faw Group Corporation. In 1990, the Liuzhou Automobile Industry Association was established by Liuzhou government to improve enterprise management and encourage innovative scientific research and technological development. In the year of 2002, in order to improve the competitiveness of the city’s automotive sector, the Liuzhou Micro Car Factory began to cooperate with Saic Motor Corporation Limited and General Motors Corporation. This innovative cooperative venture, which includes two state-owned enterprises and a transnational, is called “sino-sino-foreign joint venture”. These reforms brought new management concepts and new technology into the city and made its products more competitive in domestic auto market. The three main motor factories changed their new names to Liuzhou Wuling Motor Co., Ltd. Form Liuzhou Micro Car Factory, Dongfeng Liuzhou Motor Co., Ltd. form Liuzhou Automobile Factory and Faw Jiefang Liuzhou Special Automotive Co., Ltd. from Liuzhou Special Automobile Factory (SGMW website). As internationalization and cooperation with well-established corporations in China expanded Liuzhou’s resource base, the city’s reputation as a vehicle manufacturing center spread to other provinces and people everywhere began to think of Luizhou as a “Motor City”. More automobile plants and auto parts manufacturing companies established operations and soon a complete motor industry supply chain was in place.

2. The development of the motor parts industry

The year of 2009 is very important for Liuzhou motor industry because at this point it became the city’s “pillar” industry. The production reached 119 million with a value of 7.56 billion yuan. By this time there were 415 motor vehicle and parts production enterprises with a property value of 47.2 billion yuan and 56000 employees. The pillar composed of three (3) main plants, four (4) special automobile production facilities and two (2) low-speed truck plants producing 880000 mini vehicles, 80000 trucks, 50000 multifunctional cars, 50000 special use cars, 20000 low-speed cars and 1 million engines. The mini car parts support system was complete except for steering lamps, lanterns and tires. The local components accounted for 60% of mini cars and 30% of light trucks, particularly, car frames, auto-body stamping parts, auto-body ornament, seat and carriage. The key auto parts produces are: “Liuzhou Wuling Motors Co., Ltd”,

Between 2009 and 2013 the city began preparations to seize the opportunity presented by national policies for accelerating the development of the auto and parts export base. The equipment level and product quality of the key auto parts enterprises were improved to complete the supply chain for the medium and high-grade cars to support a state of the art automobile industrial cluster. The city’s goal is now to create a local parts system to fully accommodate the production of medium and high-grade vehicles as the next step in the development of the core automotive industrial cluster.

The motor industry is now first among the three pillar industries in Liuzhou and it is the fastest growing because of the acceleration of the global economic integration and the expansion of the domestic auto and auto parts market. As overseas-funded enterprises gain access to the motor market in China, there will be a big change of the competitive model of the motor and motor parts market. To prepare for this change Liuzhou has introduced a new initiative called, “Accelerating the economic restructuring and strengthening the transformation and upgrading” (Liuzhou 2010, Automobile Industry Development Plan) to promote the development of new industries and automobile components production. The central component is the Hua ling pian motor parts industrial park. This 910.58 hectare park will become the center for automobile parts production, national automobile quality supervision and inspection as well as the home of a new China-EU cooperative industrial facility. The industrial park will bring Liuzhou’s supply chain up to world standards for both domestic and export markets.

In 2010 the Liuzhou government launched the “Liuzhou auto parts industry promotion strategy” targeted for completion in 2015. In 2012 the city and the province joined forces to establish a national export automobile test laboratory, The Motor Quality Inspection Center and Laboratory, in Liuzhou in order to promote the construction of Liuzhou motor city and China parts production bases during this period of rapid expansion.

The Guangxi Inspection and Quarantine Bureau will seek support from the national Inspection and Quarantine Bureau to obtain project funding for the talent cultivation, technical training and advanced technology. These efforts aim at the creation of a comprehensive, world class, automotive production cluster by 2015.

3. The China ASEAN exposition and Liuzhou automobile exposition

In conjunction with building the capacity to compete in the regional market Liuzhou has begun to develop its international marketing capabilities. Expositions play an important role in this effort. CHINA-ASEAN (2006) Exposition (CAEXPO) was established by the departments in charge of economic development and trade throughout China and the ten countries of ASEAN, in combination with the ASEAN Secretariat and under the proposal made by Chinese Premier Wen Jiabao. It is an international economic and trade communication event, sponsored by the People’s Government of the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region. CAEXPO is held in Nanning City, Guangxi every year to promote the development of the CHINA-ASEAN Free Trade
Area through cooperation and sharing of ideas about opportunities in commodity trade, investment and cooperation and service trade.

On October 8, 2003 at the 7th China and ASEAN (10 plus 1) Summit, the Chinese Premier Wen Jiabao proposed that a CHINA-ASEAN Exposition be held in Nanning City, Guangxi every year after 2004, in conjunction with the CHINA -ASEAN Business and Investment Summit. His proposal was widely welcomed by the leaders of the ten countries of ASEAN. Six successful CHINA-ASEAN Expositions and summits have been held and Nanning City of Guangxi and it is currently the only city in China serving as the permanent host for a multi-national exposition. CHINA-ASEAN Exposition includes many communication activities at different levels in different sectors. (Lu, 2011) The CHINA-ASEAN Exposition has become a platform for communication and cooperation between China and ASEAN and a venue that supports and promotes the CHINA-ASEAN Free Trade Area.

Because of its geographic proximity, CHINA-ASEAN represents a strategic opportunity for Liuzhou City. Liuzhou is in the middle part of Guangxi Zhuang autonomous. It takes only 3 hours to drive from Nanning to Liuzhou but with the new high-speed rail connection the time has been shortened to less than one hour. Guangxi will enter the high speed rail era in 2013 (Chunfeng Song and Liping Wu, 2013). As “Motor City” Liuzhou began to take shape in 2011, the government of Guangxi Zhuang autonomous region decided to hold a sub-exposition. The Liuzhou CHINA-ASEAN-motor exposition to take advantage of Liuzhou City’s motor industry and geographical advantages with ASEAN countries to promote the internationalization of Liuzhou’s motor and parts industries. This will accelerate the trade in automobiles and parts with ASEAN resulting in win-win development for the motor industries of Liuzhou and ASEAN countries. Buyers from ASEAN countries will have easy access to the products they need through the exposition and the Liuzhou’s enterprises will be able to find business opportunities in ASEAN countries.

4. Liuzhou Exhibition Center and the Liuzhou Automobile Exhibition

To accommodate the new motor city exhibition a 680 million Yuan facility was constructed in Liuzhou City. The Liuzhou Exhibition Center is located in the new East Liuzhou Development District that opened in 2011. The Liuzhou Exhibition Center consists of two main buildings: the exhibition center and the conference center. The exhibition center is steel structure that it is 30.15 meters high with a footprint of 36000 square meters. The conference center with a construction area of 17600 square meters is 89.9 meters high with a total of 12 floors.

As of 2013 there have been three successful automobile exhibitions held in the new exhibition center. The first automobile exhibition was held in 2011 with 274 companies from China and ASEAN countries showing their automotive lines, engineering machinery, technology and automobile parts. Several major events took place at the conference center during the exhibition among them: “China-ASEAN automobile industry forum”, “China-ASEAN automobile industry introduction conference”, and “The negotiation conference between the automobile manufacturing enterprises and the purchasing agents”. Businessmen and government officials from the ASEAN countries left the exhibition with a better understanding of the Liuzhou automobile industry. The second automobile exhibition saw an increase in participation
with 323 companies participating. Seven more countries sent delegations (Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam, Burma, Thailand, Laos and Cambodia). In addition, the Hong Kong trade development council invited purchasing agents to visit the exhibition for the first time. Activities at the conference center were expanded to include: “Trade regulations and technical standards seminar of China- ASEAN countries automobile industry and automobile parts”, “2012 China (Liuzhou) and EU automobile industry forum”, and “The introduction seminar of Vietnam industry”. At the second automobile exhibition exchange and cooperation platforms were organized for many Chinese enterprises with ASEAN countries and some other countries. Work was begun on a regional international professional exhibition. The inclusion of several famous brands such as Mercedes, BMW, Porsche, Audi, and Lincoln added to the stature of the exhibition. Building off of the first two exhibitions, the third exhibition covered a display area of about 23000 square meters and was divided into five parts: passenger cars, engineering machinery, the business vehicles, new energy cars and the agricultural equipment. Many luxury brands, such as the Lamborghini, Ferrari, Aston Martin, Rolls-Royce participated. During the period of the exhibition, that included 11700 professional customers, total attendance topped 100000 (Liuzhou automobile exhibition).

Conclusion
All of these initiatives were carried forward under the Liuzhou (2010) Automobile Industry Development Plan that launched the Motor City 2015 Project. Tables 1 and 2 show how these efforts have maintained high levels of production while rapidly increasing output value over the past five years. (See Table 1 & 2)

By the end of the development period the new town population in the future “motor city” district is expected to reach 250,000 and automobile production will approach 1,000,000. When the Motor City is finished in 2020 it is anticipated that 1,000,000 residents will produce 4,000,000 automobiles to meet the needs of both the domestic and ASEAN markets.
References


Liuzhou Automobile Exhibition http://www.lzauto-expo.org/


Table 1: Car Production of Liuzhou 2005-2013

![Car production of Liuzhou graph]

Source: Liuzhou statistical bureau

Table 2: Annual gross output value of Liuzhou automobile industry (billion yuan)

![Annual gross output value graph]

Source: Liuzhou statistical bureau
Neighborhood Built Environment and Leisure-time Physical Activity Participation among Adults in Utah

Calvin H. Yu (Student)
Hillcrest High School
Abstract

BACKGROUND: Research examining relative importance of multiple built environment features and their associations with leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) participation is limited in general and lacking in Utah. This study examined the role of the built environment in contributing to individual odds of no LTPA participation in Utah.

METHODS: Individual-level data were from Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) collected in 2007, 2009 and 2011 in Utah and through a state-wide telephone survey of health and health behavior. Neighborhood-level data were from the American Community Survey (ACS) and a geographic information system (GIS) park database provided by ESRI in ArcGIS. Zip codes were available for subjects in the Utah BRFSS data and were used to define neighborhoods and to link the three data sources into one merged file. Multilevel regression analyses were performed to examine the research questions in the whole sample and then in gender and age subsamples.

RESULTS: When examined separately, walkability and spatial park accessibility were both significantly and negatively correlated with individual-level odds of reporting no LTPA participation in the past month net of confounding factors. When simultaneously examined, walkability effects remained significant and park effects disappeared. Participants aged 65 or older were more responsive to park accessibility but less affected by walkability. Walkability effect was slightly weaker for women than for men.

CONCLUSIONS: The built environment matters to individual-level odds of no LTPA participation net of multilevel confounding factors. The relative importance of walkability is greater than that of park accessibility in this sample.

Introduction

Obesity is a major public health concern in the United States. In 2009-2010, the prevalence of obesity was 35.5% among adult men and 35.8% among adult women (Flegal, Carroll, Kit, & Ogden, 2012). Excessive weight is due in part to low energy expenditure as a result of physical inactivity. In addition to obesity prevention, regular participation in physical activity (PA) can also confer other benefits ranging from fitness enhancement and chronic disease prevention to mental well-being and quality of life (Gopinath, Hardy, Baur, Burlutsky, & Mitchell, 2012; Janssen & Leblanc, 2010; Perez, Pratt, Simoes, de Moura, & Malta, 2013). In fact, insufficient physical activity is the 4th leading risk factor for mortality worldwide; and physically inactive people have a 20% to 30% increased risk of all-cause mortality compared to those who engage in at least 30 minutes of moderate intensity physical activity most day of the week (World Health Organization, 2009). Prevalence of insufficient physical inactivity remains to be high in the United States, ranging from 14% to 34% according to different sources of nationwide survey data (Carlson, Densmore, Fulton, Yore, & Kohl, 2009).

In a wealthy country like the United States, leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) is a major form of PA (Bauman et al., 2012). Identifying correlates of LTPA is needed to design effective intervention to promote physical activity and prevent obesity. In recent decades, neighborhood built environment is increasingly recognized as an important environmental factor for PA and viewed as a promising venue for targeted interventions which can simultaneously benefit many people living in the same area. However, evidence on the effects of specific built environment features is not established beyond doubt. For example, the literature on the effects of public parks on LTPA participation has generated mixed results (Berrigan & Troiano, 2002; Brown, Schebella, & Weber,
and complex interaction effects have been reported to show conflicting built environment impacts on different socio-demographic groups (R. E. Laxer & I. Janssen, 2013). Moreover, not many studies have examined relative importance of different built environment features in a single setting; this information can help prioritizing which built environment feature to focus given scarce resources (R. E. Laxer & I. Janssen, 2013). Previous findings seem to suggest the role of built environment in contributing to LTPA be situational depending on personal characteristics as well as place-specific contexts.

The current study examines two built environment features, walkability and spatial park (in)accessibility, and their association with individual likelihood of LTPA participation in Utah, using recently collected state-wide representative survey data merged with built environment data. There have been several studies examining neighborhood social and built environment features and their associations with obesity risks in Utah (Smith et al., 2008; Wen & Maloney, 2011). But little work has been done to examine these issues for physical activity outcomes or to explore how these associations may vary according to individual characteristics. Supposedly built environment features should have more direct and stronger influences on LTPA than on obesity as the latter is an end product of a more complex and longer behavioral and biological process. Moreover, environmental influences can be stronger or weaker across individuals based on their levels of exposure and vulnerability to a risk factor such as unfavorable built environment. Therefore, the secondary aim of this study is to test whether built environment effects are moderated by individual demographic (i.e., age, gender and race) and socioeconomic (i.e., education and household income) factors.

**Methods**

**Data**

This study is a cross-sectional study, using multilevel data sets combining individual-level data with neighborhood-level data. Individual-level data were from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) conducted in Utah. We used data collected in 2007, 2009 and 2011 because PA questions were asked in these years. The Utah BRFSS is an ongoing telephone (landline or cellular phones) survey by the Utah Department of Health in conjunction with the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) to assess the prevalence of and trend in health-related behaviors in the non-institutionalized Utah adult population aged 18 years and older. Data collected through the BRFSS is completely confidential. Everyone’s answers are combined and no identifying information is collected. Therefore, no human subject issue was involved in the current research. Pregnant women were excluded from the analyses.

Neighborhood-level data were constructed from two sources. One was from the American Community Survey (ACS) providing information on geographic social and built environment features and the other one from the 2010 ESRI ArcGIS 10.1 Data DVD providing park location information (ESRI, 2009). Zip codes were available for subjects in the Utah BRFSS data and were used to define neighborhoods and to link the three data sources into one merged file. Although zip code boundaries do not perfectly circumscribe neighborhoods, they do represent local residential areas and they are
frequently used in studies of neighborhood effects on health and behavior (Lipton & Gruenewald, 2002; Merkin, Stevenson, & Powe, 2002; Wen & Christakis, 2005).

**Measures**
The dependent variable was a dichotomous variable identifying the subjects who self-reported that they did not participate in any physical activities or exercises such as running, calisthenics, golf, gardening, or walking for exercise. This measure distinguished subjects who participated in any of these activities from those who did not participate in any of these activities in the month prior to the survey.

At the individual-level, five variables were controlled including age (age 65 years or older versus those younger), gender (female versus male), race (whites versus non-whites), education (some college or above education versus below college education), and annual household income (8 categories: <$10,000, $10,000 to <$15,000, $15,000 to <$20,000, $20,000 to <$25,000, $25,000 to <$35,000, $35,000 to <$50,000, $50,000 to <$75,000, and $75,000 or above).

At the neighborhood-level, one variable was controlled, namely median household income, measured in the unit of $10,000 to ease the interpretation of effect size. Three additional neighborhood variables were examined capturing two built environment features: walkability and spatial park (in)accessibility. Walkability was measured by percent driving for an hour or more per day to work and percent walking, biking, or taking public transportation to work among the residents who work outside of home in the neighborhood. These two variables were constructed from the ACS data. Park (in)accessibility was measured by population-weighted spatial distance from the centroid of blocks to the nearest public park and then aggregated to the zipcode level for each neighborhood (see detailed method below). The raw data used to construct the measure for spatial park accessibility was from the ESRI park data.

**Analytical approach**
ArcGIS was used to construct the park (in)accessibility measure. Stata 11.0 was used to construct analytical data from the raw Utah BRFSS and ACS data, merge the three data sets using zipcodes, and perform statistical analyses.

Specifically, the park accessibility variable was constructed in the following steps. First, we created a distance measure (mile) from the geographic centroid of a block to the closest public park for that block. There are 75,000 blocks in Utah and we completed this step for all the blocks using ArcGIS. Second, we obtained block-level and zipcode-level population counts for all the blocks and zipcodes in Utah and calculated proportions of block-level population out of zipcode-level population for each block. Third, we calculated population-weighted distance to get one measure of distance to the closest park measure for each zipcode using the following formula:

\[
\text{Distance}_j = \sum [(P_i/P_j) \times \text{Distance}_i]
\]

where \(i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots n\) denoting blocks in the \(j^{th}\) zipcode. Park inaccessibility of the \(j^{th}\) zipcode area is then measured by the sum of population weighted distance to the closest parks of all the blocks within the area.

After constructing the analytical file, we ran six multilevel (random intercept) logistic regression models to examine our research questions. Model 1 was the baseline model that included only the individual-level variables. Model 2 added median household income. Based on Model 2, Model 3 added percent driving daily for an hour or more to work, Model 4 added percent walking, biking, or taking public transportation
to work per day, Model 5 added park accessibility variable. Model 6 was the final model putting all the variables together. We then ran additional models testing interaction effects of the three built environment variables with senior age, female gender, white race, college education, and household income. Because only age and gender interaction effects were significant, we refit Model 6 in four age and gender specific subgroups.

Results
Table 1 presents characteristics of the study participants and of their zipcode areas. The sample size in the analyses was 23,856 observations. The prevalence of LTPA participation in the last month was 80% with 20% of the sample leisurely inactive. Twenty-five percent of subjects were 65 years old or older. Fifty-six percent of subjects were females and the vast majority were whites (81%). Sixty-nine percent of subjects received at least some college education (not necessarily with a bachelor's degree). And the mean level of annual household income was in the range of $35,000 to $50,000.

Table 2 shows the regression results of the main effects. Age 65 years or older, females, non-whites, people without college education, and those with lower annual household income were less likely to report LTPA participation than their respective counterparts (Model 1). After controlling for these individual-level confounding variables, neighborhood median household income was independently and positively associated with the odds of LTPA participation (Model 2; OR=1.09; p<=0.01). Net of individual- and neighborhood-level confounders, percent driving daily for an hour or more to work (Model 3; OR=0.83; p<=0.01), percent walking, biking, or taking public transportation (Model 4; OR=1.26; p<=0.01), and distance to the closest park (Model 5; OR=0.98; p<=0.01) were associated with the odds of LTPA participation in expected directions. When the three built environment variables were simultaneously examined (Model 6), their independent effects reduced in size compared to those found in previous models where the three variables were separately examined (Models 3 to 5). The park accessibility effect, no longer significant in the final model, seemed relatively weaker than the walkability effects (still significant at the 5% level). Figure 1 graphically illustrates the results of the final multivariate model where median household income and percentage of residents taking active transportation to work appear positive correlates and prevalence of long-commuting residents a negative covariate.

The age- and gender-specific subgroup results are presented in Table 3. The neighborhood control variable, median household income, remained to be a positive covariate across all the subgroups. The built environmental effects were clearly weaker for older adults with no effect found for older men and a marginally significant and negative effect of park inaccessibility found for older women. For younger adults, regardless of gender, percentage of residents taking active transportation to work was a positive covariate and prevalence of long-commuting residents a negative one. No other interaction effects were found for race, education and household income.

Discussion
To increase participation in LTPA, it is important to understand the factors associated
with active or sedentary behaviors. As far as we know, this study is among the first to examine the associations between neighborhood built environments and LTPA participation in Utah. We examined two key features of the neighborhood built environment, as potential contextual factors influencing LTPA participation net of personal background. We found neighborhood walkability and spatial park accessibility were both important contextual factors that were positively correlated to the odds of individuals’ LTPA participation. However, the benefits of parks were less remarkable compared to those of walkability and there were subgroup variations by age and gender.

These results clearly point to the importance of neighborhood contexts for residents’ lifestyle, reinforcing the notion that individuals’ health and behavior are strongly shaped by their local social and physical environments. The finding that walkability has a greater contribution than park accessibility to LTPA is not surprising given that walking is the most commonly reported form of physical activity in the United States (Centers of Disease Control and Prevention, 1996) and that park utility for physical activity can only be manifested if parks are utilized. Evidence shows a variety of factors such as size, facilities, typology can affect the extent of park utilization and physical activity benefits (Brown et al., 2014).

Another important finding is that the effect of neighborhood built environments on LTPA differed significantly across age and gender. The effects are much weaker for older adults with only park accessibility remaining marginally significant for older women and none of the built environmental features significant for older men. The slightly stronger park accessibility effect on women is consistent with the literature which generally report stronger neighborhood effects on women than on men (Chang, 2006; Robert & Reither, 2004; Wen & Maloney, 2011; Wen & Zhang, 2009). However, no gender difference was found for non-senior adults for whom both walkability and park accessibility exhibited significant contextual effects when adjusting for individual-level socio-demographic covariates and neighborhood median household income. More research is needed to examine subgroup variations in the link between built environment and LTPA to provide more precise evidence for environment-oriented interventions on promoting active lifestyle.

In this study, neighborhood median household income is a more consistent predictor of individuals’ LTPA participation relative to built environment features. Although many studies have found significant built environment effects after adjusting for a range of confounders, research also shows that the effect of built environment features may be quite small probably due to a myriad of multilevel influences shaping physical activity behavior (Lovasi et al., 2008). That said, from a policy point of view, built environment features are perhaps more amenable than socioeconomic resources. Meanwhile, population attributable risks for physical activity of built environment features such as walkability and park space can be moderate to large (Rachel E. Laxer & Ian Janssen, 2013). Changes to make the built environment more activity inviting would likely benefit a large number of people despite the small effect observed at the individual level.

The strengths of this study include using a large-scale state representative sample, constructing and testing objective measures of the built environment, investigating relative contributions of two features of the built environment (i.e., walkability and park accessibility), and exploring interaction effects of the built
environment with age and gender. The study weaknesses are also noteworthy. The measure of LTPA participation was self-reported and likely subject to response bias. Walkability was captured by two proxy factors rather than be specifically measured. Other activity-relevant features of the built environment were not examined. The study was cross-sectional, so causal conclusions cannot be made from the study findings. And using zipcode areas as neighborhood units may have diluted the magnitude of the observed neighborhood effects due to misspecification of the exposure.

Future research should examine a wider range of built environment features and more objectively measured physical activity participation levels. In addition, more group-specific research should be conducted as social environmental influences may vary according to individual characteristics. This study only explored interaction effects with five socio-demographic factors. There are presumably additional personal factors that can moderate environmental impacts. For example, being a parent of a young children aged five years or younger may be a negative factor against LTPA even though this parent may live in a resourceful neighborhood with the most favorable built environments. It is also possible how the built environment matters to youth differs from how the built environment matters to young, middle-aged or older adults. These variations need to be further explored in the future to provide evidence for policy makers and researchers to design and implement effective interventions tailored to specific socio-demographic groups.

REFERENCES
Han, B., Cohen, D., & McKenzie, T. L. (2013). Quantifying the contribution of
neighborhood parks to physical activity. Preventive Medicine, 57(5), 483-487.


## Table 1 Sample Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual-level Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any participation in leisure-time physical activity (LTPA)</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 65 or older</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female gender</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Hispanic white</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College or above education</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual household income(^a)</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample size=23,856


\(^a\) Annual household income is measured by eight categories: <$10,000, $10,000 to <$15,000, $15,000 to <$20,000, $20,000 to <$25,000, $25,000 to <$35,000, $35,000 to <$50,000, $50,000 to <$75,000, and $75,000 or above

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zipcode-level Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median household income ($10,000)</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>21.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% residents driving for an hour or more per day to work</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% residents walking, biking, or taking public transportation to work</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial distance to the closest public park (mile)</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>19.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample size=273 zipcode areas

Data source: 2007-2011 American Community Survey; park data from ArcGIS Park Data
## Table 2 Neighborhood Built Environment Features and Odds of Participation in Leisure-Time Physical Activity in Utah

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Baseline Model (individual-level controls)</th>
<th>Median Household Income (neighborhood-level control)</th>
<th>Walkability (Driving for at least an hour to work per day)</th>
<th>Walkability (Walking, biking or taking public transportation to work)</th>
<th>Spatial Distance to Closest Park (park inaccessibility)</th>
<th>Final Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age 65 years or older</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.58 - 0.68)</td>
<td>(0.58 - 0.67)</td>
<td>(0.58 - 0.67)</td>
<td>(0.58 - 0.67)</td>
<td>(0.58 - 0.67)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>0.90**</td>
<td>0.90**</td>
<td>0.90**</td>
<td>0.90**</td>
<td>0.90**</td>
<td>0.90**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.84 - 0.97)</td>
<td>(0.84 - 0.96)</td>
<td>(0.84 - 0.96)</td>
<td>(0.84 - 0.96)</td>
<td>(0.84 - 0.96)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 3</td>
<td>1.15**</td>
<td>1.15**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.05 - 1.25)</td>
<td>(1.05 - 1.24)</td>
<td>(1.05 - 1.24)</td>
<td>(1.04 - 1.24)</td>
<td>(1.04 - 1.24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 4</td>
<td>1.75**</td>
<td>1.75**</td>
<td>1.74**</td>
<td>1.73**</td>
<td>1.74**</td>
<td>1.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.62 - 1.87)</td>
<td>(1.69 - 1.87)</td>
<td>(1.61 - 1.86)</td>
<td>(1.62 - 1.87)</td>
<td>(1.60 - 1.85)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 5</td>
<td>1.15**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.12 - 1.16)</td>
<td>(1.12 - 1.16)</td>
<td>(1.12 - 1.16)</td>
<td>(1.12 - 1.16)</td>
<td>(1.12 - 1.16)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zipcode median household Income ($10,000)</td>
<td>1.09**</td>
<td>1.09**</td>
<td>1.12**</td>
<td>1.08**</td>
<td>1.10**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.05 - 1.12)</td>
<td>(1.05 - 1.12)</td>
<td>(1.08 - 1.15)</td>
<td>(1.04 - 1.11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zipcode % driving daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.83**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.89*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1: Odds Ratios of Significant Zipcode-level Variables Based on the Final Model of Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Description</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>for an hour or more to work (10%)</td>
<td>(0.75 - 0.92)</td>
<td>(0.79 - 0.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zipcode % walking, biking, or taking public transportation to work per day (10%)</td>
<td>1.26**</td>
<td>(1.13 - 1.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zipcode spatial distance to the closest park (mile)</td>
<td>0.98**</td>
<td>(0.96 - 0.99)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observations=23,856; 273 zipcode areas in Utah; 95% confidence intervals in parentheses;
*significant at 5%; **significant at 1%

a. Annual household income is measured by eight categories: <$10,000, $10,000 to <$15,000, $15,000 to <$20,000, $20,000 to <$25,000, $25,000 to <$35,000, $35,000 to <$50,000, $50,000 to <$75,000, and $75,000 or above

![Figure 1: Odds Ratios of Significant Zipcode-level Variables Based on the Final Model of Table 2](image-url)
Table 3 Age-Gender Group Specific Analyses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zipcode-level Variables</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Male Non-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>Non-senior</td>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>Non-senior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median household income ($10,000)</td>
<td>1.04+</td>
<td>1.14**</td>
<td>1.07+</td>
<td>1.09**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.98 - 1.09)</td>
<td>(1.09 - 1.18)</td>
<td>(1.00 - 1.16)</td>
<td>(1.03 - 1.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% walking, biking, or taking public transportation to work per day (10%)</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.31**</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.27**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.95 - 1.26)</td>
<td>(1.16 - 1.49)</td>
<td>(0.85 - 1.33)</td>
<td>(1.07 - 1.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% driving daily for an hour or more to work per day (10%)</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.88+</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.76 - 1.03)</td>
<td>(0.77 - 1.00)</td>
<td>(0.76 - 1.23)</td>
<td>(0.61 - 0.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zipcode spatial distance to the closest park (mile)</td>
<td>0.98+</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.96 - 1.00)</td>
<td>(0.97 - 1.01)</td>
<td>(0.94 - 1.02)</td>
<td>(0.96 - 1.02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>6,001</td>
<td>17,855</td>
<td>2,423</td>
<td>8,004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of zipcode areas</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

95% confidence intervals in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05, + p<0.1

Controlling for race, education and household income

a. Annual household income is measured by eight categories: <$10,000, $10,000 to <$15,000, $15,000 to <$20,000, $20,000 to <$25,000, $25,000 to <$35,000, $35,000 to <$50,000, $50,000 to <$75,000, and $75,000 or above